

Teaching social accountability by making the links: Qualitative evaluation of student experiences in a service-learning project

RYAN MEILI¹, DANIEL FULLER² & JESSICA LYDIATE³

¹College of Medicine, University of Saskatchewan, Canada, ²Department of Social and Preventive Medicine, University of Montreal, Canada, ³Department of health science, McMaster University, Canada

Abstract

Background: Many medical students come into medicine with altruistic motives, few carry this altruism into their practice. As a result rural, remote and international areas are underserved by the medical community. Teaching social accountability may help students remain altruistic and encourage work in underserved areas. Making the links (MTL) is a project designed to teach medical students the social aspects of medicine via service learning.

Aims: The purpose of the study was to explore student reflections on their experiences during the MTL program.

Methods: Qualitative data analysis was conducted using structured open-ended written questionnaires. Fourteen students, representing three student cohorts, participated in the study. Data was collected between 2005 and 2007.

Results: Six themes emerged from qualitative data analysis. (1) relationships, (2) social determinants of health in real life, (3) community development (4) interdisciplinarity, (5) linking health and communities, and (6) personal learning. Themes reflected the opportunities and challenges experienced by the students during the MTL project. Students reported that MTL was an essential component of their medical training.

Conclusions: MTL is a promising model for using service learning to teach social accountability in medical training.

Introduction

A large percentage of medical students come into the profession with altruistic motives; including working with underserved populations at home and abroad (Eckenfels 1997; Coulehan & Williams 2001). With exposure to models of practice that may not support altruistic motives, the accumulation of debt and the establishment of relationships in the city of study, the medical school experience tends to reduce the number of students who carry ideals into practice (Hafferty & Franks 1994; Hunnert et al. 1996; Coulehan & Williams 2001). Thus the areas in most need of health care: rural, underserved urban and international populations in developing nations receive the least (Commission on the Social Determinants of Health 2008). Encouraging practice in underserved populations by creating socially accountable doctors could have an important effect on encouraging altruistic medicine (Faulkner & McCurdy 2000).

The World Health Organization (WHO) defines social accountability in medical schools as “the obligation to direct their education, research and service activities towards addressing the priority health concerns of the community, region and/or nation that they have a mandate to serve” (World Health Organization 1995). The College of Medicine at the University of Saskatchewan outlined, in its 2007 Integrated Plan, a “commitment to incorporating social accountability into its education, research and service activities towards

Practice points

- It is difficult for medical students to carry altruism into their practice.
- Rural, remote and international areas are underserved by the medical community.
- MTL teaches medical students socially accountable medicine via service learning.
- Community service-learning teaches social accountability and may help students to remain altruistic and encourage work in underserved areas.

addressing priority health concerns at the local, regional, national and international communities it serves, and has recognized the importance of community based service-learning for its faculty and students in fulfilling that commitment” (College of Medicine University of Saskatchewan 2003). Two aspects of that commitment are to provide service learning experiences for students and give students interdisciplinary training opportunities to learn the skills required to work with underserved populations. In 1974 the Lalonde report, “New perspective on the health of Canadians,” recognized inequality in health care services in Canada, “medical services are not yet equally accessible to all segments of the population because health man power tends to

Correspondence: D. Fuller, Department of Social and Preventive Medicine, University of Montreal, 1430, Boulevard du Mont-Royal, Montréal, PQ, Canada H2V 4P3. Tel: 1(514) 212-4107; fax: 1(514) 343-5645; email: fuller.daniel@gmail.com

concentrate in cities and is not attracted to rural or isolated locations (Lalonde 1974).” The inequity in health services still exists today (Marmot 2007; World Health Organization 2007). Educational strategies giving medical students clinical and service learning experience in rural/remote, urban underserved and internationally may be an effective way to increase social awareness and practice in these settings (Burrows et al. 1999; Easterbrook et al. 1999; Laven & Wilkinson 2003; Courran & Rourke 2004). However, exposure to mainly urban environments during medical training encourages physicians to establish urban practices (Easterbrook et al. 1999).

The worldwide commitment of medical professionals to social accountability (World Health Organization 1995; Health Canada 2001) the importance of reducing inequities in healthcare access (Marmot 2007, World Health Organization 2007) and the positive results of rural training experiences for medical students (Laven & Wilkinson 2003; Courran & Rourke 2004) were the founding ideas behind the making the links (MTL) program. MTL provides medical students with a longitudinal service-learning experience built on long-term relationships with underserved communities, fostering social accountability and community involvement to encourage medical students to practice altruistic medicine in underserved areas.

Service learning: A framework for teaching social accountability

It is notoriously difficult to teach the social aspects of medicine in traditional didactic classroom or hospital settings (Faulkner & McCurdy 2000; Stephenson et al. 2001; Lempp & Seale 2004; Cole & Carlin 2009). Traditional settings are not ideal for teaching the so-called “soft stuff” (Stephenson et al. 2001; Cole & Carlin 2009). The difficulty of teaching the social aspects of medicine is illustrated in the three of the four principles of family medicine developed by the (College of Family Physicians of Canada, n.d.; CFPC). How do you teach a student to be community-based within the walls of the university? How do they learn to be a resource for a defined population they’ve never met? How do you teach them to be patient-centered clinicians without showing them this attitude in practice? The nebulous nature of these principles, these social aspects of medicine, when contrasted with the hard facts of specialist-taught training, contributes to the paucity of students choosing family medicine (Coulehan & Williams 2001). Service-learning experiences moves the issue of teaching social accountability beyond well meaning rhetoric to measurable achievement. It offers a means for the students to see the practical application of their altruistic ideals (Woollard 2006).

At the core of MTL is the concept of service-learning. Service-learning is defined as “a structured learning experience that combines community service with explicit learning objectives, preparation, and reflection” (Pew Health Professions Commission 1993). Service-learning is an engaging and effective way to teach students the social aspects of medicine (Thompson et al. 2003). Four elements are critical to service learning: (1) student learning, (2) community service and partnership, (3) inter-professional collaboration, and

(4) reflection (Seifer 1998). Service-learning “is a balanced partnership between communities and health professions schools and a balance between serving the community and meeting defined learning objectives” (Seifer 1998). MTL exposes students to service-learning experience in rural/remote, urban low-income and international communities. Students, community members and community-based organizations become active agents in community development and student training. Patients, clients, partners and community members assure that all initiatives address community-identified needs. This teaching and learning method encourages the formation of positive relationships with people of different socio-cultural backgrounds, leading to the development of communication skills and cross-cultural understanding. Community-based settings also introduce students to concepts of health systems and interdisciplinarity. Finally, students take the time to reflect on their experience. The reflection and evaluation period of MTL originates from the work of Schon (1983, 1987) who suggests that reflective practice involves thoughtfully considering one’s own experiences which can help practitioners development of autonomy and self-direction.

Making the links

MTL outlines six learning objectives for students; (1) gain educational experience in multiple contexts, (2) gain exposure to concepts of international, rural and urban health, and community development, (3) experience service learning, (4) gain language skills and multi-cultural understanding, (5) improve communication skills, and (6) gain exposure to health systems and health teams. The purpose of the study is to explore student reflections on their experiences during the MTL program. We consider student reflection relative to the objectives, the unidentified gains and the potential negative consequences of the program.

Phases of MTL

MTL consists of five phases: (1) an orientation to health issues of the underserved, (2) a northern community experience, (3) a volunteer experience at a student-run clinic in an underserved urban area (4) an international experience in Mozambique, and (5) a reflection and evaluation period (See Figure 1 for the program timeline). The program takes place during the pre-clinical years and is completed in addition to the regular medical school curriculum.

The orientation portion of the project has three components. A 20 h Aboriginal seminar, a 3 credit global health course and language training. The Aboriginal seminar is a student-led reading and discussion group exploring topics, such as indigenous health and healing, treaties, residential schools and Métis history (see Appendix 1 for readings list). The global health course is taught at the University of Saskatchewan and examines international health and community development (see Appendix 2 for course description). Portuguese language training is done in preparation for Mozambique.

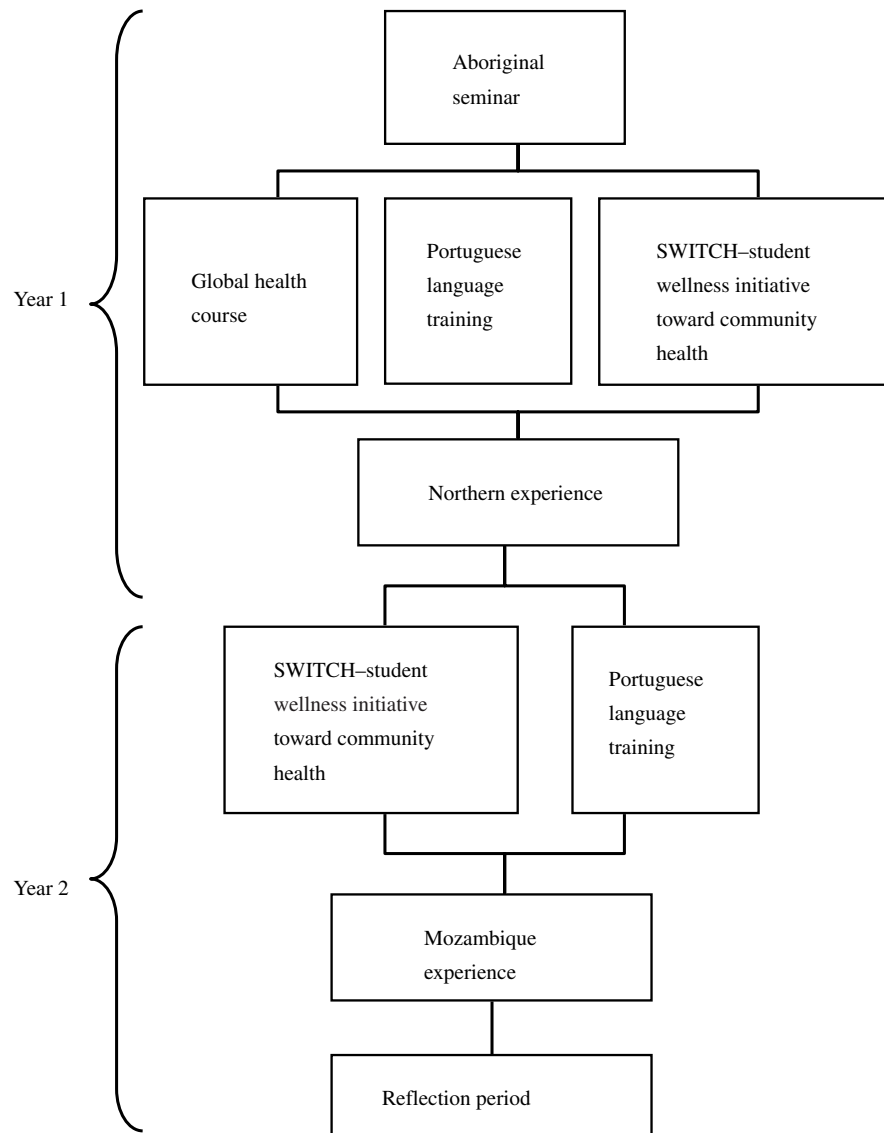


Figure 1. Timeline for the Marking the Links program.

During their northern experience students spend 6 weeks in one of two rural remote communities: Buffalo River Dene Nation or Ile a-la-Crosse. Students participate in clinical training and community service. They learn about the health issues faced by northern residents, and contribute to community health development activities. Activities include sweat lodge ceremonies, planning a youth conference, attending clinical training, and accompanying home care workers.

During the urban underserved experience students volunteer for two shifts per month at the student wellness initiative toward community health (SWITCH) clinic. SWITCH is an interdisciplinary student lead clinic that provides health services and community outreach to underserved neighborhoods. SWITCH involves students and professionals from a variety of health disciplines, including, medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, and nursing. Students engage in clinical training, participate in health promotion programming, and food preparation.

During their international experience students spend 6 weeks in Massinga, Mozambique. Students live and work

at the Massinga Rural Hospital and the Centre for Continuing Education in Health. Students engage in hospital clinical activities, assist with mobile vaccine brigades, and participate in community development and participatory action research (Dickson 2000; Dickson & Green 2001).

During their reflection and evaluation period students complete a report pertaining to their experience.

Methods

The study used a qualitative approach to examine student experiences during the MTL program. The purpose was to explore student reflections on their experiences during the MTL program (Creswell 2007). Ethical approval for the study was obtained through the University of Saskatchewan Research Ethics Board. The authors acknowledge connections existed between researchers and participants in the field, (Creswell 2007) and steps were undertaken to reduce the potential bias caused by this connection.

373	Participants		
374	Participants for the MTL program were selected based on a	and withdraw or modify information contained in the article	435
375	written application and interview. First year medical students	if they so chose (Creswell & Miller 2000).	436
376	apply by answering a series of questions relating to interna-		437
377	tional and northern/Aboriginal experience, language skills,		438
378	and other relevant experience. Members of the MTL working		439
379	group evaluate applications based on the quality of reflection		440
380	and writing. Students are then short-listed for an interview.		441
381	Members of the MTL working group and previous MTL		442
382	participants interview candidates. Students are selected		443
383	based on an assessment of their readiness for the experience		444
384	and previous commitment to working with underserved		445
385	populations. Consideration is given to students able to		446
386	navigate the delicate nature of the relationships with the		447
387	underserved communities and act as participants and ambas-		448
388	sadors of the College of Medicine. Some consideration is given		449
389	to language ability. In order to mitigate potential economic		450
390	barriers to participation, students selected to the program are		451
391	given a stipend to cover living expenses and travel.		452
392	Fourteen students, representing three first year cohorts	Had you asked me before this experience what	453
393	(60 students per cohort), participated in the study. Data was	community health is I would have given you a	454
394	gathered between 2005 and 2007. The selection of participants	definition. If you ask me now, I'll give you names,	455
395	was not done explicitly for the purpose of the research. MTL	stories, laughs, somberness and actions.	456
396	is not the only service-learning opportunity for students in		457
397	this medical program. While MTL is the most in-depth service	Through relationships with individuals in the communities	458
398	learning experience, it is only one part of a larger social	students were forced to reflect on their own stereotypes,	459
399	accountability strategy at the College of Medicine (Meili &	particularly with respect to Aboriginal populations. These	460
400	Zaleschuk 2010).	populations are highly stigmatized in Canada, particularly in	461
401		Saskatchewan.	462
402			463
403		I learned the importance of not judging someone	464
404		who may be down and out and struggling with their	465
405	Questionnaire	addictions. First of all often you don't know what	466
406	Data were obtained from structured open-ended written	they have done in the past (good or bad) and what	467
407	response questionnaires. Students completed the question-	they may have lived through in their life. Also you	468
408	naires twice during MTL, following the northern and interna-	don't know what they may become in the future	469
409	tional experiences (see Appendix 3 for questionnaires).	(many the respected Elders earlier in their lives	470
410	Questionnaires contained nine open-ended questions devel-	struggled with addictions), and even if they don't win	471
411	oped for the purpose of the project. The MTL working group	their battle with addiction they still shouldn't be	472
412	and first cohort of participants developed the questionnaire.	judged.	473
413	Questionnaires were modified yearly by students in order to		474
414	ensure the relevance of the questions.		475
415		Social determinants of health in real life	476
416		Much of the student's reflection was focused on their	477
417		experience with social determinants of health in a broad	478
418	Analysis	sense and related to specific experiences.	479
419	A research assistant compiled the reports based on location		480
420	of experience (rural/remote, international) and removed all	Another observation is the amount that people in	481
421	identifying information. Study authors independently reviewed	Dillon must travel for appropriate health care.	482
422	student reports and engaged in theme generation. Theme	Daily, people travel to Ile-a-la-Crosse, North	483
423	generation involved four steps (Creswell 2007). First, a general	Battleford, Saskatoon, or Prince Albert for health-	484
424	reading with the purpose of gaining an understanding of the	related reasons. The fact that almost everyone will	485
425	texts. Second, coding of information into preliminary themes.	travel up to twelve hours round-trip at least once	486
426	Third, authors independently generated themes. Fourth, peer	(but probably several times), just for an appointment	487
427	debriefing was conducted. Using a consensus based approach	is noteworthy. It makes visiting a doctor an	488
428	authors collectively identify the final themes (Creswell &	entirely different experience, and I still don't know	489
429	Miller 2000). The themes represent the meaning understood by	if I understand what that would be like.	490
430	the researchers and form the basis for understanding student		491
431	experiences. Member checking was conducted by allowing		492
432	students to review their compiled questionnaires. Participants	Community development	493
433	verified that the themes were consistent with their experience,	Students recognized, through experience, the potential of	494
434		a community development approach. They saw the limits	495
			496

497	of disease-centered medicine without considering commu-	reflection on future practice. Students discussed how MTL	559
498	nity context. As well, students recognized, and at times were	changed or encouraged existing career choices.	560
499	frustrated by, the long-term process of community		561
500	development.		562
501		I never thought that I would consider family medi-	563
502	I used to detest my academic courses in community	cine as a career and I certainly didn't think that	564
503	development. While I never had trouble understand-	I would ever want to do rural family medicine and	565
504	ing the concepts, I was always annoyed because they	Northern rural family medicine was completely	566
505	seemed to talk about things that are common	out of the question. After spending time in a	567
506	sense but they use buzz words like 'empowerment'	Northern community I can honestly say that rural	568
507	and 'facilitation.' However, to see what is going on	family medicine in the North is one of my top choices	569
508	in Tevele and Basso is really special, because it puts	in medicine.	570
509	all the academic work into real life.		571
510		Before my northern Saskatchewan experience I had	572
511	There is a danger to not take adequate time to	really thought about becoming a family physician	573
512	develop this relationship and understanding of	and working in rural Saskatchewan. My experiences	574
513	the community and to make assumptions as to the	this summer further solidified that decision and have	575
514	problems faced by the community. This leads to	made me very excited about what role I can play as a	576
515	people at arms length fabricating wonderful solutions	physician in a rural community in Saskatchewan.	577
516	for the problems they fabricated. If the community		578
517	isn't involved in every step of the process, why		579
518	would they buy into a plan for development?		580
519			581
520			582
521	Interdisciplinarity		583
522		Through MTL, students are exposed to a living experience	584
523	Students reflected on the blurring of the hierarchy of medicine	of social accountability. Not every aspect of the program is	585
524	in underserved areas. They recognized variations in power	comfortable, given the stress of training and teamwork in an	586
525	relationships both between health professionals and in the	unfamiliar context. The variety of student experiences reflects	587
526	doctor-patient relationship. Students understood that interdis-	the successes and challenges of the MTL program.	588
527	ciplinarity was important in the context of limited resources.		589
528	However, they also acknowledged that the availability of	Students felt MTL was important for gaining real world	590
529	resources should not necessarily result in the adoption of a	experience in their medical training. The achievement of the	591
530	hierarchical health care structure.	primary objectives of the MTL program are easily identified in	592
531		the student responses. It is evident that they have gained	593
532	Since the clinic's number of workers is so small and	educational experience in multiple contexts, gained exposure	594
533	expertise is greatly limited, everyone must interact	to concepts of international, rural and urban health, and	595
534	with and depend on each other constantly on a wide	community development, participated in service learning,	596
535	range of health issues. As a result, there is less of	gained language skills and multi-cultural understanding,	597
536	a clear line between "I am the doctor, you are the	improved communication skills, and gained exposure to	598
537	nurse, and you are the student.	health systems and concepts of health teams. However,	599
538		responses indicate much deeper reflection. Students discussed	600
539		the importance of culturally sensitive, compassionate medical	601
540	Linking health and communities	practice and realized the limits of a disease-centered approach.	602
541		Students were conscious of the impact of MTL on their future	603
542	Students reflected critically on the similarities and differences	career decisions. Most express an interest in rural or interna-	604
543	between underserved communities. They clearly understood	tional practice, even among those who had not considered	605
544	the links between communities and saw community develop-	such practice prior to the program. Although it is difficult to	606
545	ment as an approach to meet the needs in culturally	report trends on actual practice due to the small number of	607
546	appropriate ways.	students, it is worth noting that 12 of the 16 graduates of MTL	608
547		have chosen Family Medicine residencies, eight of those in	609
548	I think there is a false belief that Mozambique	programs with a rural focus.	610
549	and Africa face far different health issues than	Reflections on the challenges of the program should not be	611
550	Canada, but in reality Canada also faces issues of	overlooked. The main challenge expressed by the students	612
551	poverty, HIV and malnutrition. It is difficult for us to	was that achieving the altruistic goals they brought into the	613
552	tell the third world how to deal with these issues	program was difficult given their clinical experience and the	614
553	when we haven't overcome them ourselves.	short duration of rural and international experiences. Students	615
554		are generally disappointed by their inability to help in clinical	616
555	Personal learning	situations. Because the program takes place in the first 2 years	617
556		of medical training their scope of practice is limited. The length	618
557	Students reflections on their learning was broad. One common	of the rural and international experiences was also challenging	619
558	element that addresses one of the objectives of MTL was	for students. They wanted to engage in community develop-	620

621 From a teaching perspective, exposing students to service-
622 learning in rural/remote, urban low-income and international
623 communities in the form of MTL is a promising model for
624 teaching social accountability in medical training. Clinical
625 educators should promote service-learning as a framework
626 for teaching social accountability. The format of new service-
627 learning initiatives should reflect the values of social account-
628 ability and community development in their context.
629

630

631 Limitations and future directions

633 An important limitation of the present study is that it reflects
634 only the student experiences of MTL. The focus on the
635 students does not provide a complete understanding of the
636 effect of the programs on the communities and university.
637 Also the present study does not examine the effects of other
638 service-learning opportunities nor does it examine the entire
639 social accountability strategy at the university. Future research
640 should address these limitation and use a more comprehen-
641 sive approach to evaluate the effects of service-learning
642 initiatives in producing more socially accountable physicians.
643

644

645

646

647 Conclusion

648 Service-learning can encourage altruistic medicine and teach
649 social accountability (Coulehan & Williams 2001). As one MTL
650 participant reflected:

651 “There is not much we are equipped to do, but we stop and
652 we try. And it is enough. Enough to remember that we are
653 people who can care for each other. Caring is sometimes
654 all we can do.” This recognition of the importance of the
655 “soft stuff” reflects back to William Osler’s statement that
656 the physician’s role is to “. . . cure occasionally, relieve often,
657 but comfort always.” (Osler 1905) and reminds us of the
658 need to keep social accountability at the forefront of the
659 profession.
660

661

662

663

664 Acknowledgment

665 We thank the participants of the MTL program, the host
666 communities and partners for their invaluable contribution to
667 life long learning for all. Research was conducted at the
668 College of Medicine, University of Saskatchewan, Canada.

669 **Declaration of interest:** The authors report no conflicts of
670 interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content and
671 writing of the article.
672

673

674

675 Notes on contributors

676 RYAN MEILI, MD, is a family physician and chair of the Social
677 Accountability Committee at the College of Medicine, University of
678 Saskatchewan.

679 DANIEL FULLER, PhD, is a candidate in the Department of Social
680 and Preventive Medicine in the Faculty of Medicine at the University
681 of Montreal.

682 JESSICA LYDIATE, is an undergraduate student in health science at
683 McMaster University.

6

References

- 683 Burrows MS, Chauvin S, Lazarus CJ, Chehardy P. 1999. Required service
684 learning for medical students: Program description and student
685 response. *Teach Learn Med* 11:223–231.
686
687 Cole TR, Carlin N. 2009. The suffering of physicians. *Lancet* 374:1414–1415.
688
689 College of Family Physicians of Canada. n.d. Four principles of family
690 medicine [Online]. Available from: <http://www.cfpc.ca/English/cfpc/about%20us/principles/default.asp?s=1> [Accessed October 25 2009].
691
692 Collge of Medicine University of Saskatchewan 2003. Integrated
693 Plan [Online]. Available from: http://www.medicine.usask.ca/dean/integrated-plan/integrated_plan_updated_nov28.pdf [Accessed
694 October 25 2009].
695
696 Commission on the Social Determinants of Health 2008. Closing the gap in
697 a generation: Health equity through action on the social determinants
698 of health. Final report of the Commission on the Social Determinants
699 of Health. Geneva: World Health Organization.
700
701 Coulehan JM, Williams PC. 2001. Vanquishing virtue: The impact of medical
702 education. *Acad Med* 76:598–605.
703
704 Courran V, Rourke J. 2004. The role of medical education in the recruitment
705 and retention of rural physicians. *Med Teach* 26:265–272.
706
707 Creswell JW. 2007. *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among
708 five approaches*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
709
710 Creswell JW, Miller DL. 2000. Determining validity in qualitative inquiry.
711 *Theory Into Pract* 39:124–130.
712
713 Dickson G. 2000. Participatory action research: Theory and practice.
714 In: Stewart M, editor. *Community nursing: Promoting Canadians health*.
715 2nd ed. Toronto: W.B. Saunders.
716
717 Dickson G, Green KL. 2001. The external researcher in participatory action
718 research. *Educ Action Res* 9:243–260.
719
720 Easterbrook M, Godwin M, Wilson R, Hodgetts G, Brown G, Pong R,
721 Najgebauer E. 1999. Rural background and clinical rural rotations
722 during medical training: Effect on practice location. *CMAJ*
723 160:1159–1163.
724
725 Eckenfels EJ. 1997. Contemporary medical students’ quest for self-
726 fulfillment through community service. *Acad Med* 72:1043–1050.
727
728 Faulkner LR, McCurdy RL. 2000. Teaching medical students social
729 responsibility: The right thing to do. *Acad Med* 75:346–350.
730
731 Hafferty FW, Franks R. 1994. The hidden curriculum, ethics teaching, and
732 the structure of medical education. *Acad Med* 69:861–871.
733
734 Health Canada. 2001. *Social accountability: A vision for Canadian medical
735 schools*. Ottawa: Health Canada.
736
737 Hunnert EM, Hafferty FW, Christakis D. 1996. Characteristics of the informal
738 curriculum and trainee’s ethical choices. *Acad Med* 71:624–633.
739
740 Lalonde M. 1974. *A new perspective on the health of Canadians*. Ottawa:
741 Government of Canada.
742
743 Laven G, Wilkinson D. 2003. Rural doctors and rural backgrounds: How
744 strong is the evidence? A systematic review. *Aust J Rural Health*
745 11:277–284.
746
747 Lempp H, Seale C. 2004. The hidden curriculum in undergraduate medical
748 education: Qualitative study of medical students’ perceptions of
749 teaching. *BMJ* 329:770–773.
750
751 Marmot M. 2007. Achieving health equity: From root causes to fair
752 outcomes. *Lancet* 370:1153–1163.
753
754 Meili R, Zaleschuk D. 2010. Social accountability at the University of
755 Saskatchewan [Online]. Available from: https://www.medicine.usask.ca/leadership-and-vision/cc_social_acc/?searchterm=social%20accountability [Accessed July 23 2010].
756
757 Osler W. 1905. *Aequanimitas with other addresses to medical
758 students, nurses, and practitioners of medicine*. Philadelphia:
759 Blakiston’s Son.
760
761 Pew Health Professions Commission 1993. *Health professions education
762 for the future: Schools in service to the nation*. San Francisco: Center for
763 the Health Professions.
764
765 Schon D. 1983. *The reflective practitioner*. New York: Basic Books.
766
767 Schon D. 1987. *Education the reflective practitioner*. San Francisco: Jossey
768 Bass Inc.
769
770 Seifer SD. 1998. Service-learning: Community-campus partnerships for
771 health professions education. *Acad Med* 73:273–277.
772
773 Stephenson A, Higgs R, Sugarman J. 2001. Teaching professional
774 development in medical schools. *Lancet* 357:867–870.

745	Thompson MJ, Huntington MK, Hunt DD, Pinsky LE, Brodie JJ. 2003.	World Health Organization 1995. Defining and measuring the social	807
746	Educational effects of international health electives on U.S. and	accountability of medical schools. Geneva: Division of Development of	808
747	Canadian medical students and residents: A literature review. <i>Acad</i>	Human Resources for Health.	809
748	<i>Med</i> 78:342–347.	World Health Organization 2007. Primary health care: Now more than ever.	810
749	Woollard RF. 2006. Caring for a common future: Medical schools social	Geneva: World Health Organization.	811
750	accountability. <i>Med Educ</i> 40:301–313.		812
751			813
752			814
753	Appendix 1		815
754		the underlying determinants of health and for understanding	816
755	Aboriginal seminar readings list	empowerment strategies. Human or people-centered devel-	817
756	Campbell M. 1983. <i>Halfbreed Toronto: Goodread Biographies.</i>	opment and participatory approaches provide a foundation for	818
757	Fournier S, Crey E. 1998. <i>Stolen from our embrace.</i> Vancouver:	learning the essentials of consciousness-raising and socio-	819
758	Douglas & McIntyre.	political action. By combining critical analysis of theories with	820
759	Freirie P. 1970. <i>Pedagogy of the oppressed.</i> New York:	hands- on practice in the community, students will come to	821
760	Continuum.	understand the links between issues that are common overseas	822
761	Grenier L. 1998. <i>Working with indigenous knowledge: A guide</i>	and in Saskatchewan.	823
762	<i>for researcher.</i> Ottawa: IDRC Books.		824
763	Mehl-Madrona L. 1997. <i>Coyote medicine: Lessons from native</i>	Appendix 3	825
764	<i>American healing.</i> New York: Touchstone.		826
765	Neihardt JG. 2004. <i>Black elk speaks: Being the life story of a</i>	Questionnaires	827
766	<i>holy man of the Oglala Sioux,</i> New York: State University of		828
767	<i>New York Press.</i>	<i>Northern questionnaire 2005–2007.</i>	829
768	Ray AJ, Miller J, Tough F. 2002. <i>Bounty and benevolence:</i>		830
769	<i>A history of Saskatchewan treaties.</i> Montreal: McGill-	(1) Describe in brief your healthcare related experiences	831
770	<i>Queen's Press.</i>	and activities in Northern Saskatchewan. Emphasize or	832
771	Smith LT. 1999. <i>Decolonizing methodologies: Research and</i>	elaborate upon one or two of the more significant	833
772	<i>indigenous peoples.</i> New York: Zed Books.	experiences.	834
773	Thatcher RW. 2004. <i>Fighting firewater fictions: Moving beyond</i>	(2) What did you learn from these experiences?	835
774	<i>the disease model of alcoholism in first nations.</i> Toronto:	(a) about international health	836
775	<i>University of Toronto Press.</i>	(b) about community development	837
776	Whitehead PC, Hayes MJ. 1998. <i>The insanity of alcohol: Social</i>	(c) about yourself	838
777	<i>problems in Canadian first nations communities.</i> Toronto:		839
778	<i>Canadian Scholars Press.</i>	(3) What did you like about your time in Northern	840
779		Saskatchewan? What did you dislike?	841
780		(4) What suggestions do you have for future student	842
781		experiences?	843
782	Appendix 2	(a) For students	844
783		(b) For Making the Links organizers	845
784	University of Saskatchewan global health course	(c) For the host communities and organizations	846
785		(d) For the University	847
786	<i>Course description.</i> The course explores global issues affect-		848
787	ing personal, community and international health and devel-	(5) Was the preparation you received useful? What	849
788	opment both overseas and locally in Saskatchewan. The	improvements would you suggest?	850
789	course uses approaches from human-centered development,	(6) How has this experience affected your plans for the	851
790	health promotion, population health and primary health care	future?	852
791	(PHC) to help frame analyses. Students are introduced to	(7) Reflect on similarities and differences between health	853
792	patterns of disease, determinants of health, the global context	issues in Saskatoon and Northern Saskatchewan. How	854
793	of health, and strategies and actions for enhancing well-being.	will your experience in the North affect your approach	855
794	Related aspects of gender, ecology, education, indigenous	to healthcare in Saskatoon?	856
795	beliefs and practices, economic and political systems, and	(8) How was your time in Northern Saskatchewan an	857
796	foreign aid are explored.	interdisciplinary experience? What opportunities	858
797		existed for mutual learning? What are some pros and	859
798		cons of interdisciplinary training? How has this experi-	860
799	<i>Course aim.</i> The aim is to provide an introduction to	ence affected your view of the other discipline(s)?	861
800	international health using approaches and frameworks from	(9) Any other comments?	862
801	health promotion/population health, PHC, people-centered		863
802	development and participatory learning, research and action.		864
803	PHC provides a means for challenging inequities and	<i>Mozambique questionnaire 2005–2007.</i>	865
804	dependencies on professionals and focusing on preventive		866
805	health through community involvement. Health promotion	(1) Describe in brief your healthcare related experi-	867
806	and population health provide a framework for understanding	ences and activities in Mozambique. Emphasize or	868

869	elaborate on one or two of the more significant	(5) Was the preparation you received useful? What	931
870	experiences.	improvements would you suggest?	932
871	(2) What did you learn from these experiences?	(6) How has this experience affected your plans for the	933
872		future?	934
873	(a) about international health	(7) Reflect on similarities and differences between health	935
874	(b) about community development	issues in Canada and Mozambique. How will you	936
875	(c) about yourself	experiences in Mozambique affect your approach to	937
876	(3) What did you like about your time in Mozambique?	healthcare in Canada?	938
877	What did you dislike?	(8) How was your Mozambique experience an	939
878	(4) What suggestions do you have for future student	interdisciplinary experience? What opportunities	940
879	experiences?	existed for mutual learning? What are some pros	941
880		and cons of interdisciplinary training? How has this	942
881	(a) For students	experience affected your view of the other	943
882	(b) For making the links organizers	discipline(s)?	944
883	(c) For the CFCS	(9) Any other comments?	945
884	(d) For the University		946
885			947
886			948
887			949
888			950
889			951
890			952
891			953
892			954
893			955
894			956
895			957
896			958
897			959
898			960
899			961
900			962
901			963
902			964
903			965
904			966
905			967
906			968
907			969
908			970
909			971
910			972
911			973
912			974
913			975
914			976
915			977
916			978
917			979
918			980
919			981
920			982
921			983
922			984
923			985
924			986
925			987
926			988
927			989
928			990
929			991
930			992