

1 **“Keeping on track” – Hospital nurses’ struggles with maintaining workflow while**
2 **seeking to integrate evidence-based practice into their daily work: A grounded theory**
3 **study**

4
5 ABSTRACT

6 *Background:* Evidence-based practice is considered a foundation for the provision of quality
7 care and one way to integrate scientific knowledge into clinical problem-solving. Despite the
8 extensive amount of research that has been conducted to evaluate evidence-based practice
9 implementation and research utilization, these practices have not been sufficiently
10 incorporated into nursing practice. Thus, additional research regarding the challenges clinical
11 nurses face when integrating evidence-based practice into their daily work and the manner in
12 which these challenges are approached is needed.

13 *Objectives:* The aim of this study was to generate a theory about the general patterns of
14 behaviour that are discovered when clinical nurses attempt to integrate evidence-based
15 practice into their daily work.

16 *Design:* We used Glaser’s classical grounded theory methodology to generate a substantive
17 theory.

18 *Settings:* The study was conducted in two different medical wards in a large Norwegian
19 hospital. In one ward, nurses and nursing assistants were developing and implementing new
20 evidence-based procedures, and in the other ward, evidence-based huddle boards for risk
21 assessment were being implemented.

22 *Participants:* A total of 54 registered nurses and 9 assistant nurses were observed during their
23 patient care and daily activities. Of these individuals, thirteen registered nurses and five
24 assistant nurses participated in focus groups. These participants were selected through
25 theoretical sampling.

26 *Methods:* Data were collected during 90 hours of observation and 4 focus groups conducted
27 from 2014 to 2015. Each focus group session included four to five participants and lasted
28 between 55 and 65 minutes. Data collection and analysis were performed concurrently, and
29 the data were analysed using the constant comparative method.

30 *Results:* “Keeping on track” emerged as an explanatory theory for the processes through
31 which the nurses handled their main concern: the risk of losing the workflow. The following
32 three strategies were used by nurses when attempting to integrate evidence-based practices
33 into their daily work: “task juggling”, “pausing for considering” and “struggling along with
34 quality improvement”.

1 *Conclusions:* The “keeping on track” theory contributes to the body of knowledge regarding
2 clinical nurses’ experiences with evidence-based practice integration. The nurses endeavoured
3 to minimize workflow interruptions to avoid decreasing the quality of patient care provided,
4 and evidence-based practices were seen as a consideration that was outside of their ordinary
5 work duties.

6
7 *Keywords:* Clinical Competence, Evidence-Based Practice, Focus Groups, Grounded Theory,
8 Knowledge, Nursing Staff, Hospital; Nurses, Observation, Research utilization, Workflow
9

10 11 **What is already known about the topic?**

- 12 • Nurses are not uniformly ready to implement evidence-based practice.
- 13 • Clinical nurses infrequently incorporate new scientific evidence into daily work.
- 14 • Nurses experience lack of authority to change practice and recognize that change
15 requires hard work.

16 17 **What this paper adds**

- 18 • The clinical nurses’ major concern is to minimize losing the workflow to maintain the
19 quality of patient care provided.
- 20 • Clinical nurses regard integrating evidence-based practice as a task that comes in
21 addition to their ordinary duties.
- 22 • The grounded theory “keeping on track” contributes to better understanding of clinical
23 nurses’ experiences and behavioural patterns when attempting to integrate evidence-
24 based practice into daily work.

25 26 27 **1. Introduction**

28
29 Nurses are expected to deliver health care in accordance with evidence-based practice
30 (Department of Community Health Care Services, 2005; Melnyk and Fineout-Overholt, 2015;
31 Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario, 2007; World Health Organization, 2016), which is
32 considered a foundation for the provision of quality care and, therefore, is important for the
33 promotion of patient treatment and care by clinical nurses (Melnyk et al., 2012; Pravikoff et

1 al., 2005a). Evidence-based practice may be regarded as a problem-solving strategy whereby
2 scientific evidence that is applicable to each patient's situation is integrated with clinical
3 expertise, local circumstances, available resources, and patient preferences when making
4 clinical decisions (Melnyk and Fineout-Overholt, 2015; Polit and Beck, 2016). Thus,
5 evidence-based practice is a manner in which to translate (Melnyk and Fineout-Overholt,
6 2015) or to apply (Titler, 2014) evidence in clinical practice. Evidence-based practice also
7 involves organizational level activities, such as gathering and integrating evidence into a
8 manageable form through the development of evidence-based clinical guidelines (Polit and
9 Beck, 2016). Research indicates that nurses are not sufficiently ready for evidence-based
10 practice and use new scientific knowledge infrequently. This study will investigate nurses'
11 challenges and how they solve these when seeking to integrate evidence-based practice into
12 clinical decisions.

13

14 **2. Background**

15

16 Barriers and facilitators to implementing evidence-based practice in hospital settings have
17 been the focus of research for many years and have not changed during the last two decades
18 (Melnyk et al., 2012). Traditionally, barriers such as lack of time, knowledge, and skills have
19 been reported as the most common individual barriers among nurses (Chiu et al., 2010;
20 Mallion and Brooke, 2016; Melnyk et al., 2012; Yoder et al., 2014). The capacity for
21 organizational change and social, political and legal factors have also been identified as
22 important in the promotion of evidence-based practice (Atkinson et al., 2008; Flodgren et al.,
23 2012; Pravikoff et al., 2005b), and it appears the application of tailored principles may
24 influence the implementation process (Aasekjær et al., 2016). Several implementation
25 theories and models have been developed to promote effective implementation. An overview
26 of theories in the literature revealed the use of different terminologies and definitions and the
27 presence of overlapping components and missing key constructs included in other theories
28 (Damschroder et al., 2009). Therefore, Damschroder et al. (2009) established the
29 Consolidated Framework for Implementation Research by embracing common constructs
30 from a synthesis of existing implementation theories, to be used to help guide evaluation of
31 interventions in context. From year 2000 May and colleagues (May and Finch, 2009; May et
32 al., 2009) developed the Normalization Process Theory from empirical studies, rather than
33 from existing theories, to better understand how new practices are integrated into their social
34 contexts. By addressing the difficulties to implementing and integrating new treatments and

1 ways of organizing health care, the Normalization Process Theory focuses on the manner in
2 which the social actions of workers contribute to implementation, embedding and integration
3 (May and Finch, 2009; May et al., 2009). The current study sought to apply another
4 perspective on social interactions, grounded theory, to investigate nurses' challenges in
5 integrating evidence-based practice into their daily work and the manner in which these
6 challenges are approached.

7
8 Although nurses may be better prepared for the implementation of evidence-based practice
9 than they were some years ago (Mallion and Brooke, 2016; Melnyk et al., 2012; Pravikoff et
10 al., 2005b), recent research still indicates that clinical nurses may not be uniformly prepared
11 for evidence-based practice (Saunders et al., 2016; Saunders and Vehvilainen-Julkunen,
12 2016). Despite knowledge about and positive attitudes towards evidence-based practice,
13 clinical nurses have been found to use scientific knowledge infrequently (Forsman et al.,
14 2010; Kajermo et al., 2010; Mallion and Brooke, 2016; Squires et al., 2011). When evidence-
15 based guidelines are used, the use of new evidence in clinical situations is promoted (Grol and
16 Grimshaw, 2003). Guideline-associated factors, such as the utility, strength of evidence,
17 compatibility, complexity, and ability to be tested by clinicians, may affect clinicians'
18 compliance to with guidelines (Cochrane et al., 2007; Gurses et al., 2010). In practice, clinical
19 nurses' willingness to enact the guidelines and normalize them in practice is decisive
20 contributors to their implementation (May et al., 2014). Support from leaders and
21 administrators seems to be important for promoting the use of research among clinical nurses
22 (Gurses et al., 2010; Kaplan et al., 2014; Melnyk et al., 2012; Sredl et al., 2011; Yoder et al.,
23 2014), and lack of organization and teamwork structure as well as work overload have been
24 identified as barriers to research use (Adib - Hajbaghery, 2007; Cochrane et al., 2007;
25 Solomons and Spross, 2011).

26
27 Different determinants may contribute to variations in health care, and their effects depend
28 upon the context in which they are embedded (Baker et al., 2015; Flottorp et al., 2013; Gurses
29 et al., 2010; Jun et al., 2016). Tailored strategies that address the identified determinants can
30 improve health care (Baker et al., 2015). Despite the extensive amount of research that has
31 been conducted, we still have insufficient knowledge about challenges in research utilization
32 among clinical nurses (Kajermo et al., 2010; Melnyk et al., 2012; Yoder et al., 2014). Nurses
33 have reported a lack of authority to change clinical practice (Adib - Hajbaghery, 2007;

1 Solomons and Spross, 2011) and recognize that change requires hard work (Asadoorian et al.,
2 2010). Thus far, research has also suggested that it may be challenging to incorporate
3 activities associated with evidence-based practice, such as searching for the literature and
4 participating in journal clubs and evidence-based practice groups, into daily work (Aitken et
5 al., 2011; Pitkänen et al., 2015). To understand these difficulties in more detail, we conducted
6 this grounded theory study. The goal was to gain a better understanding of the challenges
7 perceived and behaviours exhibited by hospital nurses when attempting to integrate evidence-
8 based practice into daily work.

9
10 The context of this study was that the leadership of a large Norwegian hospital trust
11 implemented a policy on the use of evidence-based practice in 2006. A framework was
12 developed and applied for incorporating evidence-based practice. It included four domains:
13 competence development, organizational adjustments, technological infrastructure and
14 information resources for knowledge support (Vandvik and Eiring, 2011). The nurses’
15 evidence-based care activities included participating in developing evidence-based
16 procedures, care pathways or standardized care plans in groups that included a supervisor. In
17 this study, we focused on what they were concerned about approximately eight years after the
18 new policy was initiated. Data were collected from nurses in two wards that used different
19 approaches to integrate evidence-based practice, and we focused on the manner in which the
20 clinical nurses handled the integration and use of new evidence. Patient preferences, local
21 circumstances and available recourses should be taken into consideration during the
22 implementation of evidence-based practice. However, these are not the focus of this paper.

23

24 **3. Methods**

25

26 *3.1 Aim*

27

28 The aim of the study was to generate a theory about the general patterns of behaviour that are
29 discovered when clinical nurses attempt to integrate evidence-based practice into their daily
30 work.

31

32 *3.2 Design*

33

1 We used Glaser's classical grounded theory methodology (Glaser, 2013, 1998, 1978; Glaser
2 and Strauss, 1967) to generate a substantive theory about clinical nurses' main concern and
3 their strategies for handling their concern in hospital wards. Main concern can be understood
4 as a problem, that with which participants are occupied or that which is relevant to
5 participants (Glaser, 1998). Grounded theory is a general methodology often used as a
6 systematic qualitative approach; this methodology is well-suited for the exploration of
7 complex and latent patterns and social interactions (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). When using
8 grounded theory, researchers are required to suspend preconceived concepts and remain open-
9 minded; trusting that the ways in which the participants resolve their main concern will
10 emerge from the data (Glaser, 2013, 1998). The use of the grounded theory approach allowed
11 for the emergence and development of a theory that reflected the experiences of clinical
12 nurses in their daily work.

13

14 *3.3 Setting and Participants*

15

16 Data collection was conducted in two different medical wards with two distinct geographical
17 locations eight to nine years after the hospital leadership implemented evidence-based
18 practice. The first ward was selected through theoretical sampling; it was assumed that it
19 would contribute comprehensive data for development of a theory because of the nurses'
20 engagement in an on-going evidence-based practice project. The ward had 18 beds, 33 nurses
21 and 3 assistants. The second ward was selected guided by theoretical sampling, as it was
22 likely to provide rich data for the assessment of emerging categories because they were in an
23 early phase of implementing huddle boards in their daily work. This ward had 38 beds, 63
24 nurses and 5 assistants.

25

26 The participants were recruited by theoretical sampling and comprised registered nurses,
27 specialist nurses and assistant nurses working in care positions in the two units. The
28 theoretical sampling method will be elaborated upon in the data collection section. In
29 Norway, registered nurses are required to have a bachelor's degree that was awarded after
30 three years' university level education. Thirteen of the specialist nurses completed a twelve-
31 to eighteen-month specialization after their Bachelor's degree, and two had a master's degree.
32 The assistant nurses were required to have completed two years of upper secondary education.
33 Of the 96 nurses who worked in the two wards, 63 were observed, some of whom were not

1 intensively observed and some of whom were followed closely. Of these 63 nurses, 18
2 participated in the focus groups.

3

4 *3.4 Data collection*

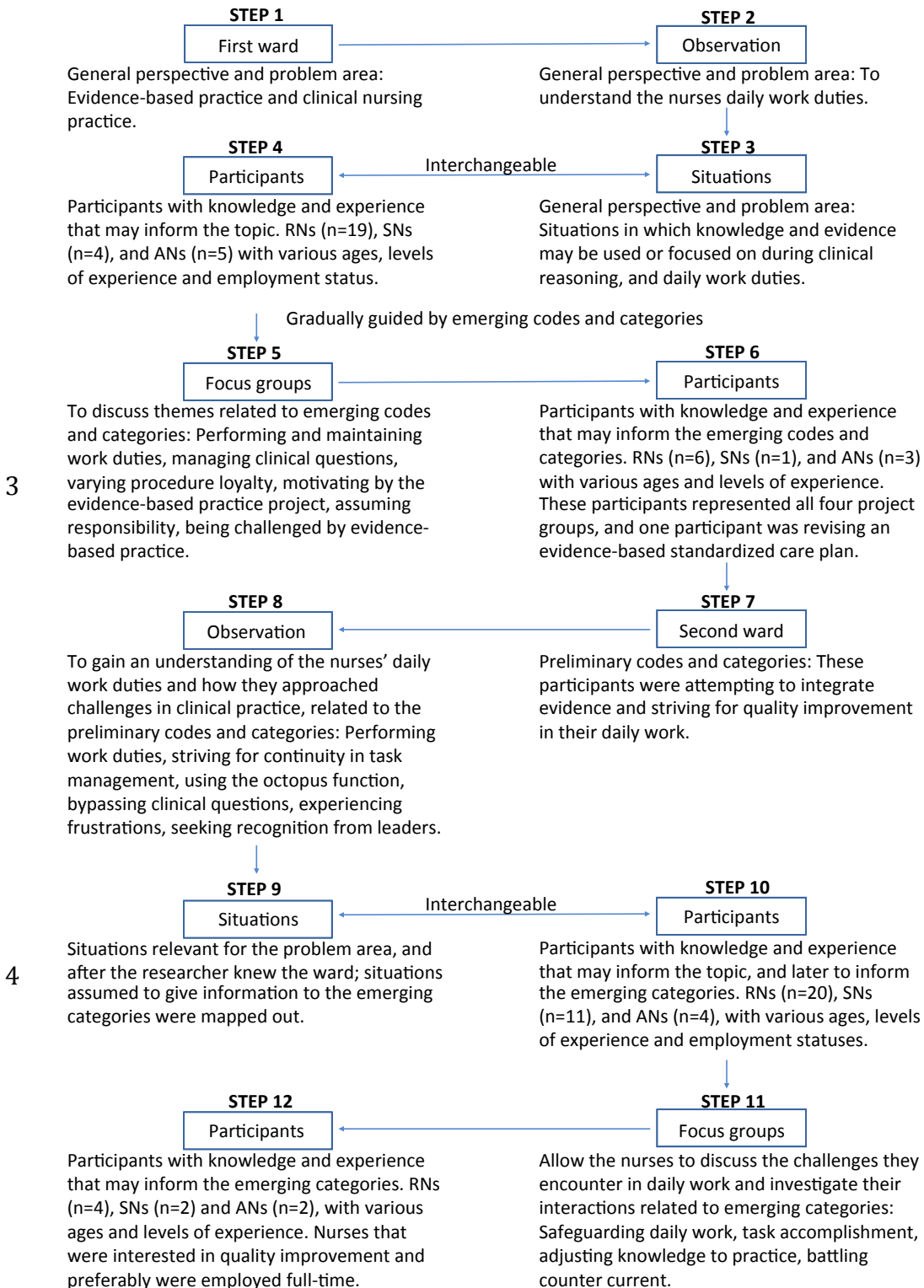
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6 Data were collected between March 2014 and November 2015. In the first ward, data
7 collection began with an observation stage (details given below), giving the researcher the
8 opportunity to observe the clinical nurses' daily work duties. As mentioned above, the data
9 collection process was guided by theoretical sampling, in which the collected data are used to
10 develop a theory as it emerges. The researcher collected, coded and analysed the data and,
11 based on these findings, decided what data to collect next and where to collect them (Glaser
12 and Strauss, 1967). An overview of the guiding elements used for selecting study settings,
13 methods, situations and participants are shown in Figure 1.

14

15

- 1 *Figure 1. Flow of the theoretical sampling process with guiding elements*
- 2 *used for selecting study settings, methods, situations and participants.*



RN = Registered Nurse, SN = Specialist Nurse, AN = Assistant Nurse

1 In theoretical sampling, data collection is initially guided by a general perspective and
2 problem area (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Thus, the researcher included situations and
3 participants presumed to contribute to the generation of information of relevance for the
4 research topic. Then, the theoretical sampling was guided by gradually emerging codes and
5 categories through the application of strategic successive selection of participants assumed to
6 have the capacity to contribute knowledge that could strengthen the emerging theory (Glaser,
7 1978; Glaser and Strauss, 1967). After the analysis of the last observations, the preliminary
8 core category, “striving for work accomplishment”, emerged and the main concern indicated a
9 confrontation between evidence-based practice and clinical practice. We then carried out two
10 focus groups to allow the nurses to discuss their daily work and experiences with evidence-
11 based practice and simultaneously investigate their interactions (Kitzinger, 1994; Polit and
12 Beck, 2016).

13

14 Observational data were collected in the second ward to gain a better understanding of the
15 nurses’ daily work duties and how the nurses approached challenges in clinical practice.
16 When the researcher had mapped out these real-life situations based on information relevant
17 to the emerging concepts and became familiar with the nurses, sampling was guided by codes
18 and categories. After the data from the last observation period were analysed, two focus
19 groups were carried out to allow the nurses to discuss the challenges they encountered during
20 everyday work, and to investigate their interactions and discussions about their challenges and
21 opportunities. The sampling process was carried out in cooperation with the nursing
22 leadership and/or a teaching nurse while taking into consideration practical issues in the
23 wards.

24

25 The primary researcher (ÅR) was an experienced nurse who developed an interest in the topic
26 after working in hospital clinical care and management at the hospital where the present study
27 was performed for several years. Thus, she was familiar with the hospital as an organization
28 and its strategic plans, system of procedures and other routines. However, at the time of the
29 study, she was a researcher at the hospital with a PhD-scholarship. She did not know the
30 wards or the health care workers included in this study well, but a few of the participants were
31 familiar with her work history at the hospital.

32

33 *3.4.1 Observations*

1 Ninety hours of observation were performed in the two wards. The researcher followed
2 clinical nurses during their patient care and daily activities, and in interdisciplinary work with
3 physicians, physiotherapists, occupational therapists and students, and in internal teaching
4 events. During participant observation, the researcher participated as an observer and
5 simultaneously interacted with the health care workers by observing, asking questions and
6 obtaining insider views of the structures relevant to the nurses (Creswell, 2013; Polit and
7 Beck, 2016). The researcher, thus, undertook unstructured observations, which provided the
8 opportunity to understand the participants' experiences and behaviours as they occurred in the
9 clinical settings under study (Polit and Beck, 2016). Both descriptive and reflective field notes
10 were written during the observations or immediately after (Creswell, 2013), and the
11 researcher subsequently initiated coding.

12

13 *3.4.2 Focus groups*

14 Four focus group discussions involving eighteen participants in total were conducted at the
15 participants' workplaces three to twelve months after the observation periods. Each focus
16 group session consisted of four or five participants and lasted between 55 and 65 minutes. The
17 researcher contacted the participants via email. The optimal focus group size has been
18 suggested to range from five to ten or twelve people (Polit and Beck, 2016; Speziale and
19 Carpenter, 2007). Nevertheless, larger groups may be difficult to control and may limit each
20 person's contribution; thus, five to eight participants have also been recommended (Krueger
21 and Casey, 2015). We planned for the inclusion of approximately eight participants, but
22 practical issues associated with daily work tasks and absence due to illness resulted in the
23 enrolment of fewer participants. The participants in each group were very familiar with each
24 other as colleagues, and the group dynamic seemed to be positive. The participants reacted to
25 what was said by their colleagues, and the following discussions may have led to deeper
26 expressions of their opinions, which can be of benefit in focus groups (Polit and Beck, 2016).
27 ÅR moderated the focus groups, and SH served as a co-moderator, which provided the
28 opportunity to subsequently discuss what was being said and not said in the groups. The focus
29 group sessions were audiotaped and transcribed. A thematic interview guide was developed
30 for each focus group discussion based on the principle of staying open-minded and allowing
31 the participants to discuss their main concern without preconceived questions (Glaser, 2011).
32 The interview guide was adjusted to incorporate emerging concepts and events from
33 observational data and emerging codes and categories (Glaser, 1978). The discussions were

1 initiated with an open-ended question and were supplemented with questions based on the
 2 participants' contributions (Table 1).

3

4 *Table 1. Example of the dynamic use of a thematic interview guide*

5

We started all focus group discussions with this open-ended question	What has the use of evidence-based practice been like in your ward?
If necessary, we asked these questions to the groups	Can you tell us about a situation in which you have succeeded in the integration of evidence-based practice? Can you tell us about a situation where you did not succeed in the integration of evidence-based practice?
We elucidated these questions in all groups in different ways depending on the situation	What is evidence-based practice? What is your work environment like? What are the relationship and cooperation between newly graduated nurses and more experienced nurses like? What do you think about the role of the students in the ward?
Examples of questions that relied upon information obtained during the observations and questions adjusted to the emerging codes and categories	During the observation period, I observed that you were asked questions by others and continually received new messages and other tasks while you were working. How do you experience such situations? During the observation period, I observed that it is routine practice to change peripheral vein catheters at set intervals. How did this process occur before huddle board implementation, and how does it currently work? During the observation period, I heard repeated discussions about performing the best procedure for the patients, but difficulties solving this problem were expressed. How do you solve similar challenging clinical problems?

6

7 *3.5 Ethical considerations*

8

9 The health care workers in the wards had been informed of the study beforehand by their
 10 leader. Before the observations, the researcher gave the participants written information about
 11 the study and its purpose (i.e., investigating their challenges in using new research knowledge
 12 related to implementation of evidence-based practice), and informed consent was obtained.

13 When the researcher followed a nurse into a patient's room, the nurse informed the patient
 14 and obtained oral consent for the researcher to observe the nurse working with the patient.

15 Written consent was obtained from all participants in the focus groups.

16

17 *3.6 Data analysis*

18

1 Data collection and analysis were performed concurrently as prescribed in grounded theory,
 2 with open and selective coding (Table 2).

3

4 *Table 2. Processing the data*

Field notes from the observation	Open coding line-by-line	Selective coding	Category
SN 3 is telling the researcher that SN 3 and a colleague have assumed responsibility to revise an evidence-based standardized care plan. They are going to do it this afternoon. Because they both are working the day shift, the researcher asks if they are going to do it in their spare time. Yes, they have several times tried to do the revisions, but they fail each time because of excessive patient care work, which is impossible to put aside. The researcher asks if they have asked their leader about getting protected time to do it. They have not, because it is so difficult to hire a substitute. The leader has more than enough to do with this already. No, the nurses are tired of not getting it finished, so this afternoon things will be finished.	Are responsible for revising Are revising this afternoon Using their spare time Failing to revise during work shifts Too much work with the patients Cannot leave the patient care work Do not ask the leader about protected time Are getting tired of not getting it done	Using their spare time Failing with revising at work Patient care work takes all of the time on duty Tiring of not getting it done	Assuming responsibility

5

6 At first, in open coding, field notes and transcriptions were coded line-by-line by naming
 7 events. Then, events were compared with events through the constant comparative method to
 8 elicit categories and properties (Glaser, 1978; Glaser and Strauss, 1967), and the categories
 9 then were compared with categories. Data from observations and focus groups were
 10 connected in the same analysis. When the researchers gained a sense of what the core
 11 category might be, the code process focused on the data related to the core category through
 12 selective coding (Glaser, 1978). ÅR coded all data, and in addition SH, EH and MK coded the
 13 first set of data to be able to compare the coding. The co-authors scrutinized field notes and
 14 transcribed material with its associated codes and categories, and the group of authors
 15 discussed codes and categories repeatedly during data collection and analysis. After

1 identifying the nurses' main concern, we identified patterns and moved from description to
2 conceptualizing (Glaser, 2005). Simultaneous to the coding, the researcher wrote memos
3 about the coded data, which were used during the theoretical coding to develop the theory.
4 The theoretical codes conceptualized how the emergent categories and properties and the
5 memos related to each other, thereby establishing hypotheses that could be integrated into a
6 theory (Glaser, 1978). Theoretical coding allows the researcher to talk substantively while
7 thinking theoretically of the relationship between the codes (Glaser, 1978). The data
8 collection and analysis continued until theoretical saturation was achieved and no new
9 categories emerged. Prior to and during data analysis, the transcriptions and field notes were
10 de-identified and stored in the hospital's research data server. All coding and discussions in
11 the research team were performed using de-identified data.

12

13 *3.7 Rigour*

14

15 Stemming from our previous experiences with the research setting, we were thoughtful about
16 suspending our preconceived notions and tried to remain open and sensitive to understand
17 what was going on in the field (Glaser, 2013; Glaser and Strauss, 1967). All authors discussed
18 codes and categories throughout the analysis, so the findings proceed from the experiences of
19 the participants and fit with the empirical data, which is one quality criterion for a grounded
20 theory (Glaser, 1978). Moreover, the criteria of work, relevance and modifiability are the
21 central quality criteria in a grounded theory (Glaser, 1998, 1978). To be workable, the theory
22 must explain what is going on in the substantive area, and the theory must be relevant for the
23 participants, which is ensured by the pattern of behaviour's emergence from the data through
24 the constant comparative method. This also implies that if someone uses the theory for further
25 analyses, the theory could be modified based on new data.

26

27 To ensure rigour in the focus groups, two of the authors participated, and the discussions were
28 audiotaped and transcribed. The focus groups were held in a meeting room in the participants'
29 own area, which was established as a protective and supportive atmosphere. The observer was
30 acquainted with some of the participants and knew the system and routines at the hospital.
31 This may have influenced the researcher-participant interactions. Therefore, in order to
32 minimize effects on the participants, the researcher tried to maintain a low profile and
33 establish trust to fit into the group (Polit and Beck, 2016). Furthermore, knowledge of the

1 field may affect theoretical sensitivity, which is important in developing a grounded theory
2 (Glaser, 1978).

3 4 **4. Findings**

5
6 Through generating a substantive theory about clinical nurses' pattern of behaviour in seeking
7 to integrate evidence-based practice, the nurses' main concern was identified: the risk of
8 losing the workflow. This was all-important in their daily work. We came to understand the
9 concept of workflow as a continuum of work tasks that the nurses carried out to support
10 medical treatment, care for the patients, organize the ward, cooperate with colleagues, and
11 maintain oversight and control, while simultaneously being a good professional and
12 colleague. Losing the workflow implied the loss of oversight and control of work tasks, which
13 could have serious impact on patients and the work of colleagues.

14
15 "Keeping on track" emerged as the behavioural pattern through which the clinical nurses
16 resolved their main concern. This behavioural pattern is an analytic abstraction comprising all
17 that the clinical nurses did to maintain and ensure the workflow, including keeping control
18 and finishing tasks. As the workflow was a continuous, on-going process around the clock,
19 the caregivers were getting "on track" when they started their shift, stayed "on track" during
20 their working days and got "off track" when the next shift was taking over. "Keeping on
21 track" seemed to be an appropriate strategy by which the nurses reduced the risk of losing the
22 workflow, thereby endangering the patients' care and treatment on the ward. They based their
23 work on available knowledge, including evidence-based knowledge, whenever possible. Their
24 use of knowledge was omnipresent and, in a way, hidden and indirect.

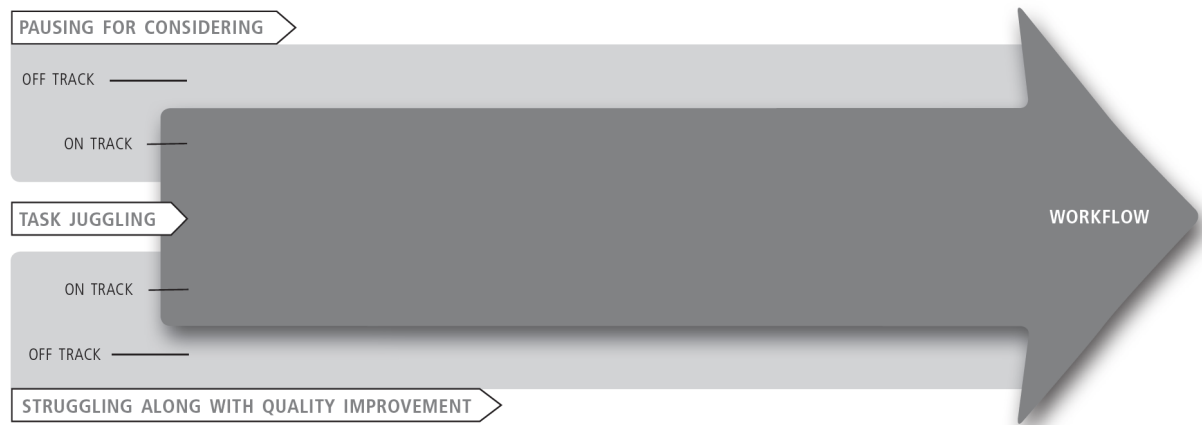
25
26 In contrast to "keeping on track", the nurses sometimes "got off track" during their workdays.
27 This implied sidestepping away from the workflow. This could be necessary in order to
28 reflect on a clinical question arising from practice, which required an answer beyond one's
29 own competence. Such "off track" situations could lead to searches of the literature and the
30 use of scientific knowledge to promote patient outcomes.

31
32 "Keeping on track" encompassed a pattern of three strategies used by the nurses under
33 varying conditions: "task juggling", "pausing for considering" and "struggling along with
34 quality improvement" (Figure 2). These processes were interwoven, sometimes conflicting

1 and sometimes mutually supportive. When conflicts occurred, keeping on track guided nurses
2 in finding solutions.

3

4 *Figure 2. The interrelationship between the three strategies of “keeping on track”: task*
5 *juggling, pausing for considering and struggling along with quality improvement.*



6
7

8 *4.1 Task juggling*

9

10 The concept of task juggling emerged as a generic term for handling all of the tasks that
11 nurses had to keep running simultaneously and continuously within the time available on their
12 shifts. Juggling the tasks was crucial for their work satisfaction and for keeping control and
13 maintaining oversight over their work, which was important for good patient care and
14 treatment. The main feature in task juggling consisted of navigating daily routines,
15 exchanging information and dividing tasks. The nurses' use of knowledge in task juggling
16 was integrated into all of their decision-making, but it was mainly unconscious and intuitive,
17 and the nurses did not really reflect on where the knowledge came from. High efficiency
18 requirements, heavy workload, lack of resources and facilitation were conditions out of the
19 clinical nurses' hand, contributing to the nurses' task juggling "on track".

20

21 *4.1.1 Navigating daily routines*

22 Much of the nurses' activities were characterized by navigating daily routines, such as
23 managing medications, planning and documenting patient care, participating in different
24 scheduled meetings and pre-rounding and regular rounding, besides solving upcoming tasks.
25 All of these routines filled much of the clinical nurses' work time, which they handled by
26 constantly juggling the prioritization of "what to do" and "in which order", as well as what

1 they could not do. The nurses attended to what one of them termed an “octopus function”
2 much of their workday and had to stay on track to manage this. The “octopus function”
3 referred to handling a composite of unpredictable or uncontrolled upcoming tasks
4 simultaneously—tasks that had to be solved ad hoc.

6 *4.1.2 Exchanging information*

7 To ensure a functioning ward and oversight maintenance, the nurses were continuously
8 exchanging information as a part of their task juggling. This implied receiving information
9 from others about both administrative and clinical issues and returning information based on
10 what was occurring in the ward. The nurses’ conveyance of information among themselves in
11 their working groups, within the interdisciplinary teams and with patients and relatives about
12 patient-related issues also demanded much of their time. Altogether, this demanded the
13 exchange of huge amounts of information (“information overload”). To handle the
14 information overload, the nurses were juggling information to select the most important
15 information for the actual situation. However, this was difficult, because the important
16 information could easily be overwhelmed by less important information thereby making it
17 challenging to keep sight of what was relevant.

19 *4.1.3 Dividing tasks*

20 The entire structure of the clinical nursing work was characterized as belonging to a to-do
21 culture. The need to solve all necessary tasks during the work shift determined how the nurses
22 divided the tasks among themselves. Habitually, the nurse who was group leader divided the
23 tasks in a democratic process based on agreement. Throughout the day, they also got new
24 tasks from their leader, the ward secretary and the physicians, which resulted in a need for
25 reorganizing themselves during the workday through continuously changing tasks and
26 dividing new tasks.

28 *4.2 Pausing for considering*

30 The clinical nurses were pausing for considering in situations requiring something more than
31 task juggling. We understood these to be difficult situations where the nurses did not
32 immediately know the solution to a clinical problem. Good social work environment among
33 the staff together with a professional focus and the clinical nurses’ own motivations seemed to
34 stimulate the nurses’ demand for knowledge. “Good environment” was characterized by open

1 communication, respect and cooperation, despite differences in age, education, competence
2 and skills. Pausing for considering was executed by three strategies: seeking solutions “on
3 track”, venturing “off track” or adjusting their commitment to using knowledge.

4 5 *4.2.1 Seeking solutions “on track”*

6 The main pattern behind the nurses’ “on track” considerations was that they made inquiries to
7 each other and the physicians and searched for answers by making phone calls to other
8 colleagues. They also used printed procedures, paper checklists and descriptions together with
9 the physicians’ desktop reference. The nature of seeking solutions “on track” was to use as
10 little time as possible and quickly find an easy solution to put into effect, which implied that
11 the nurses used established knowledge based on colleagues’ experience and printed material
12 easily accessible in the ward. Each nurse determined the appropriate time to spend on seeking
13 solutions for any given situation in order not to lose the workflow. In any case, seeking
14 solutions “on track” represented a lower risk of losing the workflow than seeking solutions
15 “off track”.

16 17 *4.2.2 Venturing “off track”*

18 Sometimes, when the nurses did not find the solution to a problem “on track”, they had to
19 consider if they were willing to increase the risk of losing the workflow by venturing “off
20 track” to find new knowledge that could be positive for the patient. This meant that they
21 intentionally decided to step away from the workflow for a while to search for updated
22 knowledge either in a local procedure from the computer, in a database or on a specific
23 Internet website. The nurses rarely did this, and when they actually tried, they shared
24 experiences of seldom finding anything they could use.

25 26 *4.2.3 Adjusting commitment to using knowledge*

27 The clinical nurses were adjusting their commitment to using knowledge depending on
28 existing conditions, endeavouring not to lose the workflow. In a sense, they redefined their
29 expectations from those associated with an idealized position to simply doing what was
30 feasible, in each situation. Even when the nurses were familiar with the most recent scientific
31 knowledge or the best solution to a problem, in stressful and busy situations, they could
32 reduce the expectations of their own performance and refrain from choosing the best solution.

1 Likewise, the nurses considered unknown clinical questions with the result of varying
2 procedure loyalty. In a clinical situation marked by promoting conditions, a nurse could
3 prioritize following an evidence-based procedure, whereas in a similar situation but with
4 inhibiting conditions, she could refrain from following the same procedure. The nurses were
5 confident in their use of experience-based knowledge and acknowledged the lack of using
6 scientific knowledge. They did not seem to trust or apply new scientific knowledge if it
7 differed a lot from established practice. Neither did they expend energy on new scientific
8 knowledge that implied small differences with no importance for practice or which just
9 confirmed established practice.

10

11 *4.3 Struggling along with quality improvement*

12

13 In the third strategy, the nurses struggled along with quality improvement, which was initiated
14 by hospital leaders to achieve quality enhancement and improve treatment and care. Thus, we
15 understood struggling along with quality improvement to be a strategy for coping with
16 requirements in addition to ordinary tasks. Both “on track” and “off track”, this struggling
17 along was competing for the nurses’ attention, engagement and time, above and beyond task
18 juggling and pausing for considering. The nurses’ struggling along with quality improvement
19 was characterized by engaging with ambivalence, battling counter current and seeking the
20 leaders’ recognition.

21

22 *4.3.1 Engaging with ambivalence*

23 We understood engaging with ambivalence to be an expression of the nurses’ conscientious
24 participation in quality improvement work, while also acknowledging the engagement as a
25 threat to losing the workflow or the need to put in extra effort not to lose the workflow.
26 Quality improvement could be put into effect either “on track” or “off track” or both. While
27 “on track”, all nurses had to be engaged in it, because it reflected their daily work with
28 meetings and registrations and carrying out measures. Scientific knowledge as the basis for an
29 evidence-based practice project “on track” could stimulate the nurses to use scientific
30 knowledge indirectly in clinical situations, even if it did not automatically do so.

31

32 In contrast, an “off track” project could be carried out on internal teaching events and other
33 kinds of meetings as well as (sometimes) in the nurses’ spare-time. When working with
34 evidence-based practice projects “off track”, the clinical nurses searched for scientific

1 knowledge in relevant sources and used this knowledge in the work with the projects.
2 Consequently, to a certain extent, they acquired new scientific knowledge, which influenced
3 their thinking, their attention to some issues and their consciousness about where the
4 knowledge comes from. The nurses were proud of their work, and simultaneously, they were
5 frustrated by having to wait for it to get it implemented into practice. For instance, preparing,
6 approving and implementing new evidence-based procedures were time-consuming, and
7 seemingly contributed to few changes in clinical practice.

8

9 *4.3.2 Battling counter current*

10 The nurses were sometimes battling counter current when being involved in quality
11 improvement. This meant that although they wished to contribute to the quality improvement
12 of their clinical practice, this became a battle against existing conditions to go through with
13 the project due to insufficient support. This appeared to be projects that received support from
14 the hospital leadership in the initiation phase, but later became the nurses' responsibility to
15 take the project further. The clinical nurses missed support, such as specific project plans and
16 a shared commitment among the staff group to succeed. "On track", they were on the look-out
17 for time that they never seemed to find. They did not get enough specific time set aside from
18 their leaders to work on a project, nor did the nurses ask for it themselves. They also protected
19 their spare time for seminars and projects because it was difficult for them to get
20 compensation time since they always had to work "on track", every day on duty. Thus, they
21 were trying to work with projects using time they did not have.

22

23 *4.3.3 Seeking the leaders' recognition*

24 Nurses doing their utmost in quality improvement did not necessarily get recognition for it.
25 But, this was something they largely wanted from their leaders. Here, the leaders' recognition
26 meant attention and expressed appreciation to the nurses for their contributions to quality
27 improvement. The nurses experienced this recognition as inadequate and longed for their
28 leaders to see their contributions. Without this recognition, it was harder to keep the
29 motivation up and care about doing a good job. Especially when working on projects "off
30 track", this recognition seemed to be important and less common. The nurses received wider
31 recognition and more regular attention for getting the tasks done during their daily work.

32

33 **5. Discussion**

34

1 In this study, “keeping on track” emerged as the behavioural pattern through which the
2 clinical nurses resolved their main concern: the risk of losing the workflow. “Keeping on
3 track” encompassed three strategies used by the nurses: task juggling, pausing for considering
4 and struggling along with quality improvement. Seen in the light of this grounded theory, we
5 can begin understanding the clinical nurses’ challenges and why it may be difficult to
6 integrate scientific knowledge in practice. The nurses were “keeping on track” to get the work
7 done and doing their best to achieve favourable patient outcomes; they mainly used
8 experience-based knowledge and other established knowledge easily accessible in the ward.
9 The work “on track” was all-consuming for the nurses who all along had to be on the alert,
10 which gave them limited time for other activities. Lack of time is reported among nurses as
11 one of the most common barriers to using scientific knowledge (Chiu et al., 2010; Melnyk et
12 al., 2012; Solomons and Spross, 2011; Yoder et al., 2014), and sufficient time is
13 acknowledged as a promoting factor for integrating evidence in clinical practice (Tan et al.,
14 2012; Yoder et al., 2014). A lack of time included not having time to find or read research and
15 insufficient time to implement evidence-based changes in their current practice (Brown et al.,
16 2010; Chien et al., 2013; Funk et al., 1991; Oranta et al., 2002; Strickland and O’Leary-
17 Kelley, 2009; Tan et al., 2012). As a complement to this conceptualization, in the grounded
18 theory “keeping on track”, the clinical nurses’ lack of time may be understood as a situation
19 tightly connected to a limited capacity to give attention to activities “off track”. The concept
20 of time, connected to capacity, may also be related to Mallion and Brooke’s (2016) summary
21 of how nurses described “sufficient time” as time away from clinical practice, and then
22 emphasized that sufficient time set aside appears to be a simplification and an unlikely
23 solution in current health climate. Based on these perspectives on time, we argue that time set
24 aside, if possible at all, is inadequate to enhance the use of scientific knowledge among
25 clinical nurses.

26
27 The attitude by clinical nurses was that they regarded working “off track” as something
28 additional to their ordinary work, and each nurse, based on his/her own competence,
29 determined the appropriate time to spend on “off track” activities, while not losing the
30 workflow in any given situation. Other research has also highlighted that healthcare
31 practitioners and managers as well experience evidence-based practice as tasks beyond their
32 normal workload (Gray et al., 2013) and believe that a heavy workload reduces the ability to
33 engage in evidence-based practice activities (Majid et al., 2011). It may appear that the
34 assignments to the clinical nurses by the ward leaders were conflicting, with the main task to

1 get the job done within an intended tight framework. Simultaneously, the leadership requested
2 quality improvement and use of scientific knowledge within the same framework. Getting
3 new evidence into practice may depend on contextual integration, an organizational condition
4 described in the Normalization Process Theory (May and Finch, 2009). This means that a new
5 practice has to be incorporated within a social context to be sustained as a new resource for
6 the workers. Otherwise a new practice will add complexity and workload without being
7 integrated with existing practice (May and Finch, 2009). The mechanisms we see in this
8 grounded theory imply that the scientific knowledge to be used by clinical nurses had to be
9 present “on track” and made available in a form that the nurses could utilize in a busy
10 working day. For example, this could be to integrate scientific knowledge through an
11 evidence-based huddle board programme as used in this study or in evidence-based
12 standardized care plans, which new research has shown that nurses may utilize in their
13 everyday practice (Jansson and Forsberg, 2016).

14
15 Support from leaders and administration seems to be important for clinical nurses’ use of
16 research (Gurses et al., 2010; Voldbjerg et al., 2016; Yoder et al., 2014), and lack of system
17 organization and a teamwork structure, as well as work overload, have an inhibiting impact on
18 research use (Cochrane et al., 2007). In line with these results, this study shows that the
19 clinical nurses experienced a lack of support and recognition from their leadership. Thus, we
20 argue that important actions from the leaders would be to continuously and persistently
21 sustain engagement in evidence-based practice by seeing and supporting the nurses in their
22 efforts. Similar actions to promote use of scientific knowledge are suggested in newer
23 research: leaders adapting, supporting and requesting nurses’ use of scientific knowledge in
24 clinical situations (Jansson and Forsberg, 2016) and leaders sustaining commitment and
25 engagement to ensure the long-term survival of an organizational programme (Fleiszer et al.,
26 2015; Aasekjær et al., 2016). Our theory “keeping on track” demonstrates a complexity of
27 nurses’ clinical practice that may help leaders understand which tasks to initiate “on track”
28 and which to carry out “off track”, how to do it and what the consequences may be. While “on
29 track”, the nurses did their best for the patients using experience-based knowledge consisting
30 of knowledge built up from both integrated evidence and practice. They did not build their
31 work on continuously in-flowing new scientific knowledge. Because of the nurses’ concerns
32 of keeping control and getting the patient-related tasks done “on track”, we argue that one
33 cannot expect from each individual nurse to look for, find, assess, and adjust new scientific
34 knowledge. There is a need for a clearly defined work allocation, where leaders and teaching

1 nurses identify the new scientific knowledge and structure it to be useful for the clinical
2 nurses. This could be done through initiating, carrying through and following up on the
3 development of, for example, evidence-based procedures or guidelines “off track” or finding
4 evidence-based guidelines developed by others. Leaders and teaching nurses should facilitate
5 the integration of the new scientific knowledge into the nurses’ work “on track”, ensure that
6 the knowledge is easy accessible for clinical use, and simultaneously teach and support the
7 nurses.

8

9 **6. Limitations of the study**

10

11 The recruiting of participants through theoretical sampling was thoroughly handled, based on
12 the researchers’ knowledge and insight in the field and the cooperation with the leaders in the
13 wards. However, choices were made by the authors, and an emergent analysis can take
14 various forms depending on the researchers involved (Engward and Davis, 2015). The focus
15 groups were planned for up to eight participants, but because of absence due to illness and
16 demanding tasks in the wards, nurses could not leave their duties in the ward. Consequently
17 we missed some registered nurses and specialist nurses in the focus groups.

18

19 An explicit theoretical code has not been consciously chosen. Nevertheless, theoretical codes
20 and code families have been considered during the theory development. According to Glaser a
21 theoretical code is not necessary, but it helps integrate categories and their properties into the
22 theory (Glaser, 2005).

23

24 Although the sample size in the study is adequate in a grounded theory, it is a relatively small
25 sample and limited to the voice of nurses. However, we consider it a strength that
26 observations and focus group interviews were conducted in two different wards located in two
27 different geographical areas. It may be difficult to assess the relevance for other kinds of
28 wards or hospitals. However, we do not consider the wards to be untypical for general wards
29 of this kind. It might be reasonable to assume that wards with more specialist nurses or nurses
30 with a master’s degree may give other results.

31

32 **7. Conclusions**

33

1 The substantive grounded theory “keeping on track” helps us better understand clinical
2 nurses’ experiences with evidence-based practice and particularly their challenges trying to
3 integrate new scientific knowledge into their daily work. The clinical nurses’ major concern
4 was “keeping on track” to minimize losing the workflow in order not to threaten patient care.
5 Thus evidence-based practice was seen as something coming in addition to their ordinary
6 work.

7

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11

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