



## Population Based Orthopaedic Care for Musculoskeletal Injuries in Economically Underdeveloped Countries

David A. Spiegel, MD, Suneel B. Bhat, MPhil (Cantab), Om P. Shrestha MBBS

### Introduction

Surgery has been neglected as a population based health strategy by the global public health community, despite estimates suggesting that surgical conditions account for 11% of the world's DALYs (disability adjusted life years),<sup>1-4</sup> and data indicating that basic surgical and anesthetic services may be comparable to selected primary health services in terms of cost effectiveness.<sup>5-8</sup> While the number of surgeries currently performed worldwide is much greater than the number of yearly births and the number of people infected with HIV combined, only 3.5% of these procedures are performed in countries ranked in the lowest 3<sup>rd</sup> in terms of health expenditure.<sup>9</sup> Assuming that the surgical disease burden is relatively uniform, this data suggests that there is an enormous unmet need for surgical services that needs to be quantified. The world has witnessed an epidemiologic transition in which the burden of communicable and vaccine preventable diseases has decreased, and the burden of non-communicable diseases and injuries has increased. Injuries accounted for sixteen percent of the global burden of disease in 1998.<sup>10,11</sup> Road traffic crashes are predicted to be the third leading cause of disability adjusted life years by 2020, and related global economic costs are estimated to be upwards of 518 billion US dollars per year.<sup>12,13</sup> While musculoskeletal injuries rarely result in death, they are a major cause of long term disability<sup>14-20</sup>.

Gaps in access to basic surgical services represent a failure at the level of the health system, and barriers to the provision of surgical services include insufficient infrastructure and/or physical resources, inadequate human resources, inefficient systems for delivery of services in both the pre-hospital setting and when a patient arrives at a treatment facility, a lack of reliable health information, and often the inability to access a health facility due to geographic considerations or other variables.

According to the World Bank data from 2007, the average inhabitant of a low-income country earns less than 935 dollars per year<sup>21</sup>. For the 49 countries categorized as low income, the average life expectancy is 59 years, nearly ten years shorter than the global average, with only the best country in the low-income category surpassing the global average<sup>22</sup>. The number of trained physicians per capita in low income countries is 5 per 10,000 as compared with 13 per 10,000 globally<sup>22</sup>. Average government expenditures among low-income countries on health care are as low as \$5 per capita, (versus \$2862 per capita in the United States), with a substantial portion of the costs for health care being "out of pocket."<sup>22</sup> The burden of health care costs faced by patients in low-income countries results in more than one million families being driven below the national poverty line each year due to catastrophic health expenditures.

Orthopaedic surgeons from economically developed countries have certainly played an important role in improving conditions in low-income countries by donating money and/or educational materials, participating in service missions, and becoming involved in the teaching and training of health care providers. However, improving the delivery of services requires far more than simply training more orthopaedic surgeons. Those traveling to these environments recognize that many of the patients present at a late stage in their disease process (Figure 1A-C), and require more complex

#### Address for Correspondence:

David A. Spiegel, M.D.  
Division of Orthopaedic Surgery  
Children's Hospital of Philadelphia 2<sup>nd</sup> Floor Wood Building  
34<sup>th</sup> Street and Civic Center Blvd., Philadelphia, PA 19104  
Phone: (215) 590-1524  
Fax: (215) 590-1501  
Email: [spiegeld@email.chop.edu](mailto:spiegeld@email.chop.edu)

**Dr. Spiegel** is an Assistant professor of Orthopaedic surgery at the Children's Hospital of Philadelphia

**Suneel Bhat** is a research assistant at the Children's Hospital of Philadelphia

**Om Shrestha** is a research assistant at the Children's Hospital of Philadelphia

interventions. These treatments are much less likely to result in an adequate outcome, in comparison with simpler measures delivered early in the disease process. This suggests the importance of early and appropriate treatment, which requires adequate access to surgical care in or near the patients' home community. At the population level, this will require a comprehensive, multidisciplinary and multisector approach aimed at health system reform. Health systems have evolved over the past few decades, and there has been recent emphasis on universal access to "essential" services. "Essential" services are those that are low cost, high yield, target major health problems, and can be made available universally.<sup>24</sup> Given the limited financial and physical resources available in economically underdeveloped countries, health planners must select and promote a core group of services which are efficacious, cost effective, and can be delivered to all.

With this background, let us envision the scenario in which an orthopaedic surgeon is appointed to a committee charged with improving access to care for emergent musculoskeletal conditions (injuries and infections) at the district hospital level in the rural areas of a low-income country. This surgeon will serve alongside government officials, representatives from the ministry of health, other health care professionals, and representatives from non-governmental organizations/funding agencies. The group's philosophy will be based on the concept of universal access to essential services. In order to develop an effective strategy including the most appropriate policies, we will focus on several major areas, namely defining the burden of orthopaedic diseases at the local/regional/national levels, characterizing and improving the capacity to deliver surgical services (infrastructure, physical resources, and human resources), determining the most appropriate training strategies for musculoskeletal providers, and exploring mechanisms to enhance funding.

## 1. Define the Magnitude of the Problem

While it seems obvious that an understanding of local disease burden is essential to plan the allocation of health resources, there is a paucity of data on surgical disease burden in low and middle income countries (LMICs). Formal epidemiologic study (or local audit) will be required to determine which orthopaedic problems are most prevalent, in order to define which interventions should be prioritized. The goal will be to determine the "unmet needs" for orthopaedic care. Ideally, this information would be gathered through the use community based surveys, although the methodology is costly and time consuming. While the use of hospital based data is more practical, the true need for services will be underestimated. Population level data at the national level would certainly be helpful; however information on surgical conditions is not routinely collected in national surveys. Standard indicators included in such surveys, such as maternal mortality and under-five mortality, fail to reflect the impact of surgical conditions. This underscores the need to develop health metrics for surgical disease, as suggested by the Global Burden of Surgical Diseases Working Group.<sup>25</sup> For our purposes, we might consider both a community based and a facilities based assessment of orthopaedic problems in several randomly selected districts within the country. Until then, in the absence of data on disease burden, we might consider defining essential orthopaedic services based upon the material from the WHO's Emergency and Essential Surgical Care project.<sup>26,27</sup>

## 2. Characterize and Strengthen the Capacity to Deliver "Essential" Orthopaedic Services

In contrast to many primary health initiatives, basic surgery and anesthesia may require a greater level of resources than some other primary care health initiatives. In order to deliver safe surgery, we need to have adequate infrastructure, physical resources and supplies, and trained health workers. A functional and sustainable surgical service at a district level facility will require not only an initial start up fixed costs, but also ongoing variable operating costs.

	Population	GNI Per Capita	Life Expectancy (2004)	Per Capita Health Expenditure(\$)	Physician Density (per 1000)
United States	295,734,134	41,440	78	5711	2.56
Kenya	33,829,590	480	51	20	0.14
Sierra Leone	5,867,426	210	39	7	0.03
Mozambique	19,406,703	270	45	12	0.03
Uganda	27,269,482	250	49	18	0.08
Nigeria	128,765,768	430	46	22	0.28
Ethiopia	70,053,286	110	50	5	0.03
Malawi	12,707,464	160	41	13	0.02
Ghana	21,946,247	380	57	16	0.15
India	1,080,264,388	620	62	27	0.60
Nepal	27,676,547	250	61	12	0.21
Bangladesh	144,319,628	440	62	14	0.26
Pakistan	162,419,946	600	42	13	0.74
Afghanistan	29,928,987	?	62	11	0.19
Cambodia	13,636,398	350	54	33	0.16
Vietnam	83,535,576	540	71	26	0.53

Table 1. The “playing field” in low income countries. Sources: Population: United States Census Bureau, International Data Base (updated 4/26/05), Life Expectancy at Birth (2004). World Health Report 2006. Gross National Index per capita 2004. World Development Indicators, World Bank (18 April 2006), Per Capita health expenditures (2003). World Health Report 2006.

While there is little information available on the capacity to deliver surgical services in LMICs, a recent review of more than one hundred non randomly selected district level facilities (8 LMICs) found significant deficiencies in the capacity to provide basic surgery.<sup>28</sup> Our approach might involve an initial situational analysis in the country, to characterize the capacity to deliver surgery (infrastructure, physical resources, human resources) at each district facility using a facilities based questionnaire. This data would provide a benchmark, and would define the improvements required to provide our essential services.

Within the context of delivering basic trauma care, we recognize the importance of a well organized system, including both prehospital services, and treatment once a patient reaches a health facility. Our committee can consider incorporating selected guidelines available from the World Health Organization.

With respect to pre-hospital care, death and disability due to traumatic injury may be reduced when adequate “systems” for delivery of care are provided,<sup>29-35</sup> and WHO guidelines are available.<sup>29</sup> For example, prompt treatment reduces the incidence of complications such as

osteomyelitis following open fractures (up to 80% of patients with delayed presentation).<sup>36</sup> Transport of the injured to a treatment facility may be hindered by a lack of phones or means for communication, inability to afford ambulances, or a lack of motorable roads. Until such an infrastructure is developed, informal mechanisms must be utilized. For example, members of the community (such as taxi drivers) can be trained in basic first aid skills including immobilization of the extremities with locally made splints, and given a financial incentive for transporting the injured.

For trauma and emergency care, the “Guidelines for Essential Trauma Care”<sup>37-39</sup> provide a flexible template for health care planners, and outline the resources that should be in place to deliver trauma services at four levels of health care facility [*basic* (health post), *GP* (general practitioner, has basic surgical capability), *specialist* (has a general surgeon), and *tertiary* (has an orthopaedic surgeon)]. For each of these levels, selected services are classified as essential, desirable, possibly required, or irrelevant. Our focus will be on the GP level, or perhaps at the speciality level if we



**Figure 1.** In the developing world, many patients present at a late stage in their disease process. When untreated, burns may result in dramatic deformities of the limbs (top left). Musculoskeletal tuberculosis involves the spine in 50% of cases, often resulting in a severe kyphosis (middle). Congenital abnormalities such as this congenital dislocation of the patella (associated with other deformities in this case) can be difficult to treat at a late stage (far right), as can the neglected clubfoot (bottom left).

can recruit a general surgeon. With regard to services for musculoskeletal trauma care at the GP level, essential services would include basic immobilization/splinting, monitoring of neurologic function, and assessment of hand injuries. Services which are “possibly required” (depending upon the resources available locally) include closed reduction, skeletal traction, operative wound management, and external fixation. Depending upon the funds available, the equipment checklist for a GP level facility (“district” hospital or equivalent) would be limited to a basic surgical instrument set, splinting and casting materials, and the supplies needed for skeletal traction. Our “wish list” might include an image intensifier and a system for basic external fixation, however an implant system for internal fixation should probably only be made available at a higher level of service.

With regard to human resources, it is clear that training orthopaedic surgeons alone will be insufficient. There are many facets to the global human resource crisis, in which there is a shortage of 4 million health care workers.<sup>40,41</sup> In addition to a deficiency in the absolute number of health providers, caregivers migrate both within (rural to urban) and between (low to higher income) countries, resulting in the

so called “brain drain”.<sup>41-46</sup> This problem is most pronounced in sub-Saharan Africa, where orthopaedic surgeons are rarely available outside of tertiary facilities in urban centers.<sup>47,48</sup> The primary referral level for much of the population is the “district” hospital or equivalent, staffed by a general medical doctor and/or other health professionals. (nurses, technicians), and where in some circumstances, a general surgeon may also be available.<sup>48,49</sup> Referral to higher levels of service may be complicated, costly, and inefficient. Many patients in these rural communities have relied upon traditional practitioners for medical care, and a significant subset receive no care at all.

We need to determine how to effectively staff district hospitals, and this requires recruitment, training, and retention with emphasis on financial incentives and opportunities for ongoing education and personal development. Since staffing with orthopaedic surgeons – and for the most part any highly trained medical specialty – is an unachievable goal, there has been considerable interest in task shifting, which may be defined as the “allocation of tasks in health-system delivery to the least costly health worker capable of doing that task reliably”.<sup>50-55</sup> Paraprofessionals or other health

care professionals have been successfully trained to perform selected surgical procedures through both short term educational courses and formally certified programs<sup>56-64</sup>, most commonly in sub-Saharan Africa.

In Malawi, where there are only 9 orthopaedic surgeons for 27 million people, with orthopedic clinical officers providing care for the majority of musculoskeletal problems<sup>64</sup>. Another approach has been to train medical doctors to become “rural” surgeons, who are competent in a selected group of procedures drawn from all of the surgical subspecialties including orthopedics<sup>65-68</sup>. A postgraduate program in rural surgery has been developed, and is currently being piloted, by the National Board of Examinations of India. Candidates are medical doctors who will complete a 3 year curriculum leading to a diploma in rural surgery. Musculoskeletal education may also be extended to traditional practitioners, who will continue to play a major role in caring for musculoskeletal injuries in rural areas. Short training courses may also be helpful. In Nigeria, a recent initiative in which traditional bonesetters attended a one day instructional course led to a significant decrease in the rates of gangrene, infection, malunion, and nonunion.<sup>69</sup>

### 3. Training for the Delivery of Essential Orthopaedic Services

Training programs for surgeons in industrialized countries have evolved towards greater subspecialization, which does not meet the needs of caregivers in the rural environment of economically underdeveloped nations. In a study from Pakistan, only 37% of the general surgical procedures required were taught in western training programs<sup>70</sup>. Students must be trained in the environment in which they will practice, focusing on the common diseases they will treat and using the resources available locally. While recognizing that the training of orthopaedic surgeons should be encouraged and supported, an alternate approach is required to provide services for the majority of patients in a low-income country.

As mentioned previously, while the training orthopaedic surgeons is important and should be encouraged in low-income nations, our focus should be on training non-orthopedists or non-medical personnel to provide “essential” orthopedic services. The training should emphasize acute problems such as trauma and infection, and we must assume that elective,

reconstructive procedures will only be available at higher levels of service within the health system. Specifics of the curriculum need to be addressed, as any treatment strategies should minimize complications, maximize outcomes, and stay within a limited budget. Given these constraints, and the recognition that the majority of our patients will be unable to be transferred to a higher level of service, the armamentarium of the rural musculoskeletal provider must include the splinting and closed treatment of fractures (as well as indications for referral), various traction techniques (femoral, tibial, calcaneal, olecranon), and adequate wound care (debridement of open fractures, drainage of abscesses, and split thickness skin grafting).<sup>71-74</sup> In the absence of radiographs or an image intensifier, physical findings must be relied upon to assess the quality of reduction (extremity length and alignment), and to determine when traction can be removed (clinical union). Basic skills in external fixation would be desirable, or even the pins in plaster technique, especially in the case of open fractures.<sup>75-83</sup> While it is possible to manufacture screws or pins, Schanz pins or the equivalent may be available at a reasonable cost, and a host of materials have been used to connect the screws (wooden blocks, plaster of Paris, bone cement, galvanized iron pipe, stainless steel bars, and old Kirschner nails). A circular fixator, in which the rings were cut from aluminum drums, has also been used successfully.<sup>80</sup> The “pins and plaster” technique may serve as an alternative to external fixation in treating unstable fractures.<sup>82-84</sup> For example, Kirschner wires (forearm), Steinmann pins (tibia), or half pins (femur) can be placed above and below the fracture site and incorporated into the cast. It should be emphasized that in settings with minimal resources, open reduction and internal fixation (especially with a plate and screws) has been associated with a high rate of complications such as osteomyelitis.<sup>85-89</sup> These techniques should be reserved for selected indications, such as irreducible fractures, fractures associated with a neurovascular injury, or in cases where there are no other good options, such as displaced fractures of the olecranon or patella.<sup>89</sup> Displaced intraarticular fractures have been treated by splinting and early range of motion in the absence of surgical resources<sup>73</sup>. For basic surgical implants, one approach would be to allocate funds to purchase equipment from local or regional vendors. An alternate strategy might be to build a workshop, in which supplies can be produced from the materials available locally.<sup>90</sup>

We might also incorporate the training materials used by the World Health Organization into our program. Recognizing that strengthening the delivery of surgical and anesthetic services is essential, the Clinical Procedures Unit of the Department of Essential Health Technologies (WHO) has developed the Emergency and Essential Surgical Care project. With the goal of improving the delivery of surgical and anesthetic services at facilities with limited resources, the WHO coordinates “training the trainers” workshops in association with local and international partners.<sup>2,26,27,91</sup> These workshops promote local capacity and are based on the Integrated Management for Emergency and Essential Surgical Care (IMEESC) toolkit. In addition to basic orthopedic skills (reduction, splinting/casting, open fractures/soft tissue wounds, traction), elements of this diverse learning program include team responsibility and organization, basic anesthetic and resuscitation techniques, record keeping, and the management of burns. Programs have been initiated in more than 20 countries; the related reference text is entitled “Surgical Care at the District Hospital”.<sup>27</sup>

Finally, access to health care information is extremely important, and is limited in many LMICs; even when computer services and the internet are available, it may be difficult to extract relevant data from the voluminous amount of information available.<sup>92-95</sup> While the most useful information often comes from local or regional journals, 98% of the journals indexed on Medline originate in economically developed nations.<sup>92,96</sup> We would need to develop a strategy to obtain the most useful reference materials, and also to provide access to medical and surgical journals. The WHO's HINARI project would be helpful in providing access to a large number of journals. To gain access to textbooks and a variety of other materials, the Ptolemy project might be considered.<sup>98,99</sup> This partnership would further promote both the generation from and dissemination to of critical health data from and to LMICs.

#### 4. Financing

Financing health care systems in the developing world poses a two-fold problem. Not only do appropriate funds need to be generated/allocated to set up the initial infrastructure, but also the system must continue to either draw or generate funds yearly in order for it to be sustainable. This proves to be

particularly challenging, as health care resources are limited in LMICs, there exists a number of competing social and economic priorities, and health care costs are a major burden on the majority of the population. Health care funding may be conceived as public (originating from taxes and government), private (originating from free enterprise), or a mix of the two. In the context of an LMIC one can imagine a three-tiered system involving a public-private partnership that might provide sufficient support for a health care system. In urban areas the most appropriate scenario is likely a parallel public and private infrastructure, where advanced, rare, and “luxury” orthopaedic care should be available. At the district hospital level, a more selected level of essential services are to be provided, funded primarily through public means. This tier will be the primary point of delivery of critical surgical services, providing universal care for the population based on need. However, as much of the population likely will not be covered regularly by district hospitals due to geographic or transportation difficulties, communities themselves play an important role as the foundation to maintaining a stable health care system. By encouraging a public-private partnership at the level of the community, a sustainable and incentivized health care mini-industry may be developed, maintaining health professional retention and community investment. This may be accomplished by micro-loans or public entrepreneurial stimulus to local health workers, augmented by training opportunities. By integrating private endeavors into the system and supporting/stimulating them where necessary with public funds, a foundation can be formed where the population values and trusts health care, thereby increasing its utilization.

It is very important to note that the impetus for health care development should primarily emerge from within the LMIC itself. If any health care system design, or means for delivery of essential surgical services is based primarily on foreign aid, it is highly susceptible and reliant on international trends, which are unpredictable. Furthermore, if the system were internally driven, there would be a greater sense of community self-sufficiency and a perspective that healthcare is a means of economic growth and stability. Most importantly, an effective LMIC health care system that does not rely on external international funding is sustainable.

In considering the delivery of essential surgical services in an LMIC, another important

factor must be recognized. Especially in a self-sustaining public-private partnership, the independent functioning of the system is at important, as market forces do play a role. International surgeons need to be particularly careful not to disrupt emerging health care systems. For example, imagine the situation where an international surgeon from the developed world travels to a community or district in an LMIC and provides short-term free care independent of the existing system, as happens often in “health missions” or “health camps.” Patients will flock to the foreign surgeon, depriving the existing private infrastructure of patients, essentially forcing local practitioners out of business and away from the region; therefore, when the foreign surgeon leaves, a health care void is effectively created. While the intentions likely are very much altruistic in this example, the outcome is damaging. This is not to suggest that surgeons should not travel abroad to do work at all, but instead emphasizes the fact that surgeons who have the intention of volunteering their skill may have the most beneficial impact working through or in conjunction with existing local channels, or devoting their invaluable time to training local practitioners in needs directed procedures.

### Conclusions

This review highlights some of the challenges associated with caring for acute musculoskeletal problems in economically underdeveloped nations. Barriers to the delivery of services occur at multiple levels, and include deficiencies in infrastructure, physical resources (equipment and supplies), trained health professionals, and access to reliable health care information. Improving the quality of services at the population level can only be achieved through reforms at the level of the health system. While orthopedic services in industrialized nations have become increasingly dependent upon technology, and there will always be some debate over the optimal treatment for any given condition, a “public health” approach aimed at reducing disability from acute musculoskeletal problems must rely upon the effective use of simple, low risk, cost effective, and time honored methods of treatment. Furthermore, focus must be placed on developing public-private partnerships that lead towards sustainable financing structures for essential health care, including orthopaedic procedures. A multidisciplinary, multisectoral effort will be

required to provide universal access to “essential” orthopaedic services in an economically underdeveloped nation.

### References

1. Debas HT, Gosselin RA, McCord C, Thind A, "Surgery" in Jamison D, Evans D, Alleyne G, Jha P, Breman J, Measham A, et al. [Eds]. *Disease Control Priorities in Developing Countries* (2nd Edition), ed. 2006, pp.1245-1260. New York: Oxford University Press.
2. Spiegel DA, Gosselin RA. Surgical Services in Low-income and Middle- Income Countries. *Lancet* 2007;370:1013-1015.
3. Ivers LC, Garfein ES, Augustin J, Raymonville M, Yang AT, Sugarbaker DS, Farmer PE. Increasing access to surgical services for the poor in Rural Haiti: Surgery as a Public good for Public Health. *World Journal of Surgery* 2008;32:537-542.
4. Bickler SB, Spiegel DA. Global surgery--defining a research agenda. *Lancet*. 2008;372:90-92.
5. Laxminarayanan R, Mills AJ, Breman JG, Measham AR, et al. Advancement of global health: Key messages from the disease control priorities project. *Lancet* 2006;367:1193-1208.
6. Gosselin RA, Amardeep Thind A, Bellardinelli A. Cost/DALY Averted in a Small Hospital in Sierra Leone: What Is the Relative Contribution of Different Services? *World J Surg* 2006;30.
7. McCord C, Chowdhury Q. A cost effective small hospital in Bangladesh: What it can mean for emergency obstetric care. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 2003;81:83-92.
8. Javitt JC. The cost effectiveness of restoring sight. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1993;111:1615.
9. Weiser TG, Regenbogen SE, Thompson KD, Haynes AB, et al. An estimation of the global volume of surgery: A modeling strategy based on available data. *Lancet* 2008;372:139-144.
10. Murray CJL, Lopez AD, eds. *The global burden of disease: A comprehensive assessment of mortality and disability from diseases, injuries, and risk factors in 1990 and projected to 2020*. Boston, MA, Harvard School of Public Health, 1996.
11. Krug EG, Sharma GK, Lozano R. The global burden of injuries. *Am J Pub Health* 2000;90:523-526.
12. Jacobs G, Aaron-Thomas A, Astrop A. Estimating global road fatalities. *TRL Report 445*. London: Transport Research Laboratory, 2000.

13. Peden, M, Scurfield R, Sleet D, et al (Ed.). World report on road traffic injury prevention. World Health Organization, Geneva, 2004.
14. Mock C, Cherian MN. The global burden of musculoskeletal injuries. Challenges and solutions. Clin Orthop Rel Res 2008;466:2306-2316.
15. Beveridge M, Howard A. The burden of orthopedic disease in developing countries. J Bone Joint Surg 2004; 86-A, 8: 1819-1822.
16. Spiegel DA, Gosselin RA, Coughlin RR, Joshipura M, et al. The burden of musculoskeletal injury in low and middle-income countries: challenges and opportunities. J Bone Joint Surg [Am], 2008;90:915-923.
17. Bickler SW, Sanno-Duanda B. Epidemiology of pediatric surgical admissions to a government referral hospital in the Gambia. Bull World Health Org 2000;78:1330-1336.
18. Mock C, Boland E, Acheampong F, et al. Long-term injury related disability in Ghana. Dis Rehab 2003; 25: 723-741.
19. Mock CN, Adzotor E, Derno D, et al. Admissions for injury at a rural hospital in Ghana: implications for prevention in the developing world. Am J Public Health 1995; 85: 927-931.
20. Mock CN, Arreola-Risa C, Quansah R. Strengthening care for injured persons in less developed countries: a case study of Ghana and Mexico. Inj Control Saf Promot. 2003 Mar-Jun;10(1-2):45-51.
21. World Bank Country Classification (<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/DATASTATISTICS/0>) (Accessed 12/16/08)
22. World Health Statistics 2008. ([http://www.who.int/whosis/whostat/EN\\_WHS08\\_Full.pdf](http://www.who.int/whosis/whostat/EN_WHS08_Full.pdf)) (Accessed 12/16/08).
23. World Health Report. Primary Health Care: Now more than ever. World Health Organization, Geneva, 2008.
24. Parry E. Essential surgery. Trauma Q 1999;14:329-333.
25. Ozgediz D, Hsia R, Weiser T, Gosselin R, et al. Population health metrics for surgery: Effective coverage of surgical services in low-income and middle-income countries. World J Surgery 2008, Oct 29.
26. Integrated Management of Emergency and Essential Surgical Care. World Health Organization ([www.who.int/surgery/publications/imeesc](http://www.who.int/surgery/publications/imeesc)). (Accessed 12/15/08)
27. Surgical Care at the District Hospital. World Health Organization, Geneva, 2003 ([www.who.int/surgery/publications/scdh\\_manual](http://www.who.int/surgery/publications/scdh_manual)). (Accessed 12/15/08)
28. Kushner AL, Cherian MN, Noel LPJ, Spiegel DA, et al. Addressing the millennium development goals from a surgical perspective: Deficiencies in the capacity to deliver safe surgery and anaesthesia in eight low and middle-income countries. Accepted for publication in the Archives of Surgery.
29. Sasser SM, Varghese M, Kellermann A, et al. Prehospital trauma care systems. Geneva: World Health Organization, 2005. ([www.who.int/violence\\_injury\\_prevention/publications/services/39162\\_oms\\_new.pdf](http://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/publications/services/39162_oms_new.pdf))
30. Ali J, Adams R, Butler AK, et al. Trauma outcome improves following the advanced trauma life support program in a developing country. J Trauma 1993;34:890-898.
31. Arreola-Risa C, Mock CN, Lojero L, et al. Low cost improvements in prehospital trauma care in a Latin American city. J Trauma 2000;48:199-124.
32. Husum H, Gilbert M, Wisborg T. Training pre-hospital trauma care in low-income countries: The "village university" experience. Med Tech 2003;25:142-148.
33. Mann N, Mullins R, MacKenzie E, et al. A systematic review of published evidence regarding trauma system effectiveness. J Trauma 1999;47:S25-S33.
34. Mock CN, Tiska M, Adu-Ampofo M, et al. Improvements in prehospital care in an African country with no formal emergency medical services. J Trauma 2002;53:90-97.
35. Sasser SM, Varghese M, Joshipura M, et al. Preventing death and disability through the timely provision of prehospital trauma care. Bull World Health Org 2006;84:507.
36. Bach O, Hope MJ, Chaheka CV, et al. Disability can be avoided after open fractures in Africa-results from Malawi. Injury. 2004;35:846-851.
37. Mock CN, Lormand JD, Goosen J, Joshipura M, Peden M (Eds). Guidelines for Essential Trauma Care. Geneva, World Health Organization, 2004.
38. Mock CN, Joshipura M, Goosen J. Global strengthening of care for the injured. Bull World Health Organization 2004;82:241.
39. Mock CN, Joshipura M, Goosen J, Lormand JD, Maier R. Strengthening trauma systems globally: the Essential Trauma Care Project. J Trauma. 2005;59:1243-1246.
40. Chen L, Evans T, Anand S, et al. Human resources for health: Overcoming the crisis. Lancet 2004;364:1984-1990.

41. World Health Report 2006: Working together for health. World Health Organization, Geneva, 2006.
42. Omaswa F. Human resources for global health: Time for action is now. *Lancet* 2008;371:625-626.
43. Bundred PE, Levitt C. Medical migration: Who are the real losers? *Lancet* 2000;356:245-246.
44. Narasimhan V, Brown H, Pablos-Mendez A, et al. Responding to the global human resources crisis. *Lancet* 2004;363:1469-1472.
45. Pang T, Lansing MA, Haines A. Brain drain and health professionals. *BMJ* 2002;324:499-500.
46. Dussault G, Franceschini MC. Not enough there, too many here: Understanding geographical imbalances in the distribution of the health workforce. *Hum Res Health* 2006;4:12.
47. Ozgediz D, Galukande M, Mabweijano J, Kijjambu S, Mijumbi C, Dubowitz G, Kagwa S, Luboga S. The neglect of the global surgical workforce: experience and evidence from Uganda. *World J Surg* 2008;32:1208-1215.
48. Ozgediz D, Kijjambu S, Galukande M, Dubowitz G, et al. Africa's neglected surgical workforce crisis. *Lancet* 2008;371:627-628.
49. Lavy C, Tindall A, Steinlechner C, Mkandawire N, Chimangeni S. Surgery in Malawi - a national survey of activity in rural and urban hospitals. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl* 2007;89:722-724.
50. McPake B, Mensah K. Task shifting in health care in resource-poor countries. *Lancet* 2008;372:8870-871.
51. Mullan F, Frehywot S. Non-physician clinicians in 47 sub-Saharan African countries. *Lancet* 2007;370:2158-2163.
52. WHO. Task Shifting. Global recommendations and guidelines. Geneva, World Health Organization, 2008. ([http://www.who.int/healthsystems/TTR-task\\_shifting.pdf](http://www.who.int/healthsystems/TTR-task_shifting.pdf)) (Accesses 12/15/08)
53. Fenton M, Whitty CJ, Reynolds F. Caesarean section in Malawi: Prospective study of early maternal and perinatal mortality. *BMJ* 2003;327:587.
54. Kruk M, Pereira C, Vaz F, Bergstrom S, et al. Economic evaluation of surgically trained assistant medical officers in performing major obstetric surgery in Mozambique. *BJOG* 2007;114:1253-1260.
55. Huicho L, Scherpbier RW, Nkawane AM, Victora CG, et al. How much does quality of child care vary between health workers with differing durations of training? An observational multicenter study. *Lancet* 2008;372:910-916.
56. Chilopora G, Pereira C, Kamwendo F, Chimbiri A, et al. Postoperative outcome of caesarean sections and other major obstetric surgery by clinical officers and medical officers in Malawi. *Hum Res Health* 2007;5:17.
57. Cumbi A, Pereira C, Malalane R, et al. major surgery delegation to mid-level health practitioners in Mozambique: Health professionals perspectives. *Hum Res Health* 2007;5:27.
58. Garrido PI. Training of medical assistants in Mozambique for surgery in rural settings. *S Afr J Surg* 1997;35:144-145.
59. Laloe V. Training programme for general practitioners in emergency surgery and obstetrics in Woldya, Ethiopia. *Trauma Q* 1999;14:339-344.
60. Lavy CBD, Mkandawire N, Harrison WJ. Orthopaedic training in developing countries. *J Bone Joint Surg [Br]* 2005;87:10-11.
61. Mock CN, Quansah R, Addae-Mensah L, et al. The development of continuing education for trauma care in an African nation. *Injury* 2005;36:725-732.
62. Rennie JA. The training of GP's in emergency surgery in Ethiopia. *Trauma Q* 1999;14:335-338.
63. Vaz F, Bergstrom S, da Luz Vaz M, et al. Training medical assistants for surgery. *Bull WHO* 1999;77:688-691.
64. Mkandawire N, Ngulube C, Lavy C. Orthopaedic clinical officer program in Malawi: a model for providing orthopaedic care. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2008;466:2385-2391.
65. Banerjee JK. Concept and practice of rural surgery. B.I. Churchill Livingstone, New Delhi, 1993.
66. Jena TK, Agarwal AK. Surgical training-distance education. A training tool for rural surgeons. *Ind J Surg* 2003;65:50-54.
67. Prabhu RD. A survey of surgeons practicing in peripheral areas in India: their problems and constraints. In: Banerjee JK. Concept and practice of rural surgery. New Delhi: B.I. Churchill Livingstone, New Delhi, 1993: 9-14.
68. Tongaonkar RR. Scope and Limitations of Rural Surgery. *Indian J Surg* 2003;65:24-29.
69. Onuminya JE. Performance of a trained traditional bonesetter in primary fracture care. *S Afr Med J*. 2006;96:320-322.
70. Blanchard RJW, Blanchard MEE, Toussignant P, et al. The epidemiology and spectrum of surgical care in the district hospitals

- of Pakistan. *Am J Pub health* 1987;77:1439-1445.
71. Alms M, Barnechea G, Cobey J, Fisher R, Garst R, Huckstep R, Spray P. Proximal femoral fractures. A perspective from developing countries. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1987;218:90-6.
72. Bewes PC. Fractures of the femur in a tropical context: A reevaluation of Perkin's traction. *Tropical Doctor* 2:64-68, 1974.
73. Fisher RC, Anderson MG. An orthopaedic and prosthetic program in Mozambique. *Cont Orthop* 25:291-298, 1992.
74. Gates DJ, Alms M, Cruz MM. Hinged cast and roller traction for fractured femur. A system of treatment for the Third World. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1985;67:750-756.
75. Basse LO. The use of P.O.P. integrated transfixation pins as an improvisation on the Hoffmann's apparatus: contribution to open fracture management in the tropics. *J Trauma.* 1989;29:59-64.
76. Dagbue NA. An inexpensive and available external fixator. *West Afr J Med.* 2000;19:281-282.
77. Jongen VHW. Alternative external fixation for open fractures of the lower leg. *Tropical Doctor* 25:173, 1995.
78. Lourie JA. Low cost external fixator for compound tibial fractures. *PNG Med J* 26:62-63, 1983.
79. Noor MA. A simple and inexpensive external fixator. *Injury.* 1988;19:377-378.
80. Pulate A, Olivier LC, Agashe S, et al. Adaptation of Ilizarov ring fixator to the economic situation of developing countries. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg.* 2001;121:79-82.
81. Udosen AM, Ogbudu S. The use of external fixators: A review of literature and experiences in a developing world. *Niger J Med.* 2006;15:115-118.
82. Alonge TO, Ogunlade SO, Salawu SA, Adebisi AT. Management of open tibia fracture--Anderson and Hutchins technique re-visited. *Afr J Med Med Sci.* 2003;32:131-134.
83. Basse LO. Open fractures of the femur treated by the pin-in-plaster technique. Contribution to the art and practice of trauma surgery in the Third World. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg.* 1990;109:139-143.
84. Strecker W, Fleischmann W, Thorpe RG. The transfixational plaster cast technique. *Anal Soc Belge Med Trop* 71:129-137, 1991.
85. Museru LM, Mcharo CN. Chronic osteomyelitis: a continuing orthopaedic challenge in developing countries. *Int Orthop.* 2001;25:127-131.
86. Madenwald MB, Fisher RC. Experiences with war wounds in Afghanistan and Mozambique. *Techniques in Orthopaedics* 10:231-237, 1995.
87. Museru LM, Mcharo CN. The dilemma of fracture treatment in developing countries. *Int Orthop.* 2002;26(6):324-7.
88. Bewes PC. Management of fractures in adverse circumstances. *Tropical Doctor* 17:67-73, 1987.
89. Strecker W, Elanga M, Fleischmann W. Indications for operative fracture treatment in tropical countries. *Tropical Doctor* 23:112, 1993.
90. Garst RJ. Surgical implants for use in developing countries. *Contemporary Orthopaedics* 17:25-28, 1988.
91. Cherian MN, Noel L, Buyanjargal Y, et al. Essential emergency surgical procedures in resource-limited facilities: A WHO workshop in Mongolia. *World Hosp Health Serv* 2004;40:24-29.
92. Edeger TT. Disseminating health information in developing countries: The role of the internet. *BMJ* 2000;321:797-800.
93. Kale R. Health information for the developing world. *BMJ* 1994;309:939-942.
94. Katikireddi SV. HINARI: Bridging the global information divide. *BMJ* 2004;328:1190-1193.
95. Pakenham-Walsh N, Priestly C, Smith R. Meeting the information needs of health workers in developing countries. *BMJ* 1997;314:90.
96. Page J, Heller RF, Kinlay S, et al. Attitudes of developing world physicians to where medical research is performed and reported. *BMC Public Health* 2003;3:6.
97. Page J, Heller RF, Kinlay S, et al. Where do developing world clinicians obtain evidence for practice: A case study on pneumonia. *J Clin Epidemiol* 2000;53:669-675.
98. Noordin S, Wright JG, Howard AW. Global access to the literature on trauma. *Clin Orthop Rel Res* 2008;466:2414-2421.
99. Beveridge M, Howard AW, Burton K, Holder W. The Ptolemy project: A scalable model for delivering health information in Africa. *BMJ* 2003;327:790-793.