Lewis's Medical-Surgical STO Nursing

Assessment and Management Sevier of Clinical Problems

Australia and New Zealand Edition

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Lewis's Medical-Surgical Nursing

Assessment and Management of Clinical Problems

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Text structure

The text is organised into 12 sections. Section 1 introduces a range of key healthcare concepts. Sections 2–12 are organised around two central themes—nursing assessment and nursing management.



Preface

The sixth Australian and New Zealand (ANZ) edition of *Lewis's Medical - Surgical Nursing: Assessment and Management of Clinical Problems* builds on the combined strengths of the fifth ANZ edition and the twelfth US edition. It has been written to address the needs of ANZ students and educators. Professor Di Brown, Associate Professor Thomas Buckley, Professor Robyn L Aitken and Professor Helen Edwards have once again worked closely with a team of specialist nurse clinicians and academic contributors from across ANZ to develop this cutting-edge text.

The sixth edition has been thoroughly revised and incorporates the most recent nursing knowledge in an engaging and reader-friendly format. More than a textbook, this is a comprehensive resource containing essential information that students need in order to prepare for lectures, classroom activities, examinations, clinical assignments and the professional care of people and their families with healthcare needs. It is also an invaluable textbook for graduates who need a quick reference to refresh their knowledge, or have the opportunity to work in a new area of medical or surgical nursing, or who are supporting students in a clinical teaching or academic teaching role.

In addition to its accessible writing style and high-quality illustrations, the text provides special features to facilitate student learning such as evidence-based practice boxes, review questions and clinical reasoning exercises. Recurring topics include patient teaching guides, advice about care and considerations for older people, management of chronic and ongoing conditions, interprofessional care, considerations of cultural and ethnic diversity, nutrition, community and homebased care, and nursing research. Inclusion of the new chapter on 'Autism and intellectual disability' introduces readers to the concept of neurodiversity and the variations in thinking and information processing styles of a unique group of patients. The information in this chapter aims to equip nurses with an understanding of specific adaptations to medical or surgical nursing care that will optimise the experiences of these patients and their families. Inclusion of this chapter in the sixth edition comes from a strong imperative to provide inclusive care. The need to address poor health outcomes of other marginalised groups such as people who identify as LGBTQIA+ and people who face mental health challenges is also highlighted in this edition. Each chapter throughout the book also considers the specific vulnerabilities and cultural considerations that nurses should be cognisant of when caring for Māori, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people and their families/whānau.

The use of the nursing process as an organising framework for nursing practice has been retained and new content has been added to reflect rapid changes in practice. The early chapters in the book have been extensively revised to reflect the contemporary and dynamic practice context that is not only influenced by global change, especially in recent years, but is also unique to nursing in the Australasian healthcare setting. These chapters also support development of capability in relation to the Australian Registered Nurse Standards for Practice and the New Zealand Registered Nurse Competencies. The chapters 'Recognising and responding to the deteriorating patient' and 'Cardiopulmonary resuscitation: Basic and advanced life support' particularly reflect the latest evidence-based practice where Australia and New Zealand are at the forefront of the translation of research into clinical practice. Similarly, the thoroughly revised 'Substance use and dependency' chapter highlights how Australia and New Zealand are leading the way with a harm minimisation approach. The chapter on cognitive impairment and dementia responds directly to government-designated national health priorities in New Zealand and Australia and provides best practice, evidence-based resources and information that have been developed by local nursing researchers and others to assist users of this book to effectively recognise and support people who are suffering with cognitive impairment in both hospitals and the community.

Contributors have been selected for their expertise in specific areas, and clinical specialists have thoroughly reviewed each chapter to ensure accuracy, currency and regional relevance. This edition was written during the COVID-19 pandemic, so the editors considered that it was important to acknowledge both the challenges and the positive impacts that this infection has had on health, healthcare delivery and nursing care. Each contributor was asked to consider incorporating relevant content to enhance the content of the book, not just as a moment in time, but for the long-term improvement of nursing care and the profession of nursing. This edition, therefore, has been enriched by the COVID-19 experience. This edition also endeavours to extend medical and surgical nursing beyond the acute hospital setting, considering, where applicable, health promotion, disease prevention and primary healthcare nursing and interprofessional activities. The chapter on 'Rural and remote area nursing' includes a primary healthcare model of consultation that has been developed by and for Australian remote area nurses. Additionally, the chapter on 'Chronic illness and complex care', written specifically for the ANZ edition, highlights the principles of chronic disease self-management based on social cognitive theory, to assist people to integrate their own disease management as well as highlight the nurse's multiple roles within the chronic disease pyramid model.

In line with the contemporary approach to healthcare, this edition of the text aims to assist students to understand and apply the guidelines developed in Australia and New Zealand to improve medication safety by harmonising drug names so that they are consistent with World Health Organization guidelines, and thus similar across countries and across the world. This is a long-term process to ensure patient safety, and in this edition we have used both the old and the new names for the medications, written as 'old name (new name)'—for example, frusemide (furosemide).

Organisation

The content is organised into 12 sections. Section 1 (Chapters 1–10) introduces key healthcare concepts within Australia and New Zealand. Sections 2–12 (Chapters 11–71) present nursing assessment and nursing management of medical and surgical patient problems both within acute-care settings and within the community. The focus of each section is across the

whole trajectory of healthcare, including health promotion, risk assessment, management of acute and chronic conditions, and the various nursing roles and responsibilities, as well as the contribution of the interprofessional healthcare team. The various body systems are grouped to reflect their interrelated functions. Each section is organised around two central themes: assessment and management.

Chapters dealing with *assessment* of a body system include a discussion of the following:

- A brief review of anatomy and physiology, focusing on information that will promote an understanding of nursing care
- Health history and non-invasive physical assessment skills to expand the knowledge-base on which decisions are made
- Common diagnostic studies, expected results and related nursing responsibilities to provide easily accessible information

Management chapters focus on the pathophysiology, signs and symptoms, diagnostic study results, interprofessional care and nursing management of various diseases and disorders. The sections on nursing management are organised into assessment, identification of priority care problems, planning, implementation and evaluation. To emphasise the importance of patient care in various clinical settings, nursing implementation of all major health problems is organised by the following levels of care:

- 1. Health promotion
- 2. Acute intervention
- 3. Ambulatory and community/home care

Classic features

- Critical thinking, clinical judgement and clinical reasoning skills (introduced in Chapter 2) are developed throughout the text. In Chapter 2, an applied framework for clinical decision-making provides students with a structured way to think about patient situations effectively. The use of multiple case studies at the end of each section enables students to practise prioritising care across a number of different patients. The multiple case studies and the individual ones in the assessment and management chapters are structured so that students are encouraged to use their clinical reasoning and judgement skills to plan and outline care priorities.
- National patient safety and quality goals and standards for both New Zealand and Australia are introduced in Chapter 2, and are then addressed in more detail in relevant chapters throughout the book. Important patient safety information such as medication interactions are highlighted within specific chapters.
- Key epidemiological information is provided to enable students to understand the incidence and prevalence of the various conditions in the Australian and New Zealand context. Vulnerable populations are identified, as are epidemiological changes that have occurred over time, including the emergence of new patterns of disease and improvements in population health that arise from health promotion activities and advancements in clinical care.
- **Priority care problems** outlined in each of the management chapters illustrate the interprofessional nature of contemporary healthcare practice.
- Interprofessional care is further highlighted in focused care sections in all management chapters and in more

than 80 interprofessional care boxes and tables throughout the text.

- The whole trajectory of care, from prevention and health promotion, through to the acute-care phase into rehabilitation and chronic disease management, is included where appropriate. Chapters have been thoroughly updated to reflect current nursing practice and include defining characteristics, expected patient outcomes, interprofessional care and specific nursing interventions with rationales. The book is structured to enable nursing students to gain a comprehensive understanding of the nursing role and the differences (and similarities) in nursing and other healthcare roles and functions. The information and structure of the chapters increases student understanding of the interprofessional nature of current healthcare practice and the roles that nurses play.
- Patient and carer education is an ongoing theme throughout the text. Coverage includes more than 80 patient teaching guides throughout the text.
- The needs of older people are included in each chapter where the differences in assessment and the effects of ageing are detailed. Chapter 59 provides a thorough explanation of dehrium, dementia and depression in older adults who are admitted to an acute-care setting, using the latest research from Australian nurses who are world leaders in dementia care.
- Nutrition is highlighted throughout the book and in a separate chapter (Chapter 39). Nutritional therapy boxes and tables summarise nutritional interventions for patients with various health problems. Chapter 40 specifically focuses on obesity and the role and responsibilities of nurses in educating and caring for patients who are obese when they come into contact with healthcare providers.
- Complementary and alternative therapies boxes in various chapters summarise what nurses need to know about non-traditional therapies, such as herbal remedies and acupuncture.
- Evidence for practice boxes included throughout the text demonstrate how clinical research and evidence can be used to enhance clinical knowledge and nursing practice.
- **Culturally competent care** is covered in Chapter 4 in a way that encompasses the comprehensive set of congruent behaviours, attitudes and policies that enable nurses as professionals to work effectively in crosscultural situations. It describes the continuum of cultural awareness, cultural respect, cultural safety, cultural security and cultural responsiveness. Each concept is then integrated into chapters throughout the book and, consistent with the content of Chapter 4, highlights health inequities across and within populations. The focus on Indigenous health in Chapter 5 ensures that the concepts developed in Chapter 4 are contextualised to the specific needs of Maori, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people to ensure that new nursing graduates are better equipped to provide care in line with the specific needs of First Nations populations of Australia and New Zealand.
- Rural and remote area nursing is covered in Chapter 9, and not only continues the theme of population health but also presents the unique influence that geography and climate have on people's health in rural and remote Australia and New Zealand. Burden of disease is described, acknowledging multiple contributing factors

xviii **PREFACE**

including access to healthcare services, cultural diversity, chronic disease, mental health, injury and trauma. The specialist skills required by nurses working in rural and remote settings are identified along with the challenges and rewards of working and living in tightly knit and often isolated communities. The chapter supports development of knowledge and skills articulated in the recently released National Rural and Remote Nursing Generalist Framework 2023–2027 at the level required for a student learning in a non-metropolitan setting and new graduates embarking on a career outside a capital city.

- **Current issues in healthcare** such as advances in genetic research, use of technology, the ageing population, emerging therapies, end-of-life decision-making and the role of the social determinants of health in the incidence of various conditions provide students with a broad overview of many of the key challenges currently facing nursing and healthcare consumers. Contemporary approaches such as patient-centred care, consumer and family engagement and partnerships, and self-management models are presented as key strategies to address these challenges, with examples of how to implement these models of care included throughout the book.
- Several Genetics in clinical practice boxes highlight the genetic basis, genetic testing and clinical implications for genetic disorders that affect adults. An overview is described in Chapter 12 along with page numbers for easy reference to information throughout the book.
- Professional practice boxes promote critical thinking about key elements of the nursing role, including ethical dilemmas relating to timely and sensitive issues that nursing students may deal with in clinical practice.
- **Emergency management** tables and boxes outline the emergency treatment of health problems that are most likely to require emergency intervention, including responding to the patient with arrhythmias (in Chapter 35), the deteriorating patient (in Chapter 70) and the patient in cardiac arrest (in Chapter 71).
- Assessment abnormalities tables in assessment chapters alert the nurse to frequently encountered abnormalities and their possible aetiologies.
- Nursing assessment tables summarise the key subjective and objective data related to common diseases. Subjective data are organised by functional health pattern.
- **Health history** boxes and tables in assessment chapters present key questions to ask patients related to a specific disease or disorder.
- Additional student-friendly pedagogy includes the following:
 - Learning outcomes and key terms at the beginning of each chapter help students to identify the goals of the chapter and key content for each topic, body system or disorder.

- **Structure and function** sections within assessment chapters review the anatomy and physiology of each body system to provide a sound basis for nursing assessment.
- Nursing management sections of individual chapters identify key priority care problems to illustrate the specific needs of individual patients and their carers. Specific nursing and interprofessional care is outlined in each chapter and detailed nursing care plans are available on the website for the book.
- Case studies throughout the book enable students to apply their learning to real-life situations and guide them through the steps involved in planning and implementing nursing care. At the end of each section, students are able to apply their critical thinking and clinical knowledge to the assessment and management of multiple patients. This enables both students and teachers to explore issues in planning and prioritising care for multiple patients and thus further assists the students to transition to the role of Registered Nurse.
- **Review questions** at the end of each chapter help students learn the important points in the chapter. Answers are provided in the web resources of the book so that the review questions may serve as a selfstudy tool. Further questions can also be found in the web resources.
- **Resources** at the end of each chapter contain information about nursing and healthcare organisations that provide patient teaching, health promotion and disease prevention, and disease and disorder information. Resources also include internet sites to help students find current information online, legislation, policies and standards, as well sites that provide access to the best practice, evidence-based guidelines developed by many of the specialty clinical colleges and organisations within Australia and New Zealand.

Ancillary website

LEARNING SUPPLEMENTS FOR THE STUDENT AND INSTRUCTOR

The sixth edition Evolve website (available at http://evolve. elsevier.com/AU/Brown/medsurg) hosts an eBook and features the following valuable learning aids:

- Instructor resources
- Test bank
 - PowerPoint[®] slides
 - Image bank
- Student resources
- Review questions
- Conceptual Care Map creator
- Student Case studies
- · Fluids and Electrolytes tutorial
- Nursing Care Plans
- Clinical Cases case studies

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Thank you to all the contributors and reviewers for their hard work in ensuring that the information was both relevant and up to date. We feel sure that the students and clinicians

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who use this book will benefit from the thorough approach that they have adopted.

Finally, we thank the readers of the fifth edition who gave us feedback on how to make the content more relevant to Australia and New Zealand. It has been an interesting and enjoyable journey and we hope that the students who use this book gain as much from it as we have through undertaking this role.

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Patient safety and clinical reasoning: Thinking like a nurse

Written by Di Brown

LEARNING OUTCOMES

- 1. Consider the relationship between national patient safety goals, nursing practice and the use of effective clinical reasoning skills.
- 2. Examine the risks for nurses and patients in clinical settings.
- **3.** Explain why critical thinking and clinical reasoning are integral to professional nursing practice and patient safety.
- 4. Analyse key characteristics of the critical thinker.
- Describe the relationship between critical thinking, clinical reasoning and clinical judgment.
- 6. Consider how language and culture can affect patient safety.
- **7.** Explore the tools that can assist the application of clinical reasoning and clinical judgment in the clinical setting.
- Apply clinical reasoning skills to clinical case study analysis and patient and nurse safety.
- 9. Identify risk factors for episodes of violence in the nursing workplace.
- Describe risk management strategies to minimise the risk of episodes of violence in the workplace.

The clinical care environment is increasingly complex and turbulent. It requires nurses who are adaptable and intelligent, and who have sound knowledge, skills and understanding relevant to the work that they carry out. As well as preventing suffering, nurses are responsible for providing high-quality, cost-effective care. Registered Nurses (RNs) are highly regarded by the community and are consistently recognised by the public as being one of the most ethical and trusted professional groups. They are answerable for their decisions and actions and are professionally accountable under legislation for their practice. They must be able to justify the decisions that they make in practice to healthcare consumers, the profession and their employer. In order to achieve this and to care for patients safely, the RN needs the skills of critical thinking, clinical reasoning and clinical judgment. Not only do nurses need the necessary skills to protect their patients, they also need the capability and confidence to speak up when the care environment becomes unsafe for themselves while carrying out care.

While nurses have been well respected by the communities they serve, there is a growing problem with aggression and violence towards healthcare workers that became increasingly evident during the COVID-19 pandemic. A coalition of international medical and nursing organisations¹ reported increasing levels of violence aimed specifically at nurses and other healthcare workers operating on the frontline during the pandemic. This included reports of nurses being ostracised, abused and even physically attacked. Nurses are driven by altruism and adhere to high professional standards; however, they should not be expected to work in conditions that may cause them harm when caring for patients.

This chapter discusses the application of clinical reasoning and clinical judgment to clinical practice to ensure that care is provided in a safe and effective manner, and to assist nurses to care for their own safety. It does this by providing the novice nurse with a number of tools and ways of thinking to assist them in developing important skills in clinical reasoning and patient safety. In this chapter, the Patient Safety Competency Framework² (PSCF) for Nursing Students (Table 2.1) is applied to case studies and the work of nurses to enable novice nurses to have an evidence-based framework for use while caring for their patients in everyday practice. To illustrate the importance of critical thinking and clinical judgment in nursing practice, this chapter also provides an example of practice where an RN does not apply their knowledge and skills in the way that is expected. The PSCF is used here to illustrate how it can readily be used when applying critical thinking to all aspects of clinical care. The chapter then discusses workplace violence in healthcare and briefly outlines strategies for self-care that can be used by nursing students to ensure that they can be safe when in healthcare settings.

Patient safety

PROVIDING PROFESSIONAL AND SAFE CARE

Patient safety is a fundamental principle of healthcare. All members of the healthcare team have a professional, legal and moral responsibility to ensure that patient care is of the highest quality.

While healthcare is much safer today than in the past, it is estimated that up to 1 in 10 patients admitted to hospital will suffer an adverse event as a consequence of their hospitalisation,³ leading to increased length of stay, permanent injury or even death. Healthcare errors have been identified as the third leading cause of death in developed countries.⁴ In the UK, Europe,

KEY TERMS

clinical judgment, p. 24 clinical reasoning, p. 24 critical thinking, p. 24 cultural safety, p. 28 national patient safety goals, p. 23 Patient Safety Competency Framework, p. 21 self-care, p. 35 workplace violence, p. 34

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Domain	Description	Rationale
Person-centred care	The nursing student demonstrates the ability to plan and provide care that is respectful of the person's individual needs, values and life experiences.	Person-centred care is the central tenet underpinning the delivery of safe and effective nursing care. Person-centred care means treating each person as an individual, protecting their dignity, respecting their rights and preferences and developing a therapeutic relationship that is built on mutual trust and empathic understanding. Note: The term 'person' in this context refers to the patient, the family and/or significant others. In the case of a child, person-centred care also denotes family-centred care.
Therapeutic communication	The nursing student demonstrates the ability to use verbal and non-verbal communication skills to meet the healthcare needs of the person and convey respect and empathy. Nursing students encourage the person to express their feelings and needs (while at the same time maintaining professional boundaries) in order to provide effective patient care.	Therapeutic communication occurs when nurses use verbal and non-verbal communication techniques in a goal-directed way ensuring that the healthcare needs of the person remain the central focus. Therapeutic communication is built on trust, authenticity, empathy and self-awareness. Nurses who communicate therapeutically listen to understand, maintain a non-judgmental stance and are fully present with the person. ^A The purpose is to provide effective person-centred care.
Cultural competence	The nursing student demonstrates respect for each person's cultural values, beliefs, life experiences and health practices.	Cultural competence is integral to safe and effective clinical practice. The term cultural competence refers to behaviours and attitudes that enable systems, organisations, professions and individuals to work effectively in cross-cultural situations. Cultural competence refers to individual and institutional willingness to adapt practice to meet the needs of people from diverse cultures, and the ability to interact with persons from cultures and/or belief systems different to one's own. ^B (See Chapters 4 and 5.)
Teamwork and collaborative practice	The nursing student demonstrates the ability to collaborate and communicate effectively with members of the healthcare team in ways that facilitate mutual respect and shared decision-making.	Teamwork and collaborative practice refers to healthcare professionals working together using complementary knowledge and skills to provide patient care, based on trust, respect and understanding of each other's expertise. ^C Collaborative practice prioritises the patient's needs, requires well developed intraprofessional and interprofessional communication skills and the ability to speak up if one has concerns.
Clinical reasoning	The nursing student demonstrates the ability to accurately assess, interpret and respond to individual patient data in a systematic and timely way.	Clinical reasoning is a cyclical process by which nurses collect cues, interpret the information, come to an understanding of a patient problem or situation, plan and implement interventions, evaluate outcomes and reflect on and learn from the process. Clinical reasoning requires a critical thinking disposition and may be influenced by the nurse's assumptions, attitudes and cognitive biases.
Evidence-based practice	The nursing student demonstrates the ability to provide care that takes into account the best available evidence, clinical expertise and patient's individual needs, values and preference.	Evidence-based practice is the conscientious and explicit use of contemporary research, current <i>evidence</i> , clinical expertise and patient values to make decisions about patient care. ^D Evidence-based practice requires the ability to search for, critically appraise and apply research evidence to clinical practice.
Preventing, minimising and responding to adverse events	The nursing student demonstrates the ability to anticipate and respond to human and system factors that have the potential to jeopardise patient safety and, at their level of competence, take appropriate action to prevent occurrence of errors and near misses.	Preventing, minimising and responding to adverse events refer to the ability to identify and respond to factors that have the potential to affect patient safety. Responding appropriately to adverse events encompasses the ability to recognise and manage patient deterioration, to participate in analysis of the events at their level of education to help identify system failures and appropriate solutions, and to provide honest and timely communication about the facts of an adverse event.
Infection prevention and control	The nursing student demonstrates the ability to reduce the risk of patients acquiring healthcare-associated infections and, at their level of competency, effectively manage infections if they occur.	Infection prevention and control refers to the use of effective, evidence-based strategies to prevent and manage healthcare associated infections. It also focuses on minimising the risk of transmission by effectively using standard and transmission- based precautions and reducing the development of resistan organisms.

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TABLE 2.1 Patient Safety Competencies for Nursing Students—cont'd					
Domain	Description	Rationale			
Medication safety	The nursing student demonstrates the ability to administer and monitor the safe use of medications and appraise their effects. Nursing students need to also be able to recognise and respond appropriately to medication errors and adverse drug reactions.	Medication safety refers to the safe use of medicines to achieve therapeutic outcomes and improve people's quality of life, while minimising risks and responding to errors. ^E			

Adapted from Levett-Jones T, Dwyer T, Reid-Searl K, et al. Patient safety competency framework (PSCF) for nursing students. 2017. Available: https://efaidnbmnnnibpcajpcglclefindmkaj/https://www.cqu.edu.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0026/65780/PatientSafetyCompetencyFrameworkFINAL.pdf. ^ Rossiter R, Scott R, Walton C. Key attributes of therapeutic communication. InCritical conversations for patient safety: An essential guide for health professionals. 2014:102–112. Pearson Australia Group.

^{b.} Cross T, Bazron B, Dennis K, Isaacs M. *Toward a culturally competent system of care*. Vol. 1. Washington DC, Georgetown University, 1989. ^{C.} Rogers GD, Thistlethwaite JE, Anderson ES, et al. International consensus statement on the assessment of interprofessional learning outcomes. *Medical Teacher*. 2017;39(4):347–359.

^{D.} Sackett DL, Rosenberg WM, Gray JM, et al. Evidence based medicine: what it is and what it isn't. BMJ. 1996;312(7023):71–72.
 ^E Roughead L, Semple S, Rosenfeld E. Literature review: medication safety in Australia. Sydney: Australian Commission on Safety and Quality in Health Care. 2013 Aug.

Australia and New Zealand it is estimated that 8–12% of hospital admissions will suffer adverse events.^{5,6} The impact of lapses in patient safety are significant—both financially and personally. It is estimated that between 12% and 15% of total hospital activity and expenditure in Australia is the direct result of adverse events. In the financial year 2017–2018, admissions associated with hospital-acquired infections were estimated by the Australian Commission on Safety and Quality in Health Care⁶ to cost the public section \$4.1 billion or 8.9% of total hospital expenditure. It is estimated that the cost of harm associated with the resulting loss of life or permanent disability amounts to trillions of US dollars every year,⁴ with approximately 50% of adverse events thought to be preventable.

The physical and psychological cost to the patient and their families associated with losing a loved one or coping with permanent disability is significant and should not be underestimated.

In recognition of the global concern about patient safety, in 2004 the World Health Organization (WHO) launched a global health initiative aimed at reducing harm in healthcare.³ Since then, more than 140 countries have become involved in the programs, including Australia and New Zealand. In Australia, the Australian Commission on Safety and Quality in Health Care (ACSQHC) provides national leadership and advice about safety and quality in healthcare.⁶ In New Zealand, the Health Quality & Safety Commission New Zealand (NZHQSC) provides leadership in quality and safety improvements in the health sector. The aim of both commissions is to work with clinicians and health managers to support and encourage quality and safety improvements, to identify areas where improvements can take place and to drive change.⁵

National patient safety goals have been developed in both countries. Both New Zealand⁵ and Australia⁶ have developed clear goals and indicators to guide quality assessment and improvement in healthcare. In New Zealand, the overarching goal has been to develop a set of national health quality and patient safety indicators that support improvement, articulated in the New Zealand Triple Aim framework⁷ (Fig. 2.1):

- Improved quality, safety and experience of care
- Improved health and equity for all populations
- Best value from public health system resources



Figure 2.1 The New Zealand Triple Aim of healthcare. Source: Reproduced by permission of the Health Quality & Safety Commission New Zealand. www.hgsc.govt.nz.

In Australia, the National Safety and Quality Health Service Standards have also been designed to protect the public from harm and improve the quality of healthcare.⁸ Table 2.2 summarises the standards that have been agreed by governments, consumers and health services to ensure that healthcare continues to improve and against which all health facilities must evaluate their performance.

- Priorities for improvement in Australia include:
- Consumer and patient involvement in care
- Medication safety
- Preventing and controlling infections
- · Management of falls
- Surgical safety and surgical-site infection
- · Safe and effective management of blood products
- Prevention of pressure injury
- Reduction of venous thromboembolism
- · Recognition and effective treatment of sepsis
- Responding to clinical deterioration
- Ensuring that people's care is based on the best available evidence



CHAPTER 2 Patient safety and clinical reasoning: Thinking like a nurse 27

Figure 2.4 The Fundamentals of Care Framework and process. Source: Crisp J, et al. Potter and Perry's fundamentals of nursing. 5th ed. (ch. 3) Elsevier. 2016.

or that when they do carry out the observations they are not taking the action required to prevent further harm.^{17,18} A change in respiratory rate is often the first sign of deterioration, and just four breaths either side of normal range can be indicative of impending clinical deterioration. Despite this, the respiratory rate remains the least accurately recorded vital sign.¹⁸

Because of the lack of consistency in recognising and acting on changes in a patient's vital signs, a number of clinical tools have been developed to assist nurses in making the clinical judgments necessary to act.¹⁶ Chapter 70 discusses this issue in greater detail; however, in order to act properly, nurses need to have effective clinical judgment skills to assess what is needed for that particular patient at that time. Box 2.3 summarises possible sources of error that can lead to serious consequences for patients. It is critical that novice nurses develop the skills of critical thinking and clinical judgment, and for them to know how they can keep their patients safe from harm from their first day on the job. To do this, nurses need to know what is happening physiologically with each patient. They then need to be able to recognise and prioritise the patient cues in order to interpret the significance of what they are seeing. To do this effectively, nurses need to have the skills of critical thinking, clinical reasoning and clinical judgment.¹⁹ Fig. 2.5 illustrates the process and outcomes of this thinking process.

However, there is another important factor that needs to be considered in providing safe and effective nursing care. Cappelletti and colleagues²⁰ reinforce the research discussed above and also found that changes in patients' assessment data may change subtly over a few days (which may mean

CHAPTER 2

TABLE 2.3 The 10 principles of person-centred care (PCC) 1. Attend to the through attention to physical, social and whole person mental needs. 2. See each by exploring their backgrounds and individual as using imagination and empathy to special and unique understand what they might be experiencing. 3. Give respect for by understanding the impact of past the past events on reactions to the present. 4. Focus on the by assessing and enabling the things the person can still do, more so than positives focusing on what they have lost. 5. Stay in by adapting means of verbal and noncommunication verbal communication with orientating and validating strategies. 6. Nourish by enabling family, carers and friends to attachments maintain close contact and avoid feelings of abandonment or isolation. 7. Create community by welcoming the person into a group to give a sense of belonging, through repeated introductions, explanations and inclusion in general conversation where possible. 8. Maximise by avoiding using 'no' or 'don't' and autonomy, employing distraction strategies. minimise control 9. Don't just give, by appropriately sharing a little of receive as well yourself in conversations to make it possible for the person also to respond empathically on an equal adult basis thus maintaining a sense of dignity for the person and wellbeing for the nurse. 10. Maintain a moral by striving to protect people with cognitive impairment from oppression, world exploitation and abuse. Source: McCormack B. Development of a framework for person-centred

Source: McCormack B. Development of a framework for person-centred care nursing. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*. 2006;56(5):472–479.

to reflect on their practice and to develop their capacity for critical thinking.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CLINICAL PRACTICE

Nursing is a practice-based discipline in which there is a constant interplay between theoretical and practical knowledge. Central to clinical practice is the relationship between nurses and their patients. The nurse brings professional knowledge and experience, and both the nurse and the patient bring their culture, personal knowledge, experience and attributes to their relationship. The nurse needs to work with respect and compassion, considering the patient's cultural and language background, and values and beliefs, and selfawareness of any preconceived bias or stereotyping. Through the processes of nursing enquiry and clinical judgment, the nursing relationship becomes a therapeutic interaction (see Fig. 1.4, which illustrates the boundaries of the therapeutic relationship). The Evidence for practice box illustrates the impact of the nurse-patient relationship on care quality and patient length of stay.

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EVIDENCE FOR PRACTICE

Impact of nurse-patient relationship on quality of care and patient autonomy in decision-making

Aim of the study

The aim of this study was to analyse the nurse–patient relationship and explore their implications for clinical practice, the impact on quality of care and the decision-making capacity of patients.

Design

A phenomenological qualitative study was conducted. Thirteen in-depth interviews with nurses and 61,484 nursing records from 2015–2016 from internal medicine and specialties departments in a Spanish general hospital were accessed.

Results

The categories elaborated from nursing records were: Good Patient, Bad Patient and Social Problem. Analysis of the interviews resulted in a category defined as Patient as a Passive Object.

Discussion

The researchers noted a difference between the interviews and the clinical notes. The clinical notes had an objective voice that described the tasks and clinical activities performed with little obvious input from patients in relation to their care planning. In the interviews, nurses were able to express their empathy and the importance of the nurse-patient relationship in planning and delivering care. However, the researchers found that a good relationship could be affected by whether or not the patient was seen as 'good' (i.e. submissive and compliant with their care). A 'bad patient' was one who was difficult or demanding and who increased the nurses' workload. A preference for an 'obedient patient' was seen in younger nurses and those with fewer years of professional experience. In older and more experienced nurses, the interpersonal relationship with the patient was prioritised.

Conclusions

Analysing the types of relationships allowed the researchers to establish new ways of understanding the decision-making capacity of patients in a clinical setting. A good nurse–patient relationship was found to reduce the length of hospital stay and improve the quality and satisfaction of both patients and nurses. The analysis of nursing records and nurse interviews showed that, while nurses were concerned for patients and ensuring they were given high-quality care, their professional practice was not yet totally patient-centred.

Reference for evidence

Molina-Mula J, Gallo-Estrada J. Impact of nurse-patient relationship on quality of care and patient autonomy in decision-making. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health. 2020;29;17(3):835. doi: 10.3390/ ijerph17030835. PMID: 32013108; PMCID: PMC7036952.

Person-centred care makes intuitive and ethical sense. However, there is not a large body of research that shows the effects of patient outcomes. An umbrella systematic review²⁵ on the impact of person-centred care on patient safety reported that person-centred initiative may result in reduced rates of falls, in both acute and residential aged-care settings. A reduction in agitation for people with dementia and some improvement in antipsychotic medication use on older people with dementia were also noted.

The Registered Nurses Standards for Practice²⁶ state that registered nursing practice, as a professional endeavour, requires

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continuous thinking and analysis in the context of the nursing relationship. Key professional standards 1 and 2 apply here:

- 1. That the RN thinks critically and analyses nursing practice
- 2. That the RN engages in therapeutic and professional relationships

Clinical nursing involves the RN in a complex situation that requires the integration of judgment, clinical action and the appraisal of its effect.

IN SUMMARY

While critical thinking is a habit that can be developed in all spheres of life, it can be enhanced in the clinical setting by considering it from three perspectives.²⁷

- 1. Thinking ahead: This is a responsibility to anticipate what might happen in particular situations. A newly graduated nurse, for example, may know that she or he is going to work on an acute surgical ward where the majority of patients have orthopaedic procedures. It is their responsibility, therefore, to revise what they know about the care of orthopaedic patients' injuries and the treatments and types of medications that patients may be taking. The nurse also needs to review relevant bestpractice guidelines, policies and procedures, and to plan the type of care that may be required by patients. The nurse may also want to think about the patients who are represented on the wards. How might the nurse's personal history and beliefs affect how they go about care and how they can go about effectively responding to these specific patients' needs?
- 2. **Thinking in action:** This is the ability to 'think on your feet' and tends to be 'rapid, dynamic reasoning that considers several cues and priorities at once' (p. 25). This type of thinking will improve with time as the nurse gains more experience and is able to think back to other, similar cases. Nevertheless, it is an important skill for a nurse and can be improved by, for example, taking part in clinical simulation activities and being exposed to online, real-time testing of knowledge, skills and decision-making. Tanner calls this 'reflection in action'.¹²
- 3. Thinking back (reflecting): Every situation can be used as a learning experience; whether something went well or badly, lessons can be learned for use in the future. In many hospitals, debriefing sessions are held following major adverse events, but not in relation to the day-to-day, normal care activities of the ward. For the individual nurse, it is important to develop the habit of critically reviewing what they have done and learned each day in order to improve and to be able to take better action in future. Each person will do this in different ways-some will keep a journal, others will use a mentor or more senior nurse to assist, while others will discuss what has happened with friends or via discussion boards on the internet. The critical factor is to learn to tease out the themes or underlying assumptions that caused you to respond in the ways that you did. What could you have done differently? Why did you act in the way you did? What was the outcome for the patient, the family and other members of the healthcare team?

Benner and colleagues¹³ talk of 'clinical forethought' in which nurses (or other health professionals) develop specific habits of thinking, including (1) future thinking, (2) clinical forethought about specific patient problems, (3) anticipation of risks for particular patients and (4) seeing the unexpected. These are complicated cognitive skills that can be acquired and improved only with practice. A newly graduated nurse will need to consciously practise these ways of thinking while in the clinical field to ensure that they develop the highly attuned, holistic approach of the expert nurse as quickly as possible.

To be able to provide safe and effective care professionally, RNs are expected to practise in accordance with the professional standards outlined by their relevant registering authority. These describe the scope and the requirements of nursing practice (discussed in more detail in Ch 1). Thinking critically about life events will enable nurses to transfer their skills to the clinical field, thus ensuring that patients, as far as is possible, are not harmed as a result of their interaction with the healthcare system. As Florence Nightingale said, 'The very first requirement in a hospital ... is that it should do the sick no harm ...'²⁸

The following section provides more details about how nurses can work to ensure that patients are not harmed as a result of their interaction with the healthcare system.

A FRAMEWORK FOR PATIENT SAFETY

In the next section, we describe a framework for patient safety that builds on the Fundamentals of Care Framework discussed earlier and provides a structured way of thinking critically and effectively about patient care (see Table 2.1) and in a way that ensures their safety.

The Patient Safety Competency Framework (PSCF) consists of knowledge and skill statements categorised into nine domains:

- Person-centred care
- Therapeutic communication
- Cultural competence
- Teamwork and collaborative practice
- Clinical reasoning
- Evidence-based practice
- Preventing, minimising and responding to adverse events
- Infection prevention and control

The case study below illustrates the application of a number of the competencies from the PSCF to clinical care in order to illustrate how nurses can help prevent harm to patients.

CASE STUDY

Applying patient safety competencies to clinical practice

Background



You are a newly graduated Registered Nurse and have commenced your morning shift. You have been given, as one of your patients, Mr Cutrafello.

Guiseppe Cutrafello is an 86-year-old man who fell from a ladder. He has sustained two fractured ribs on his right side and one fractured rib on the left side. He presented to the emergency department last night complaining

Shutterstock/ PathDoc.

of pain in his chest. Mr Cutrafello has mild asthma. Twenty years ago he underwent a left inguinal hernia repair; he is otherwise healthy. His only medication is a bronchodilator.

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PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE

BOX 2.4 Applying the patient safety competency framework to professional practice

The State Administrative Tribunal (the Tribunal) reprimanded a nurse and suspended her registration for 7 months, for her involvement in the administration and provision of unproven cancer treatments to patients in one of the Australian states. The case involved a Registered Nurse (RN) who provided intravenous administration of various nutrients, minerals and other substances to patients as well as giving nutritional supplements and specifically prepared food.

- A coronial investigation by the deputy state coroner found that the treatment had hastened the death of four patients.
- In an agreed statement of facts presented to the Tribunal, the
- nurse admitted to professional misconduct ... when she:prepared the treatment for administration to patients
- administered the treatment to patients
- provided nursing care to the patients
- took observations of the patients while they received the treatment and
- implemented instructions received from Dr YY through another nurse, Ms ZZ.

Using Patient Safety Competency Framework, we see that the nurse could and should have taken steps to protect her patients from harm.

- Clinical reasoning competency: A number of patients required cancer treatment; the treatment was to be delivered in the patients' homes. Here, the nurse should have made sure that the treatment was consistent with current practice and that the work she was being asked to do was within her professional scope of practice.
- Preventing adverse events and protecting against medication errors: There was no clear mandate for the treatment to be provided in the patients' homes.
- Evidence-based practice: Treatment was not of the standard expected in Australia, and did not conform to the guidelines for cancer treatment in Australia.
- 4. Teamwork and collaborative practice: The nurse could have consulted a medical specialist or other specialist nurse. She also could have consulted her professional body about the legality, safety and appropriateness of providing the treatment. She did not consult a specialist or her professional body about the efficacy of, or the risks associated with, treatment or of the individual substances that were part of it; she acted on instructions relayed or given to her by Ms ZZ (who was not at the time an RN) from Dr YY, despite these being inconsistent with acceptable standards of treatment and care in Australia. Finally, she did not cease the treatment, or her participation in it, until after the death of one of the patients or after other patients were admitted to hospital.
- 5. Working safely: The nurse was clearly working outside of her professional scope of practice. She did not conform to the legal and professional standards expected of an RN. If she had checked with a specialist or read the guidelines and standards about cancer treatment, then it is unlikely that the treatment would have gone ahead.

Action: The nurse was reported to the Registration Board who then referred the case to a Tribunal (which happens when allegations involve the most serious unprofessional conduct).

The consequences of not ensuring patient safety were at the forefront of decision-making: One patient died and others were admitted to hospital. The Tribunal found that the nurse engaged in professional misconduct, reprimanded her, suspended her registration for 7 months and ordered her to pay the Registration Board \$7000 in legal costs.

Adapted from Australian Health Practitioner Regulation Agency, Court and Tribunal decisions 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017. Available www.ahpra.gov.au/Publications/Tribunal-Decisions.aspx

BOX 2.5 Applying clinical reasoning skills and patient safety competencies to clinical practice: A second year nursing student

'The first time I escalated care as a student, I was in second year on a placement in Alice Springs. I was on a medical-surgical unit and we had a lot of preoperative and postoperative patients. I was looking after a 40-year-old woman post-op after a hysterectomy. While I was attending to routine post-op observations, I noticed that she appeared pale in colour. I couldn't get a blood pressure using the automatic machine. I took initiative and found a manual blood pressure cuff before escalating to the Registered Nurse. I took a manual blood pressure and found a bilateral reading of 70 mmHg systolic. The family were there and were asking questions and I explained that I thought her blood pressure was a little low so I escalated to the RN. A rapid response was immediately done after the RN confirmed the hypotension. A bedside ultrasound was attended by the doctor and it revealed that the patient had post-op bleeding. She was rushed to theatres for emergency surgery. That day I felt like a "real" nurse for the first time."

Critical thinking and the Patient Safety Competency Framework for Nursing Students:

The cultural heritage of the patient in this scenario is not reported. Approximately 80% of hospitalised patients in Alice Springs identify as Aboriginal. The majority of Aboriginal people in the Northern Territory do not speak English as their first language and have varying levels of health literacy. Reflect on how the student nurse could provide the highest level of care by aligning her responses to this scenario with the Patient Safety Competency Framework for Nursing Students – particularly utilising the knowledge and skills of Therapeutic Communication and Cultural Competence.

Ellie Pich RN (Ellie is now a Registered Nurse working in the ED). Used with permission.

It is important for Registered Nurses to have a framework for assessing what the best action is in each case. They need to be able to carefully justify what they're doing and why. This is the process of 'thinking like a nurse'. As with many things in nursing, the capacity to think critically is not immediately visible to a person watching a nurse practise, but it will become evident in the way that nurses respond to changes in patients' conditions. Students in nursing, and indeed all nurses, have a responsibility to improve their capacity to think critically about life and clinical care. Box 2.5 provides an example of where a student in nursing was able to apply the patient safety competencies and her skills of clinical reasoning and clinical judgment to the care of a patient while she was on clinical practicum. Box 2.6 summarises the responsibilities of RNs in the practice setting.

While all healthcare workers have a professional and ethical obligation to keep patients safe there is also a legal requirement for employers to provide a safe environment for their workers. (See Box 2.7 regarding the rights of nurses at work.) Box 2.8 and Box 2.9 provide specific example of issues in resource allocation and patient and nurse safety. Box 2.8 describes the ethical dilemmas faced by nurses when they have insufficient resources. Box 2.9 provides an example of problem solving during an Ebola outbreak in a low resource environment.

In addition to the critical requirements for material resources, psychological and physical security are also key factors for protecting both staff and patients. The next section of the chapter examines research into workplace violence and workplace bullying and provides some guidance about

Recognising and responding to the deteriorating patient

Written by Ken Hambrecht

LEARNING OUTCOMES

- 1. State five criteria that may be used to escalate care.
- **2.** Explore the tools that can assist the recognition of and response to clinical deterioration.
- Explain how 'track and trigger' tools can be used to assist the process of recognising and responding to clinical deterioration.
- Describe a structured approach to communicating regarding a patient you are concerned about.
- Discuss the role of the patient or family activating the medical emergency team or rapid response system.

Many other chapters in this book discuss assessment and management of the patient in relation to specific conditions, including the parameters of relevant clinical observations. This chapter will build on those concepts to enhance the clinician's recognition of and response to clinical deterioration.

Background

While complications arising from healthcare are reducing due to improved techniques, monitoring and systems, adverse events—including those occurring during healthcare treatment, such as hospital-acquired complications—continue to be of major concern. In Australia in 2021–22, the incidence of a hospital-acquired complication occurs in every 411 hospitalisations.¹ In New Zealand, adverse events associated with healthcare occurred in 12.9% of admissions.² Further analysis of these adverse events determined that 35% could be classified as highly preventable.² Although permanent disability or death occurred in less than 15% of adverse events, they resulted in an average of over nine days additional hospital stay per event.²

- In Australia, adverse events were higher in surgical admissions (7.7 per 100 separations) compared with nonsurgical admissions (4.7 per 100 separations).³
- The incidence of adverse events in public hospitals was 6.6%; and 3.8% for private hospitals.³
- According to Australia Health Performance Framework 'The most common adverse event groups reported in hospitals were: '*Procedures causing abnormal reactions/ complications* (in 51% of hospitalisations involving an adverse event) and *Adverse effects of drugs, medicaments and biological substances* (32%).'³

Data published by the Australian Commission on Safety and Quality in Health Care demonstrate that in 2017–18, there were 140,393 admissions associated with Hospital Acquired Complications (HACs) which was estimated to cost the public sector \$4.1 billion or 8.9% of total hospital expenditure.⁴ The most common adverse event types include Hospital Acquired Infections (HAIs), medication complications including errors

KEY TERMS

medical emergency team, p. 1950 early warning, p. 1941 communication, p. 1941 handover, p. 1953

and/or reactions, delirium, and cardiac complications such as arrhythmias, myocardial ischaemia or infarction.⁴

NATIONAL STANDARDS

Australia and New Zealand each has a national body that facilitates the advancement of quality and safety in healthcare: these are the Australian Commission on Safety and Quality in Health Care (ACSQHC)^{4–7} and the Health Quality and Safety Commission New Zealand (HQSC)⁸ along with district health boards that collect and publish data regarding adverse events.^{9,10} The aim of both commissions is to work with clinicians and health managers to support and encourage quality and safety improvements, to identify areas where improvements can take place and to drive improvements in patient safety, including recognising and responding to clinical deterioration and education of consumers, clinicians and healthcare administrators.^{5,8}

The ACSQHC has released the second edition of its National Safety and Quality Health Service Standards. Standard 8 is *Recognising and responding to acute deterioration*.⁷ This describes the systems and processes for responding effectively to deterioration in a patient when changes occur in their physiological or cognitive status.⁶ To support Standard 8, in January 2022 the ACSQHC published the third edition of the national consensus statement, entitled *Essential elements for recognising and responding to clinical deterioration*,⁷ and another volume relating to recognition and response to mental health deterioration.¹¹ A summary of the nine essential elements from the ACSQHC's national consensus statement is presented in Box 70.1.⁷

In addition, various state bodies in Australia, such as the Clinical Excellence Commission (CEC) in NSW, are driving education and implementation of programs and systems to identify and respond to the patient who experiences, or who has the potential to suffer from, clinical deterioration. Examples of such programs include the Between the Flags Tier Two Education, known as DETECT (Detecting deterioration,

IF YOUR PATIENT HAS ANY YELLOW ZONE OBSERVATIONS OR ADDITIONAL CRITERIA* YOU <u>MUST</u> 1. Initiate appropriate clinical care 2. Repeat and increase the frequency of observations, as indicated by your patient's condition REFER TO YOUR LOCAL CLINICAL EMERGENCY RESPONSE SYSTEM (CERS) PROTOCOL FOR INSTRUCTIONS ON HOW TO MAKE A CALL TO ESCALATE CARE FOR YOUR PATIENT Decrease in Level of Consolusness or new onest of confusion Low mono uptur presistent for 4 hours (< 10 mine output presistent for 4 hours (< 10 mine output 2 set hours or of durates (untile output > 200mL/hr for 2 hours) Increasing oxygen requirements to maintain oxygen saturation > 90% • Venous Blood Gas: $PvCO_2 > 65$ or pH < 7.2• Only responds to Pain (P) on the AVPU scale Are you concerned about your patient? *Additional YELLOW ZONE Criteria IF A CLINICAL REVIEW IS CALLED: #Additional RED ZONE Criteria Cardiac or respiratory arrest Airway obstruction or stridor Excess or increasing blood loss Increasing oxygen requirement Poor peripheral circulation Patient unresponsive Consider the following: pH < 7.2 or BE < -5 • • STANDARD ADULT GENERAL OBSERVATION CHART SMR110.010 C FEMALE COMPLETE ALL DETAILS OR AFFIX PATIENT LABEL HERE ALTERATIONS TO CALLING CRITERIA MUST BE REVIEWED WITHIN 72 HOURD OR EARLIER FE CLINICALLY INDICATED Any alterations MUST be signed by a Medical Officer and confirmed by Attending Medical Office Document rationale for altering CALLING CRITERIA in the patient's health care record Alcohol Withdrawal MRN M.O. PRESCRIBED FREQUENCY OF OBSERVATIONS INTERVENTIONS / COMMENTS / ACTIONS Observation Insulin infusion Deservation Pain / Epidural / Patient Control Analgesia Anticoagulant One Neurovascular FAMILY NAME GIVEN NAME LOCATION ADDRESS D.O.B. dd/MM/yy Twice daily P. SMITH dd/MM/yy dd/MM/yy P. SMITH hh:mm hh:mm 30-34 R. Bligger STANDARD ADULT GENERAL OBSERVATION CHART 235 ALL OBSERVATIONS MUST BE GRAPHED Attending Medical Officer Signature DATE: Time: Frequency Required DATE: TIME Next review due Medical Officer Name (BLOCK letters) Medical Officer Signature Attending Medical Officer Signature Medical Officer Name (BLOCK letters) Medical Officer Signature Yellow Zone Yellow Zone fellow Zone Yellow Zone fellow Zone Red Zone Red Zone Ped Zone Red Zone Red Zone Altered Calling Criteria 50 Figure 70.1, cont'd OTHER CHARTS IN USE Time **Respiratory Rate** Blood Pressure Date Heart Rate Other Spo_2 e,i ė

CHECK THE HEALTH CARE RECORD FOR AN END OF LIFE CARE PLAN WHICH MAY ALTER THE MANAGEMENT OF YOUR PATIENT

Yellow Zone Response

- Consult promptly with the NURSE IN CHARGE to decide whether a CLINICAL REVIEW (or other CERS) call should be made
- What is usual for your patient and are there documented 'ALTERATIONS TO CALLING CRITERIA'?
 - Does the trend in observations suggest deterioration?
 - Is there more than one Yellow Zone observation or additional criterion?
- Reassess your patient and escalate according to your local CERS if the call is not attended within 30 minutes or you are becoming more concerned
- Document an A-G assessment, reason for escalation, treatment and outcome in your patient's health care record
 Inform the Attending Medical Officer that a call was made as soon as it is practicable
- Greater than expected fluid loss from a drain New, increasing or uncontrolled pain

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- Blood Glucose Level < 4mmol/L or > 20mmol/L with no decrease in Level of Consciousness • Ketonaemia > 1.5mmol/L or Ketonuria 2 + or r • Concern by patient or family member · Concern by you or any staff member (including chest pain)
- CONSIDER IF YOUR PATIENT'S DETERIORATION COULD BE DUE TO SEPSIS, A NEW ARRYTHMA, HYPOUCAEMIAHAEMORRHAGE, PULMONAFTE EMBOLUSIDYT. PHEUMONIAATELECTASIS, AN AMI, STROKE, OR AN OVERDOSEDOVER SEDATION
- **Red Zone Response**
- IF YOUR PATIENT HAS ANY RED ZONE OBSERVATIONS OR ADDITIONAL CRITERIA[#] YOU <u>MUST</u> CALL FOR A RAPID RESPONSE (as per local CERS) <u>AND</u> 1. Initiate appropriate clinical care
 - 2. Inform the NURSE IN CHARGE that you have called for a RAPID RESPONSE
- 3. Repeat and increase the frequency of observations, as indicated by your patient's condition

- Document an A-G assessment, reason for escalation, treatment and outcome in your patient's health care record
 Inform the Attending Medical Officer that a call was made as soon as it is practicable
 - 1
- Deterioration not reversed within 1 hour of Clinical Review

Sudden decrease in Level of Consciousn (a drop of 2 or more points on the GCS)

- Solzures
 Solzures
 Solzures
 Low wine output presistent for 8 hours
 (z.20ma over 8 hours or 5.5m/kgm van DC)
 Rend cluores Level < 4 mmol/L with a decreased tevel of Consciousness
 Ladate < 4 mmol/L
 - Arterial Blood Gas: PaO₂ < 60 or PaCO₂ > 60 or

 - Serious concern by any patient or family member
 Serious concern by you or any staff member
- Sile



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Figure 70.4 The Slippery Slope.

Source: © - Copyright - Clinical Excellence Commission, 2014.

ADDITIONAL MARKERS OF CLINICAL DETERIORATION

Cioffi and colleagues⁴² identified 10 'changes of concern' that nurses used to recognise patients with potentially early clinical deterioration: (1) noisy breathing, (2) inability to talk in sentences, (3) increasing supplementary O_2 to maintain oxygen saturation levels, (4) agitation, (5) impaired mentation, (6) impaired cutaneous perfusion, (7) not following expected trajectory, (8) new or escalating pain, (9) new symptom(s) and (10) new observations.

In the 'SOCCER' study,²² five indicators or precursors to early clinical deterioration were identified. These were (1) pain (uncontrolled, change in location or character, new, complaint of chest pain), (2) new bleeding, (3) poor peripheral circulation, (4) partial airway obstruction and (5) 'non-specific other'.

Clinicians may choose to document other observations and assessments to support timely recognition of deterioration. Examples of additional parameters that may be assessed are shown in Box 70.3.

Biochemical and haematological markers have also been shown to demonstrate changes that may herald clinical deterioration up to 24 hours in advance. However, as yet they have not been defined well enough to become a component of the general surveillance for clinical deterioration although this is an area for future investigation.

COMPONENTS OF OBSERVATIONS

Observations have three components:

- 1 Assessment. The patient requires assessment of various parameters at certain time intervals or in response to changes in their condition. Each patient should have a daily observation plan that is appropriate for their condition.
- 2. *Documentation*. The parameters (vital signs and observations) must be recorded or documented. Remember: not documented = not done!

BOX 70.3 Additional parameters that may be used in patient assessment

- Fluid balance
- Occurrence of seizures
- Pain, chest pain
- Respiratory distress
- Pallor
- Capillary refill
- Pupil size and reactivity
- Sedation score
- Agitation
- Delirium assessment
- Sweating
- Nausea and vomiting
- Biochemical analyses
- Haematological analyses

Source: Adapted from Australian Commission on Safety and Quality in Health Care (ACSQHC). Standard 8: recognising and responding to acute deterioration. National Safety and Quality Health Service Standards. 2nd ed. Sydney: ACSQHC. 2018.

3. *Interpretation.* What do individual readings reflect? What is the relationship to other observations and the physiological and pathophysiological changes occurring in the patient? What are the trends and responses to interventions?

Interpretation of clinical observations, including vital signs, is like a jigsaw puzzle. The greater the number of pieces (of information) we have, the more we can arrange them and place them correctly—and then view the overall picture rather than take an isolated observation unrelated to other observations.

For example, with a patient who has a falling SpO_2 , what could be the cause and what do our other observations and assessment of that patient suggest? What are the determinants

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Such empowerment of relatives and visitors is consistent with the advocacy role of the nurse. Remember that nurses are there to help the patient improve; nurses need to assist relatives or visitors to have their concerns voiced and acted on. To assist and involve patients and their relatives in the care of a person in a healthcare institution, the ACSQHC has released a report entitled Vital signs 2017.75 This report is structured around three important questions that members of the public ask about their healthcare: (1) Will my care be safe? (2) Will I get the right care? (3) Will I be a partner in my care?⁷⁵

Communication and handover

Communication regarding a patient's condition, their clinical course and plan for ongoing management is essential when care for a patient is being transferred or handed over to another healthcare professional. To facilitate this, the ACSQHC has published a guide entitled OSSIE Guide to Clinical Handover Improvement.⁷⁶ The guide includes the statement that 'Clinical handover is a high risk area for patient safety and therefore a priority project',⁷⁶ and summarises clinical handover as 'the transfer of professional responsibility and accountability for some or all aspects of care for a patient, or group of patients, to another person or professional group on a temporary or permanent basis'.76

The five phases of OSSIE implementation are shown in Box 70.6. Registered Nurses need to be familiar with the five principles of clinical handover, and ensure that they are aware of the handover procedures in their workplace to ensure comprehensive and safe transfer of information and care.

COMMUNICATION REGARDING A PATIENT YOU ARE CONCERNED ABOUT

The greatest problem in communication is the illusion that it has been accomplished.

George Bernard Shaw

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BOX 70.6 The five phases of OSSIE implementation⁷

- 'OSSIE' stands for the following five phases:
- Organisational leadership Simple solution development
- S Stakeholder engagement
- I Implementation
- **E** Evaluation and maintenance

Source: Reproduced with permission from OSSIE Guide to Clinical Handover Improvement, developed by the Australian Commission on Safety and Quality in Health Care (ACSQHC). ACSQHC Sydney 2010.

Globally, several systems and mnemonics have been developed to provide a framework for structured communication for handover. These are intended to ensure that the important details have been thought about, are conceptualised into useable, meaningful pieces of information, and that information is then communicated in a logical framework to minimise the risk of any omissions or assumptions regarding the patient's condition and progress.

These mnemonics include ISBAR (Table 70.1), ISOBAR (Table 70.2), SBAR (Table 70.3), SHARED (Table 70.4) and Hand me an ISOBAR (Table 70.5). These are available as wall posters and lanyard cards (see Fig. 70.8) and in many cases as apps for mobile devices.

Using a structured approach to handover has resulted in improved communication, especially in urgent situations, with better patient outcomes.⁷⁶ The use of written material such as handover sheets can further facilitate the retention of knowledge when time allows or once initial treatments have been instigated during urgent situations.76

I	Identify	Self: Name, position, location Who you are talking to: 1s this Dr?' Patient: Name, gender, location
S	Situation	State purpose: 'The reason I am calling is' If URGENT , say so: 'This is urgent because the patient is unstable with a BP of'
В	Background	Tell the story: Relevant history, relevant examination, relevant test results, relevant management If URGENT: Relevant vital signs, current management
A	Assessment	 State what you think is going on: 'The patient is febrile and I can't find a source of infection.' 'The patient is deteriorating. I think they may be bleeding.'
R	Recommendation/request	State request: • 'I'd like your opinion on the most appropriate test.' • 'I need help urgently. Are you able to come now?' • 'What can I do in the meantime?' Or state recommendation: • 'My recommendation is'

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TABLE 70.5 Hand Mo	an ISOBAR handover tool	
Hand Me an ISOBAR		
The major principles of clin This reflects what needs t	cal handover have been combined with the ISOBAR handover tool to form the ac o occur and what information needs to be exchanged during shift-to-shift nursin	cronym 'HAND ME AN ISOBAR'. ng handovers.
Step 1: HAND (prepare for handover)	 H Hey, it's handover time! A Allocate staff for continuity of patient care N Nominate participants, time and venue/s D Document on written sheets and patient notes 	
Step 2: ME (organise handover)	M Make sure all participants have arrived E Elect a leader	
Step 3: AN (patient and safety focus)	A Alerts, attention and safety N Nothing about me, without me INVOLVE THE PATIENT	5
Step 4: ISOBAR (provide handover for individual patients)	I Identification of patient S Situation and status O Observations of patient (± need for emergency calls) B Background and history A Action, agreed plan and accountability R Responsibility and risk management	

Source: Adapted from Standard 6, Clinical Handover. Sector Performance, Quality and Rural Health, Victorian Government, Department of Health. February 201485.

l Introduction	 "I am(name and role)" "I am calling from, "I am calling because,
S Situation	 "I have a patient (age and gender) who is a) stable but I have concerns b) unstable with rapid/slow deterioration" The presenting symptoms are"
B Background	 "This is the background of" Give pertinent information which may include: Date of admission/ presenting symptoms/medications/recent vital signs/test results/ status changes
A Assessment	 On the basis of the above: The patient's condition is They are at risk of And in need of
R Recommendation	 Be clear what you are requesting e.g. This patient needs transfer to/review Under the care of In the following timeframe

Figure 70.8 ISBAR handover tool. Source: Reproduced with permission from ISBAR Poster, developed by the Australian Commission on Safety and Quality in Health Care (ACSQHC). ACSQHC: Sydney 2008.

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RESOURCES

- Australian and New Zealand Falls Prevention Society
- www.anzfallsprevention.org Australian Commission on Safety and Quality in Health Care (ACSQHC)
- www.safetyandquality.gov.au Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW)—safety and quality health care resources
- www.aihw.gov.au/reports-data/health-welfare-overview/healthcare-quality-performance/about-health-performance

Clinical Excellence Commission, NSW www.cec.health.nsw.gov.au

First2ActWeb

https://first2act.com

Government of Western Australia Office of Safety and Quality in Health Care

https://ww2.health.wa.gov.au/Health-for/Health-professionals/ Safety-and-quality

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Health Quality and Safety Commission New Zealand Kupu Taurangi Hauora o Aotearoa www.hqsc.govt.nz

Joint Commission of Health Care Accreditation (USA)-National Patient Safety Goals free resources

www.jcrinc.com Josie King Foundation

http://josieking.org/home

QSEN Institute (Quality and Safety Education for Nurses) http://qsen.org/competencies

SA Health—safety and quality programs

www.sahealth.sa.go.au/wps/wcm/connect/public+content/ sa+health+internet/clinical+resources/safety+and+quality/ safety+and+quality+programs Better Safer Care Victoria

https://bettersafercare.vic.gov.au/about-us/about-scv/councils/vcc World Alliance for Patient Safety, World Health Organization https://www.who.int/health-topics/patient-safety#tab=tab_1

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