A Scoping Review of Hidden Curriculum in Pharmacy Education

Sharon K. Park, PharmD, MEd, a Aleda M. H. Chen, PharmD, PhD, b Kimberly K. Daugherty, PharmD, PhD, c Laura M. Frankart, PharmD, MEd, d Rachel A. Koenig, MA, MLS e

a Notre Dame of Maryland University, Baltimore, Maryland
b Cedarville University, Cedarville, Ohio
c Sullivan University College of Pharmacy and Health Sciences, Louisville, Kentucky
d Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia
e Virginia Commonwealth University Health Sciences Library, Richmond, Virginia

Corresponding Author: Sharon K. Park, PharmD, MEd, Notre Dame of Maryland University, Phone: 410-532-5576. Email: spark@ndm.edu.

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Objective. Hidden curriculum has been defined as teaching and learning that occur outside the formal curriculum and includes knowledge, skills, attitudes, behaviors, values, and beliefs that students consciously or subconsciously acquire and accept. It has been identified as an inherent part of learning in health professions education and may affect students' formation of professional identity. This scoping review investigated the definition and evidence of hidden curriculum for pharmacy education.

Findings. A comprehensive literature search was conducted for primary articles investigating hidden curriculum in pharmacy education through August 2021. A total of five papers were included in the review, four papers from the United Kingdom and one from Sweden. The focus of the paper and elements of hidden curriculum along with the study quality, assessed by the quality assessment tool, varied. Three papers focused on professionalism or professional socialization, and the other two focused on patient safety. All five studies used qualitative methods including focus groups and semi-structured interviews of the students and faculty. Studies also identified approaches to addressing hidden curriculum, such as integrating formal and informal learning activities, integrating work experiences, providing sustained exposure to pharmacy practice, and development of professionalism.

Summary. The definition of hidden curriculum varied across the five studies of varying quality. The evidence of hidden curriculum was measured qualitatively in experiential and academic settings. Recognition of the impact of hidden curriculum and strategies for addressing the negative effects are critical to the success of not only the students but also the pharmacy profession at large.

Keywords: hidden curriculum, informal curriculum, pharmacy education, professional identity, health professions

INTRODUCTION

Hidden curriculum has been defined in education as knowledge, skills, or attitudes that are not specifically covered in textbooks, lectures, laboratories, and course objectives but that students learn, take, inherit, or observe through their educational journey in a program.1-3 This is in comparison to formal curriculum which is defined as the “staged, intended, and formally offered, and endorsed curriculum (i.e., published curriculum).”4 Metaphorically explained by Gardner in 2010, hidden curriculum may include an instructor’s own personal agenda, behavior, and attitudes as well as institutional policies and values, whether they are intentionally or unintentionally conveyed.1 Systematically described by Wallman et al.2 hidden curriculum is an informal curriculum divided mainly into four categories: (1) learning occurring outside formal education settings, (2) experiential learning occurring in everyday work and reflection of those experience, (3) “incidental learning” or intentional learning from a work context, and (4) relational learning arising from social interactions. An example of hidden curriculum could be when a faculty member creates a patient case that conveys a medication error and unintentionally includes negative perceptions of a certain type of healthcare professional (i.e., “because doctors are always rushing”). This statement conveys negative perception, without being the intent of the case. Because professional knowledge is acquired through a combination of academic, organizational, and practice-based learning across both formal and informal settings and mechanisms, hidden curriculum is part of learning that is challenging to be measured because it may not be in the objectives, lecture slides, or assessments, but should not be ignored.5
Given the acceptance of learning through the hidden curriculum in health professions education, the hidden curriculum may affect not only the students but also affect the faculty, program, patients, and the entire health care entity - positively or negatively. Students consciously or subconsciously accept the values, behaviors, attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions learned through the hidden curriculum; the problem arises when this informal learning becomes impressed and imprinted on learners in ways to override, negate, or undo the intended original curriculum that has a more balanced and intentional view of patients, providers, and the healthcare system. Because a professional learning environment provides an inherently community-based experience with socialization and professional development, the hidden curriculum may also convey messages that elicit inappropriate beliefs and behaviors toward patients, colleagues, and other healthcare professionals based on characteristics or hierarchy. For example, in medical education, hidden curriculum has been found to elicit negative and cynical views about the profession and physician professional identity. Thus, the hidden curriculum becomes concerning when it may taint the student’s perception about the patient-clinician relationship, interprofessional practice, professional norms and ethics, and patient outcomes.

In pharmacy education, aspects of hidden curriculum have been mentioned frequently in the literature but often without explicit definitions, descriptions, or outcomes data. Given that the first strategic priority of the 2021-2024 American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy is to “foster a professional culture of change and transformation in pharmacy,” the influences of the hidden curriculum are worth exploring, clearly defining, and reflecting on to achieve this goal. While there are assumptions about potential negative effects of hidden curriculum in pharmacy education, it is unknown the extent to which it affects overall curriculum, student learning, and professional identity. This confusion may be due to a lack of systematic and reliable evidence from which to make appropriate decisions and correct the course. Therefore, the objective of this scoping review is to investigate the definition and evidence of hidden curriculum used in the primary research for pharmacy education. Additionally, this review discusses the effects of hidden curriculum on learning and the strategies to assess and prevent its negative consequences on student learning.

METHODS

A systematic search of six databases was conducted by a health sciences librarian. Based on the principles of the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA), multiple databases were used to retrieve relevant articles, including MEDLINE (Ovid), Embase (Ovid), Academic Search Complete (Ebsco), International Pharmaceutical Abstracts (Ebsco), ERIC (ProQuest), and the Web of Science Conference Proceedings (Clarivate). The search was broken into concept groups; one group encompassed terminology related to the hidden or implicit nature of the hidden curriculum (hidden or informal or implicit or tacit) while a second group contained education-related terminology (curricul* or teach* or taught or training or learn* or education or pedagogy or knowledge). The search was focused only on those papers that dealt with the field of pharmacy (pharm*). Searches were performed on August 23, 2021 with no publication date restrictions, and results were limited to the English language. Citations of each included article were reviewed to find any potential articles missed from the database search. After deduplication in EndNote, references remaining were uploaded into Covidence, a systematic review management software (version 2.0, Melbourne, Australia).

Articles were included in the review if they (1) focused on hidden curriculum, implicit curriculum, or informal curriculum, (2) studied pharmacy program’s curricula as primary research, and (3) were written in English language. Articles were excluded if they were (1) commentaries, letters to the editor, books, or posters without any data, editorial or non-peer reviewed publications, or published only as an abstract with minimal data, (2) did not focus on hidden curriculum, and (3) did not report any outcomes, results, or solutions related to the hidden curriculum. Using Covidence, a two-step review process was conducted: 1) an initial screening of titles and abstracts and 2) a full-text review. All five investigators independently reviewed the retrieved articles and discussed their merit for inclusion via consensus-building; an article was advanced to a full-text review if at least three reviewers approved. The full text was reviewed to ensure that the article met inclusion criteria; at least three investigators needed to agree to include the article in the review.

Key elements of each included study were extracted to describe the objective, study population, setting, design, methods, definitions, and findings. All investigators reviewed the data extraction tables for accuracy. To conduct a quality assessment of included articles, a modified version of the Theory Talk method was used. This method has been used in other scoping reviews within pharmacy and other health professions, relates well to educational research that has a variety of methodologies and approaches examining a concept, and addresses a theory or concept (Table 1). The quality assessment is a standard approach in reviews to examine the usefulness of each included article, and Theory Talk served as a tool to examine how connected a paper was to a theory or concept (i.e., how deeply each article discussed and addressed hidden curriculum). Each article included in the review was reviewed independently by at least two reviewers and, subsequently by a third reviewer for vetting and resolving discrepancies or conflicts. As a final step, the authors conducted data synthesis - a thematic approach to make sense of the data. During this step, the authors identified the conceptualization of hidden curriculum, aspects of hidden curriculum explored, and the implications for pharmacy education using a consensus approach.
RESULTS

The PRISMA diagram generated by the search and review process can be found in Figure 1. A search of the six databases returned a combined total of 882 results. Titles of the included article were reviewed to find any potential articles missed from the database search. After deduplication in EndNote, 627 references remained and were uploaded into Covidence. After the review process, five articles met inclusion criteria. Most articles were excluded because they did not focus on hidden curriculum or did not report any outcomes, results, or solutions related to the hidden curriculum. A summary of the articles can be found in Table 2.

The primary literature related to hidden curriculum included in this scoping review were found to have used either Hafferty’s (1998) or Erhart’s (2004) definition of hidden curriculum in their studies. Hafferty defines hidden curriculum as "A set of influences that function at the level of organization structure and culture and include customs, rituals, commonly held ‘understandings,’ and the ‘taken for granted’ aspects of a profession.” Erhart’s definition uses the term informal learning to describe hidden curriculum; informal learning occurs “outside formal education settings, is intentional or incidental, often experiential, and relational.” The studies came mainly from the United Kingdom and occurred within the experiential setting; there were no available studies from the United States that met inclusion criteria. All five studies used qualitative methods of collecting and analyzing data, including focus groups and semi-structured interviews of the students and faculty. Three papers focused on professionalism or professional socialization, and the other two focused on patient safety.

Two hidden curriculum practices emerged from the reviewed studies: questioning/reflection and role modeling. Applying the Theory Talk assessment, the articles had a varying level of quality; two articles had minor alignment to hidden curriculum, one had moderate alignment, and two had major alignment. Details on the Theory Talk assessment and rationale can be found in Table 3. For questioning and reflection, students felt that the most important learning came from asking questions, observing, listening, being supervised, and then reflecting on the experience. Students identified this as even more important than the formal classroom learning and the structured activities during the experiences. Additionally, students felt that they learned about patient safety more through spontaneous conversation with practitioners as opposed to the formal curriculum.

The other practice for hidden curriculum was role modeling; two studies found that students looked to the practitioners (both pharmacists and non-pharmacists) teaching or precepting them as role models. Non-pharmacists in these studies were defined as pharmacy technicians, dispensers, counter assistants (in community) and assistant technical officers (in hospital). The role modeling provided students with the socialization skills needed to function in the work setting as these skills were not taught typically in the formal curriculum. Students felt that watching practitioners provided them with the ability to compare and contrast methods of how to handle situations such as patient safety and that being allowed to make their own mistakes further solidified the information that they learned in the formal curriculum.

Hidden curriculum was shown to have both positive and negative consequences on student learning according to the literature. For the positive, students reported that watching practitioner role models positively influenced their professional development particularly in areas that were harder to demonstrate in the lecture setting such as patient safety. Students also felt that reflecting on their own errors with the help of a professional greatly helped to cement the importance of the patient safety concepts that they learned in the formal curriculum.

Negative consequences of the hidden curriculum were noted in several studies. For example, students can sometimes feel exploited in experiential settings as they become more incorporated into a work environment. It was noted that they may not understand what they should be “learning” in all situations as they may consider many activities “busy work” as opposed to true learning. This can make the informal/hidden learning time counterproductive. Another negative consequence was an inability to reconcile differences in formal curriculum content and what is seen in the experiential setting, which many times contains more hidden curriculum; this can lead to unnecessary confusion for the student. Students may also find the hidden curriculum changes depending on the location of the training, the specific role model, and the extent of their involvement in patient care activities. This can make it difficult for students to apply their clinical knowledge and communication skills as they may be receiving mixed messages on correct behavior.

The literature found in this scoping review discusses several strategies to help prevent the negative consequences that can occur with hidden curriculum. One strategy is to ensure that the organization has an “integrated” philosophy, in which there is an overlap between intended, taught, and received curricula and thus allows for clear, reinforced, and enforced expectations. To achieve an integrated philosophy, an organization needs to be aware of both the formal and hidden curriculum. Another method is to raise the awareness of hidden curriculum within programs and then find ways to use it in a positive manner. Lastly, encouraging a strong and positive mentor relationship between students and practitioners can help. The last two methods can be improved through the use of professional development to help reduce variation in students’ experiences and professional socialization and development.
DISCUSSION

While pharmacy education may not have explored the definition and practice of hidden curriculum in depth, this term has been in the lexicon of higher education for some time. In our review, we did not find substantial differences in pharmacy education from other health professions literature; instead, more nuanced elements were found given the nature of pharmacy curriculum. Hidden curriculum has also penetrated medicine and nursing education, with both professions having sufficient literature to describe and define it. Medical education has long been dealing with differentiating its formal or explicit curriculum (published curriculum) from informal or “hidden” curriculum. It has been loosely described as cultural norms, ethics, and incongruence between what students learn and what they are taught; Hafler et al. defined it as a learning dimension that includes social interaction, cultural traditions, informal norms, stereotypes, and social practices. Through a review of the literature in medical education, Lawrence et al. found that hidden curriculum has four distinct conceptual characteristics: (1) institutional-organizational, (2) interpersonal-social, (3) contextual-culture, and (4) motivational-psychological.

Among the articles included in this review for pharmacy education, the two definitions cited were from Hafferty’s and Eraut’s. Combining these two definitions may be useful in generating a definition of hidden curriculum in pharmacy education: learning that occurs outside the formal educational setting that is influenced by the customs, rituals, and commonly held understandings of the organization or professional culture and most often occurs in experiential or relational settings. This definition fits with the definitions commonly seen in the medical and nursing literature, includes the concept that it is learning that occurs outside the formal educational setting, and as is discussed later, may elicit the potential incongruence between what is learned and what is taught. This definition also discusses the institutional-organizational characteristic, the interpersonal-social aspect, and the cultural aspect but does not include the motivational-psychological. Having a common definition of hidden curriculum in pharmacy education would make performing future research on this subject consistent.

In pharmacy education, the hidden curriculum may begin when the student begins experiential learning in Introductory Pharmacy Practice Experiences (IPPEs) and become more apparent during an Advanced Pharmacy Practice Experience (APPE) as they realize that there are many constraints and “gray areas” to practicing pharmacy as opposed to the way that they were taught in class. As noted by Cresswell et al., this was often apparent related to patient safety, where many factors influence clinical and administrative decision-making. Using the two hidden curriculum practices that emerged from these articles - questioning/reflection and role modeling - students may be directed to work through the experience and reconcile the incongruence between classroom and experiential learning. For the use of questioning and reflection, students felt that they learned more during these sessions with practitioners than they did in the formal curriculum, and that the opportunities for questioning and reflection were sometimes more important than the structured activities provided during experiences.

The importance of mentorship or role modeling was seen throughout the articles reviewed for this review. Role modeling provides students with socialization skills and the ability to compare and contrast different methods of handling situations. Other scoping reviews have found this to be a key element. Instructors are viewed as role models and students as impressionable learners who observe the instructor’s behaviors and attributes while engaging in clinical instructions or patient interactions. During these encounters, the student will inevitably absorb the instructor’s mannerism, tone, beliefs, and thought processes whether intended or not. Thus, the hidden curriculum, particularly mentoring, can be impactful on students and their wellbeing and should be a priority for consideration by programs; it would be critical for programs to provide faculty and preceptor development in the areas of role modeling and mentorship to facilitate student’s development of professional identity.

The methods of raising awareness of hidden curriculum and encouraging strong mentoring relationships can be improved through the use of professional development to help reduce variation in experiences and professional socialization and development. Faculty and preceptor development efforts may also be beneficial to mitigate the implications of hidden curriculum - addressing intentionality and structure in learning, explaining the importance of changing and revising curricula to meet current practice, and providing bridging between the classroom and experiential learning. This approach needs to be collaborative across departments and disciplines to enhance student learning. Chuang et al. recommends a five-step process for faculty to consider, including (1) reflecting on interactions, (2) identifying stakeholders in student education, (3) collecting data on the interactions between stakeholders and students, (4) analyzing the data, and (5) disseminating the data, with an emphasis on continuous quality improvement. This is similar to some of the recommendations related by Olson et al. but broadens the scope of the reflection and collection process.

Further information is needed on the hidden curriculum within the didactic curriculum as the studies included were focused on experiential learning. Olson et al. published a systematic review regarding hidden curriculum that may undermine the conceptualization of patient-centeredness among students. They noted that this topic could be formally or informally addressed and defined hidden curricula as “tacit, inconspicuous, and commonly unintended lessons about what is ‘actually expected’ from students that differ from a school’s formal standards.” The authors provided definitions of
patient-centeredness and gave recommendations for programs to assess and address hidden-curricular elements.\(^\text{42}\) The questions for identifying and evaluating hidden curriculum related to patient-centered care could be a useful tool for other programs to examine how hidden curriculum could “lurk” in their own teaching and learning. Further work should examine other concepts that are hidden in pharmacy curricula beyond patient-centered care.

Hidden curriculum can have a variety of effects on students. When the hidden curriculum aligns or overlaps with the professional curriculum, it can have a positive impact (e.g., improving the professionalism of students).\(^\text{34}\) However, when it does not align as intended, it can create challenges that are difficult to discern. Similarly, differences between curricular and practice-based expectations can create cognitive dissonance for students and cause them to be unsure what is acceptable or not. In the study by Cresswell et al.,\(^\text{7}\) students could not reconcile different approaches to patient safety in different learning settings. However, studies recognize clear benefits from informal learning\(^\text{2,33}\) because some principles are difficult to convey or learn in the classroom. Learning may not even be possible until students can learn from their own mistakes, creating value for important concepts such as patient safety.\(^\text{33}\) Moreover, it is critical to link theory and practice\(^\text{33}\) which may be an important concept for programs to consider, and curricular and experiential learning should work together throughout pharmacy education with the benefits of informal curriculum in mind. The Accreditation Council for Pharmacy Education Standards 2016 encourages programs to utilize co-curricular and experiential learning in a way that reinforces and enhances classroom learning.\(^\text{43}\)

Bandini et al.\(^\text{44}\) found that student self-reflection that occurred through either small group discussions or mentorships positively impacted thinking about the hidden curriculum and resolved discrepancies between classroom and clinical learning. Therefore, allowing opportunities for students to reflect or encouraging faculty advisors and mentors to ask students self-reflective questions about the hidden curricula could be beneficial. This approach can also provide a meaningful foundation for assessing hidden curriculum: through comparing student perspectives on what is taught to what is in the curriculum map.\(^\text{42}\) This may allow faculty to better understand content or concepts that were emphasized more than intended or should be removed.\(^\text{42}\) Student focus groups could be another approach to obtaining feedback on content that is implicitly and explicitly expressed in a variety of settings - curricular, co-curricular, and experiential. Time for students to self-reflect and evaluate their learning with peers or mentors could be beneficial to prevent the negative consequences of hidden curricula on student learning.\(^\text{2,35,36}\)

This paper provides a potential starting definition for hidden curriculum in pharmacy education in the United States; this definition will need to be refined with future research to be in line with curricular requirements in the United States. It also explores the practice of hidden curriculum in global pharmacy education and brings to light the limited data available on this topic especially in the United States. From the starting point of a definition and understanding available data, the academy can formulate future research plans to address this topic, given the implications for student well-being and learning. It could be noteworthy to examine how the integration of experiential and other learning alongside the curriculum may address these issues; the Accreditation Council for Pharmacy Education Standards 2016 encourages programs to utilize co-curricular and experiential learning in a way that reinforces and enhances classroom learning.\(^\text{43}\) International curricula can have more segmented didactic and experiential learning due to different educational standards. Thus, hidden curricula could occur elsewhere.

Given the results of this review, are any elements of the curriculum truly hidden? Margolis et al.\(^\text{45}\) argues that hidden curriculum is not entirely hidden when the instructor is aware of the problem; it remains behind the scenes of the overall curriculum and reveals itself in the forms of subordination and discrimination that benefit some at the cost of others involved, such as race and gender hierarchy embedded in the psyche, discourse, and attitude.\(^\text{45}\) As found in this scoping review, there are several ways to help prevent the negative consequences that can occur with hidden curriculum.\(^\text{2,5,35,36}\) One strategy is to ensure that a pharmacy program has an “integrated” philosophy as defined above, which allows for a program to have clear, reinforced, and enforced expectations.\(^\text{33,34}\) Another method is to raise the awareness of hidden curriculum within programs and then find ways to use it in a positive manner.\(^\text{2}\)

There are several limitations to this review; this paper may have missed articles that include or discuss an aspect of hidden curriculum given the definition of hidden curriculum is still nuanced and unfamiliar to the pharmacy academy. However, a rigorous process was utilized, with hand-searches of the reference lists, to maximize the evidence generated. Another limitation is the small number of articles in pharmacy education, making generalizations of the results difficult to apply to all pharmacy programs. However, insights from other health professions could be gleaned due to some similarities of learning occurring in the classroom and experientially. Lastly, all the articles found were from outside the United States. Thus, there could be cultural, curricular, and experiential differences which may enhance or mitigate some of the findings. These limitations could be explored in future research; further understanding the impact on student learning and developing strategies for addressing the potential negative effects within the United States are critical to the pharmacy profession at large.

**CONCLUSION**
Hidden curriculum can be defined as learning that occurs outside the formal educational setting, influenced by the customs, rituals, and commonly held understandings of the organization or professional culture. It commonly occurs in health professions education and most often in experiential learning. It may affect students’ learning by creating cognitive dissonance between what is taught in the classroom and the practicality of working in healthcare. Without clear reflection opportunities and mentorship, students may struggle to reconcile these differences. Hidden curriculum can also have positive effects such as helping students improve their professionalism and allowing them to learn from their mistakes. Research regarding the impact of hidden curriculum on student learning and strategies for addressing the potential negative effects within the United States are critical to the success of not only the students but also the pharmacy profession.

REFERENCES


27. Smith MG, Dinkins MM. Early introduction to professional and ethical dilemmas in a pharmaceutical care laboratory course. *Am J Pharm Educ.* 2015;79(10):156. doi:10.5688/ajpe7910156


Figure 1. PRISMA Diagram for the Hidden Curriculum Search and Review Process

Identification of studies via databases and registers

Records identified from:
- MEDLINE (Ovid) (n=234)
- Embase (Ovid) (n=294)
- Academic Search Complete (n=246)
- ERIC (ProQuest) (n=13)
- Web of Science Conference Proceedings (n=37)
- International Pharmaceutical Abstracts (n=58)
Total = 882

Records removed before screening: Duplicate records removed (n=290)

Records screened (n=592)

Records excluded (n=570)

Reports excluded:
- Wrong outcomes (n=6)
- Limited information on hidden curriculum within education (n=4)
- Commentary/review without data (n=3)
- Not pharmacy (n=3)
- Wrong patient population (n=1)

Reports sought for retrieval (n=22)

Studies included in review (n=5)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory Talk Classification</th>
<th>Analytical Category</th>
<th>Definition of Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Minor</td>
<td>Theory dropping</td>
<td>Hidden curriculum is mentioned in the abstract, introduction, or methods (with or without citation) but not revisited later.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Theory positioning</td>
<td>Hidden curriculum is referred to in the beginning or end (with or without citation) to give meaning to original research results, but the theory did not explicitly inform the design or analysis of the study/educational intervention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Theory mapping</td>
<td>Hidden curriculum contributes significantly / explicitly to the design of the study / educational intervention, but not data analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major</td>
<td>Theory application</td>
<td>Employs the concept of hidden curriculum throughout, typically to inform study / educational intervention design and analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Theory testing</td>
<td>Empirically validating or testing an existing theory or instrument related to hidden curriculum / hidden curriculum implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Theory generation</td>
<td>Building, revising, or expanding a theory to create a new theory (related to hidden curriculum)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 2. Summary of Literature Addressing Hidden Curriculum in Pharmacy Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First author, year, title, country</th>
<th>Definition of hidden curriculum</th>
<th>Objective, study population, setting, design</th>
<th>Method used</th>
<th>Findings related to hidden curriculum / Aspects of hidden curriculum explored</th>
<th>Implication on pharmacy education / Recommendations or interventions needed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bradley, 2011</td>
<td>“A set of influences that function at the level of organizational structure and culture and include customs, rituals, commonly held ‘understandings’, ‘taken for granted’ aspects of a profession.” Based on Hafferty’s (1998) definition and differentiates between informal and hidden curriculum</td>
<td>To examine how hidden and informal curricula shaped pharmacy students’ learning about patient safety</td>
<td>Two stages: (1) course analyses related to patient safety from three M. Pharm. programs, and (2) in-depth case studies with two of the programs based on the framework of three knowledge contexts: academic, organizational, and practice</td>
<td>Faculty used their own personal and unscripted anecdotes of patient safety issues in lectures and students found them memorable learning. The background of the lecturer was noted as important and students viewed teaching practitioners as role models. In practice settings, students viewed practitioners as role models. Some students failed to exhibit patient safety practices modeled after their preceptors. Practicum experience at a volunteer or work setting solidified practices related to patient safety such as medication errors and witnessing poor practice. Making an error in practice provided reflection on the causes and consequences. Teachers serve as role models as they exhibit good or bad behaviors. Truly important aspects of patient safety practice may not be realized in a lecture setting. Work experience served as a significant opportunity for learning about patient safety outside of the formal curriculum. Students’ own experience including making their own errors helps inculcate the meaning and importance of patient safety in real life. Sustained exposure to practice throughout pharmacy education to link theory and practice is important.</td>
<td>Teachers serve as role models as they exhibit good or bad behaviors. Truly important aspects of patient safety practice may not be realized in a lecture setting. Work experience served as a significant opportunity for learning about patient safety outside of the formal curriculum. Students’ own experience including making their own errors helps inculcate the meaning and importance of patient safety in real life. Sustained exposure to practice throughout pharmacy education to link theory and practice is important.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wallman, 2011</td>
<td>Used the term “informal learning”: “outside formal education”</td>
<td>To analyze students’ learning by identifying different learning activities in a six-month community pharmacy internship</td>
<td>All students were assigned to a six-month community pharmacy internship</td>
<td>Three categories of learning emerged: (1) formal learning activities at the university and pharmacy, (2) learning activities within work at the pharmacy, and</td>
<td>A lack of or poor integration of formal lectures and assignments into practice existed. Learning can be enhanced if formal assignments and lectures were</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Swedish pharmacy internship from both students’ and instructors’ perspectives

Based on Eraut’s (2007) definition

Students in their 10th semester of pharmacy during a required internship (n=18) and Tutors/preceptors (n=17).

Tutors arranged weekly meetings with their students for assessments.

Universities arranged learning activities during the internship including lectures and self-study, and two formative tests on practical skills evaluated by the tutors for passing.

Qualitative, semi-structured, 1-hour interviews with participants to determine the heterogeneity of responses

(3) work activities turned to learning activities as by-products.

Learning activities within work were informal but intentional and semistructured, and included asking questions, observing and listening, being supervised, and reflecting. Both students and tutors perceived that these activities were most important for learning.

Work activities with learning as a by-product was described by both groups as informal, incidental activities closely connected to participation in daily work. These included working with others, learning from meeting patients, trial-and-error, problem solving, interacting with others and consolidating, extending and refining skills.

Students described their tendencies to assimilate and imitate how others worked. However, they had some difficulties recognizing the learning dimension in working, especially in the latter half of the internship, when they were more incorporated in the workforce and sometimes felt exploited.

Policy related to patient safety made explicit inclusion important.

Definitions related to patient safety varied and were often related to the specific discipline’s concerns with patient safety.

Differences between best...
Multiple case study-based investigations of eight medicine, nursing, pharmacy and physiotherapy university courses in the United Kingdom (medicine, nursing, pharmacy, physiotherapy) from a range of healthcare professions learn about patient safety.

Course leaders, profession-specific healthcare managers, students (2nd year and final year), clinical educators, newly qualified staff, patients (N=162) were all collected and reviewed.

Qualitative, semi-structured focus groups and interviews with different stakeholders with questions related to personal views/perceptions of patient safety education, best ways to learn about patient safety, and how it could be improved.

Observers during the sessions recorded the context/environment, explicit and implicit content and messages, learning and teaching events, and competencies mentioned.

Examination of course content and interviews/focus groups using Eraut’s work on formal and information acquisition of professional knowledge as a framework (academic, organizational, and practice).

Patient safety material is included formally and informally, usually implicit vs explicit. Learning often occurs through spontaneous conversations.

Differences between academic and practice expectations regarding patient safety are not formally acknowledged; students did not know what was acceptable in practice vs unsafe when variations occurred.

Practice-based learning was informal. Student relationships with their mentor/educator were critical to learning.


Schafheutle, 2013

Organizational philosophy vitally impacted professionalism learning.

“Curriculum mapping” was used as the analytical framework to explore how and where students were

To define the concept of “organizational philosophy”

Less formal but nevertheless important influences on the

Schafheutle, 2013

Accepted Draft

Organizational philosophy appears to be achieved by setting explicit standards that are enacted
philosophy as a new perspective on understanding the learning of professionalism

United Kingdom development of professionalism … ‘a set of influences that function at the level of organizational structure and culture,’ thus acknowledging the impact organizational factors have on the learning process.

Based on Hafferty’s (1998) definition and applied to professionalism through identification of elements within undergraduate pharmacy curricula in the United Kingdom that contribute to students’ learning of professionalism.

Teaching staff (N=7)

Final-year MPPharm students (9 male and 29 female students to reflect the 3:7 male:female ratio among UK pharmacy graduates) (N=38)

Contributions did not only occur in the taught curriculum but also the delivered and learned curriculum. Contributions did not only occur in the taught curriculum but also the delivered and learned curriculum. Contributions did not only occur in the taught curriculum but also the delivered and learned curriculum.

Goal to identify elements that facilitate or hinder consistent, effective, and integrated approach to professionalism teaching and learning.

Study completed in 3 pharmacy schools in the United Kingdom: An “integrated” organizational philosophy appeared to be achieved where maximum overlap occurred between “intended,” “taught,” and “received” curricula. In those schools, staff and students discussed a more positive culture. Elements of professionalism were successfully and effectively integrated. Expectations were clear, reinforced, and enforced.

Qualitative interviews with teaching staff members who were involved in direct delivery of the curriculum and/or had a strategic role in overseeing curriculum development and writing. Six student focus groups (2 in each school) as well.

Questions related to: what is professionalism? Is there a difference in student vs pharmacist professionalism? Where and how are students taught professionalism? Whose responsibility is the teaching of professionalism? Is professionalism being assessed? How does professionalism prepare you for professional practice?

Early professionalization, the development of professional identity, and particularly a positive and grounded integration of professionalism learning throughout the whole 4-year degree program also appeared to be important. The concept of “organizational philosophy” may thus be helpful in incorporating all elements likely to enable (or hinder) professionalism learning. It should be intended, taught, and received (as well as implicit - through the hidden curricula). There should be considerable overlap across all the areas.
Observations were conducted of pharmacy practice classes (dispensing process) to determine the taught, received, and learned or hidden curriculum.

Schools were compared.

Jee, 2013/201635,36 (abstract located and later the fulltext found and used for extraction)-compare the oral session abstract with the paper from 2016

Exploring the process of professional socialisation and development during pharmacy pre-registration training in England

United Kingdom

“A set of influences that function at the level of organisational structure and culture, includes customs, rituals, commonly held ‘understandings’ throughout medical (or indeed other professional) education” Based on Hafferty’s (1998) definition

To explore the process of professional socialization in pharmacy trainees during pre-registration training in North West England

Pre-registration trainee-tutor pairs (14 community pharmacy, 6 hospital pharmacy) (N=20 pairs)

Trainees at the end of their training year (N=1706)

Work Stream 1: Semistructured interviews occurring longitudinally during the training year

Work Stream 2: Based on the data from the qualitative interviews, a cross-sectional survey was developed.

A cross-sectional survey was administered to trainees at the end of their pre-registration training year.

A total of 79 semi-structured interviews were conducted during training and four months after training.

Three overarching themes were found: learning from others; services, patient mix, and medicines; and changing roles of trainees.

Students worked within a small team with pharmacist role models who sometimes exhibited unprofessional behaviors. Non-pharmacists role models provided a significant role in socializing them into the work setting.

Pharmacists in community settings worked more closely with trainees vs. in hospital settings who provided less feedback and engagement. Feedback was not focused on patient care.

Exposure to patient care was limited based on pharmacy services and specializations. Trainees’ placement and location influenced their practice norm and patient interaction.

Students found it difficult to apply clinical knowledge to their

The location or assignment of their training, role models, and extent of their patient care involvement may influence their development as a pharmacist.

More standardized training across sites may reduce the variation in experiences and professional socialization and development.

Formal training for preceptors and support staff may be needed to support students.

New pharmacists need more support for challenging situations in practice.

Exposure to patient care was limited based on pharmacy services and specializations. Trainees’ placement and location influenced their practice norm and patient interaction.

Students found it difficult to apply clinical knowledge to their
practice and the importance of effective communication with patients.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First author, year, title</th>
<th>Theory Talk Assessment</th>
<th>Rationale for Assessment</th>
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| **Wallman, 2011**<sup>2</sup>  
An exploration of how students learn in a pharmacy internship | Minor: Theory Positioning | Informal learning was described as “unstructured” activities in an experiential setting and explained in the introduction and used to inform the discussion. It did not necessarily link to the objective. |
| **Jee, 2013/2016**<sup>35,36</sup>  
Exploring the process of professional socialisation and development during pharmacy pre-registration training in England | Minor: Theory Positioning | Hidden curriculum was mentioned in the introduction, but the methods, results, or discussion did not revisit or explore the concept to triangulate or connect with the data. |
| **Schafheutle, 2013**<sup>34</sup>  
Organizational philosophy as a new perspective on understanding the learning of professionalism | Moderate: Theory Mapping | Hidden curriculum is mentioned and is tied into the results and discussion but then changed to different terminology towards the end. |
| **Bradley, 2011**<sup>33</sup>  
The role of hidden curriculum in teaching pharmacy students about patient safety | Major: Theory Application | Hidden curriculum was explained in depth in the introduction and used in the design and organization of the data into the categories of formal and informal curricula. |
| **Cresswell, 2013**<sup>5</sup>  
Patient safety in healthcare preregistration educational curricula: multiple case study-based investigations of eight medicine, nursing, pharmacy and physiotherapy university courses | Major: Theory Application | Study looked at ways patient safety was taught in both formal and informal ways. Informal curriculum was the term used for hidden curriculum. It was integrated throughout, including the data analysis. |