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3 **An ethnographic study comparing approaches to inter-professional knowledge sharing**
4 **and learning in discharge planning and care transitions**
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10 **Abstract**
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14 Purpose: This paper investigates how three communication interventions commonly used
15 during discharge planning and care transitions enable inter-professional knowledge sharing and
16 learning as a foundation for more integrated working. These interventions include: information
17 communication systems, dedicated discharge planning roles, and group-based planning
18 activities.
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28 Design: A two-year ethnographic study carried out across two regional health and care systems
29 in the English National Health Service, focusing on the discharge of stroke and hip fracture
30 patients. Data collection involved in-depth observations and 213 semi-structured interviews.
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38 Findings: Information systems (e.g. e-records) represent a relatively stable conduit for the
39 routine and standardised forms of syntactic information exchange that can 'bridge' time-space
40 knowledge boundaries. Specialist discharge roles (e.g. discharge coordinators) support
41 personalised and dynamic forms of 'semantic' knowledge sharing that can 'broker' epistemic
42 and cultural boundaries. Group-based activities (e.g. team meetings) provide a basis for more
43 direct 'pragmatic' knowledge translation that can support inter-professional 'bonding' at the
44 cultural and organisational level, but where inclusion factors complicate exchange.
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3 Research Implications: The study offers analysis of how professional boundaries complicate
4 discharge planning and care transition, and the potential for different communication
5 interventions to support knowledge sharing and learning.
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12 Originality: The paper builds upon existing research on inter-professional collaboration and
13 patient safety by focusing on the problems of communication and coordination in the context
14 of discharge planning and care transitions. It suggests that care systems should look to develop
15 multiple complementary approaches to inter-professional communication that offer
16 opportunities for dynamic knowledge sharing and learning.
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28 **Background**

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33 The transition of care from hospital to community is widely regarded as a vulnerable ‘pinch-
34 point’ in the patient journey (Aase et al. 2017). Growing demand for urgent care at the hospital
35 ‘front door’ creates pressure at the ‘backdoor’ to discharge patients; but a lack of integration
36 with community health and social care sectors often makes the timely and safe transition of
37 care difficult to realise (Coleman et al. 2004). In the UK, there has been mounting attention to
38 the breakdowns in care that lead to patients being sent home too early or without the necessary
39 care to support recovery (Healthwatch 2015). International research suggests that as many as
40 twenty percent of patients experience sub-optimal or unsafe care during or after discharge,
41 resulting in prolonged recovery, re-admission and long-term harm (Aase et al. 2017; Coleman
42 et al. 2004; Enderlin et al. 2013; Kansagara et al. 2016; Morris et al. 2018). The safety
43 challenges presented by hospital discharge illustrate the inherent complexities of modern care
44 systems, in which multiple heterogenous professionals are engaged in myriad non-linear
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3 interactions giving rise to unanticipated outcomes (Braithwaite et al. 2018). This calls for
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5 attention to the relationships *between* care settings and providers, but to date, patient safety
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7 research has been predominately concerned with risks located *within* care settings.
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12 Research on hospital discharge consistently shows that ‘breakdowns’ in the communication
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14 and coordination between health and social care professionals can be a threat to quality and
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16 safety (Aase et al. 2017; Coleman and Berenson 2004; Glasby 2000; Kripalani et al 2007;
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18 O’Hara et al. 2018, Hesselink et al. 2012, Waring et al. 2016). Health policies and research
19
20 recommend a variety of interventions to improve the accuracy, timing and effectiveness of
21
22 inter-professional communication, including dedicated information communication
23
24 technologies, checklists, planning roles, and group decision-making activities (Coleman and
25
26 Boulton 2003; Heskestad and Aase 2017; Gittel and Weiss 2004). Although such interventions
27
28 have been subject to various forms of appraisal, few studies have considered the combined or
29
30 aggregate contribution of such communication interventions in the context of more everyday
31
32 ‘shop-floor’ interactions (Prætorius 2018). More significantly, there is limited evidence as to
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34 how such interventions move beyond supporting communication around the discharge of
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36 individual patients, to engendering more sustained inter-professional learning and coordination
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38 that might mitigate the complexity of the care system.
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47 This paper reports on an ethnographic study within the English healthcare system that
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49 analysed and compared the organisation and operation of three widely used interventions to
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51 facilitate inter-professional communication and coordination in discharge planning and care
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53 transition (Gittel and Weiss 2004). These include: information communication technologies,
54
55 discharge coordinator roles, and multi-disciplinary care planning meetings. The study is
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57 framed by two social science perspectives that together improve understanding of how such
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3 interventions can contribute to sustained inter-professional learning and coordination. The
4
5 first perspective highlights the influence of professional boundaries in the social organisation
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7 of health and care services, which are consistently identified as a major complicating factor to
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9 integrated or coordinated working (e.g. Cregard 2018; Nancarrow and Borthwick 2005). The
10
11 second perspective presents the concept of knowledge sharing, which offers an approach to
12
13 thinking about inter-professional communication that considers how the sharing of
14
15 knowledge can lead to more sustained forms of learning and enduring solutions to system
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17 complexity (e.g. Currie et al. 2007). Drawing together these perspectives, the study examines
18
19 how different approaches to discharge planning support (or hinder) inter-professional
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21 knowledge sharing and whether this leads to more enduring patterns of mutual learning and
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23 coordination (author).
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35 **Professional Boundaries and Hospital Discharge**

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40 The social organisation of health and care systems is characterised by well-developed
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42 professional boundaries, such as between doctors, nurses, occupational therapists and social
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44 workers (Apesoa-Varano 2013; Martin et al. 2007; Nancarrow and Borthwick 2005). Lamont
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46 and Molnar (2002) suggest ‘symbolic’ boundaries are conceptual distinctions used by social
47
48 groups to differentiate people, places and practices, and that particular resources and strategies
49
50 are used to create, maintain and contest these boundaries – or boundary work (Gieryn 1983).
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52 Following Abbott (1988), professions can be interpreted as occupations that have successfully
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54 established a specialist jurisdiction or boundary within the eco-system of expert labour. These
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56 jurisdictions demarcate exclusive areas of work, usually premised on an occupation’s perceived
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3 legitimacy over the diagnosis and remedy certain problems based upon their expert knowledge.
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5 Professional boundaries are not fixed or impermeable, rather they are the sites for negotiation
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7 and conflict as occupations 'work out' their functional relationships on a day-by-day basis
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10 (Allen 1997, 2000). The study of professional boundaries, in health care and beyond,
11
12 foregrounds questions of social power and influence (Abbott 1988).
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17 Professional boundaries are consistently shown to influence, even inhibit, inter-professional
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19 working in health and care services (Korner et al, 2016; Liberati et al. 2016). The influence of
20
21 professional boundaries can be seen, for example, in the way health care services have
22
23 traditionally been organised around professional specialities, with episodes of care provided
24
25 within one jurisdiction before being transferred to another (Lewis 2001). Within the hospital
26
27 this is exemplified by the persistence of hospital departments and wards aligned with (usually)
28
29 medical jurisdictions. Cregard (2018) shows how the relationship between inter-professional
30
31 coordination and boundaries can be complex. For example, 'closed' boundaries do not always
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33 result in an absence of coordination, rather more inefficient interactions; whilst 'open'
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35 boundaries do not necessarily promote coordination, especially if power inequalities exist
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38 across boundaries.
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45 Over the last two decades, policies to introduce more integrated and patient-centred services
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47 have, in various ways, sought to re-draw professional boundaries through the re-allocation of
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49 specialist tasks and the promotion of inter-professional teamwork (Glasby 2017). Nancarrow
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51 and Borthwick (2005) describe how such reforms have led high-status professions to become
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53 increasingly specialised around narrower silos of expertise, with the delegation of less
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55 specialised tasks to lower status occupations who are expected to work in more complementary
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57 or blurred ways. Research further shows that boundary changes are often difficult, especially
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3 where professionals resist changes that are perceived as threatening their jurisdiction (Martin
4 et al. 2009). As such, the effects of managerial attempts to diminish professional boundaries
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6 are far from uniform, and the underlying dynamics of professional status and power continues
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8 to shape the social organisation of care.
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14 Of relevance to our study, professional boundaries are shown to have complicating effects on
15 inter-professional communication and coordination during discharge planning and care
16 transitions (Glasby 2000). These are manifest in multiple, overlapping ways. The boundaries
17 between hospital clinicians, e.g. doctors, nurses and therapists, can influence decision-making
18 when determining a patient's readiness for discharge and continuing care needs (Waring et al.
19 2015). The boundaries between hospital clinicians and community-based care providers, e.g.
20 general practitioners, community nurses and social workers, can influence the formulation and
21 delivery of care plans before, during and after the point of transition (Kripalani et al. 2007).
22 And the boundaries between community-based health and social care providers can influence
23 the continuity of care when returned to the community setting (Glasby 2000). In their analysis
24 of these inter-professional interactions, Waring et al. (2013) elaborate these professional
25 boundaries in four overlapping ways. The first relates to 'epistemic' boundaries that demarcate
26 distinct areas of expertise around which professional jurisdictions are organised. The second
27 relates to 'cultural' boundaries within which shared beliefs, values, and norms provide a basis
28 of group identification and coherence. The third relates to 'organising' boundaries or the shared
29 and customary ways of configuring, resources and coordinating work. And the fourth relates
30 to 'political' boundaries, or the divergent interests and agenda that implicitly shape the
31 organisation and culture of professional practice, and are seen in the relative status, influence
32 or power of professions. In the context of hospital discharge, Waring et al. (2013) suggest that
33 the mismatch between health and social care professionals can be explained, in part, by the
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3 boundaries between how professional know the patient, value professional input, organise day-
4 to-day care, and seek to influence the work of others.
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10 Policies to improve inter-professional working during discharge planning and care transition
11 often focus on the importance of improving inter-professional communication and
12 coordination (Audit Commission 2000; Healthwatch 2015). This has involved the development
13 of various communication interventions that, according to Gittell and Weiss (2004), can be
14 summarised along four lines: i) standardised procedures and checklists that structure the
15 content of communication (Coleman and Boulton 2003; Parry et al. 2003); ii) group meetings that
16 enable communication and shared decision-making (Heskestad and Aase 2017); iii)
17 information systems that enable the standardised collection and communication of information,
18 from more commonplace forms of note-taking and telephones, to dedicated computer systems
19 such as email (Gittell and Weiss 2004); and iv) boundary spanning roles that work within and
20 between boundaries to facilitate communication and coordination (Williams 2002). In different
21 ways, such interventions address the communication problems typically encountered during
22 hospital discharge by enabling the collection, transfer and application of information located
23 within different professional silos. As an illustrative comparison, discharge checklists gather
24 standardised information from within the hospital setting about the patient's condition and
25 proposed care plans to support the continuity of care in the community; whereas discharge
26 coordinators are tasked with supporting the development of individualised care plans by
27 communicating with and coordinating the involvement of multiple care professionals.
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54 It is noteworthy, however, that the promotion of such interventions in research and policy are
55 premised on a technical-functional view of service organisation and rarely gives detailed
56 consideration to the character of professional boundaries that complicate hospital discharge.
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3 There is limited appreciation, for example, of the relationships between expertise, jurisdiction
4 and status; and how these complicate the willingness of professionals to communicate and
5 coordinate across boundaries. Returning to Abbott (1988), this problem can be seen as rooted
6 in the way professional jurisdictions are premised on claims to exclusive expertise, and where
7 the sharing of specialist information with ‘outsiders’ might threaten professional jurisdiction.
8 This phenomenon can be seen with the introduction of quality improvement interventions
9 where professional boundaries are shown to stymie knowledge sharing and in term inhibit
10 learning and innovation (Author; Powell and Davies 2012). Reflecting further on the
11 experiences of quality improvement, the failure to give more thorough consideration to the
12 character of professional boundaries, and the types of knowledge that professionals might share
13 across these boundaries, also means that policies do not fully consider the potential for such
14 interventions to contribute to more sustained forms of inter-professional learning and
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35 In developing this view, we make a number of preliminary distinctions. The first is between
36 the concepts of ‘communication’ and ‘knowledge sharing’. Where the former might be seen as
37 concerned with the dissemination or exchange of ‘information’ around a given task or activity,
38 the latter is concerned with the exchange, use and assimilation of more situated ‘know-how’ as
39 a basis of mutual learning and innovation. Following this, the second distinction recognises a
40 difference between more explicit or ‘codified’ information and more implicit or tacit ‘know-
41 how’ (Polanyi 2009). Although both forms of knowledge are integral to day-to-day working,
42 learning and innovation is more often associated with the sharing of taken-for-granted
43 meanings, assumptions and beliefs in the course of situated interaction (Nicolini 2013).
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3 The relationship between knowledge, boundaries, and learning is elaborated in Carlile's (2004)
4 work on knowledge transfer and innovation. This recognises that the knowledge boundaries
5 between organisations and occupations can be understood in terms of their 'difference' and
6 'dependencies'. 'Difference' relates to both the different forms of, and needs for, knowledge a
7 particular group holds, such as the extent of expertise around a given problem; whilst the latter
8 relates to the extent to which the knowledge of another group is needed to address a given
9 problem. He suggests that where the differences between groups are relatively small, and the
10 dependencies are agreed upon, the more knowledge exchange can be standardised through
11 forms of 'syntactic' knowledge 'transfer' involving, for example, a common language or share
12 information systems. These enable the relatively seamless flow of explicit information across
13 boundaries. Where the differences are more significant around changeable dependencies, there
14 is need for 'semantic' meanings, beliefs and taken-for-granted assumptions to be 'translated'
15 across knowledge boundaries. This often involves actors who 'broker' or mediate between
16 communities to develop and share insight and understanding of the cultures of other social
17 groups. Where the differences and dependencies between groups are shaped by divergent
18 political interests that impede knowledge exchange, then it becomes important to foster more
19 pragmatic knowledge exchange through transforming or blurring divergent interests into a
20 common agenda and interests around a shared problem. This transformation is situated in the
21 integrative and negotiated practices of actors as they work through their differences leading to
22 shared cultures, ways of working and political priorities.
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51 These ideas offer a framework for analysing how different communication interventions not
52 only support discharge planning and care transition around individual patients, but also
53 engender more substantial forms of inter-professional knowledge sharing and learning as a
54 basis of coordination working. Following Carlile (2004), for example, it might be anticipated
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3 that certain interventions might lend themselves to more syntactic boundaries, whereas others
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5 offer scope for more pragmatic transformation. What is less understood, however, is the
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7 interplay between these different interventions and how they might combine to offer a basis of
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9 knowledge sharing and learning across professional boundaries.
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17 **Study Method**

21 Study settings and communication interventions

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24 The research was carried out in two ‘care systems’ within the English National Health Service.
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26 The term ‘care system’ describes the configuration of health and social care services within a
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28 locality (county or metropolitan area), including primary, secondary and community health
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30 services, and corresponding social care services, including statutory agencies, private providers
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32 or third sector. Attention to the care ‘system’ (rather than hospital) was necessary to understand
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34 how discharge planning and care transition is realised across these settings involving multiple
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36 professional groups. Two care systems were selected to allow for in-depth and comparative
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38 data collection, including differences in number, size and profile of hospitals and configuration
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40 of community health and social care (Table 1). Within these systems, the research focused on
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42 the discharge of orthopaedic hip fracture and stroke patients. These were selected on the basis
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44 of being a major source of demand and complexity because they tend to be older patients with
45
46 multi-morbidities and complex health and social care needs. It is recognised that significant
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48 changes have occurred in the organisation of hyper-acute stroke care, including the
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50 development of regional specialist centres (Morris et al. 2014). It might be expected these
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52 changes will also alter the organisation of stroke discharge, although many important factors
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3 affecting discharge are located outside the specialist hospital, dispersed across the wider
4 system, and hence might still be influencing care services.
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14 Our ethnographic study found that the orthopaedic and stroke services within these two care
15 systems used a variety of common communication tools and interventions to support discharge
16 planning and care transitions. In the preliminary stages of data analysis, we categorised these
17 interventions following Gittell and Weiss (2004): i) information communication technologies;
18 ii) dedicated roles; and iii) group activities. What was more significant was the variable use of
19 these interventions across the two care systems and clinical services areas (Table 2). These
20 variations reflected local contextual factors, such as management priorities, staffing
21 requirements and historical patterns of health and social care integration. For the purpose of
22 this study, such variations allowed for comparative case analysis of the relative contributions
23 of each intervention type as well as the aggregate contribution in different combinations. As
24 our ethnographic study progressed, we focused on-going data collection and analysis on how
25 these interventions, especially in combination, allow for inter-professional knowledge sharing
26 and learning.
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54 Design and Data Collection 55

56 The data reported in this article were collected as part of an ethnographic study of the social
57 organisation of hospital discharge. The primary focus of this ethnographic study was the
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3 influence of professional boundaries on discharge processes. Through the preliminary stages
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5 of data collection, our focus narrowed onto a number of empirically induced issues, one of
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7 which was to understand the relative contribution of different interventions to inter-
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9 professional knowledge sharing and learning. A range of other themes were developed from
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11 the extensive body of empirical data which are not reported in this paper (authors).
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17 The ethnographic study was carried out over 24 months from mid-2011 to mid-2013 with data
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19 collection carried out in each hospital setting for 7 months with a further 3 months in the
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21 corresponding community setting. Observations aimed to understand how discharge planning
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23 and care transition occurred over time and in different care settings. Observations commenced
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25 in the stroke and orthopaedic wards of each hospital (for about 3-4 months) where it was found
26
27 that elements of early discharge planning started at the point of admission, but more detailed
28
29 and focused activities occurred after the patient was regarded as stable and well enough to
30
31 return home. Following the broad pathway, our observations moved from the hospital setting
32
33 to the community, including community hospitals, rehabilitation centres, care home and
34
35 patients' homes. The fieldwork strategy aimed to progressively deepen understanding of
36
37 discharge processes through: i) observations of everyday care activities to 'map-out' discharge
38
39 planning in each ward setting; ii) focused observations of key tasks, interactions and situations
40
41 identified as integral to the discharge process; iii) shadowing of key individuals involved in
42
43 discharge processes; and iv) following the discharge of individual patients. As part of these
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45 observations, many in-situ conversation-style interviews took place with healthcare
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47 professionals, patients and relatives to clarify observations. Three of the authors carried out the
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49 field work each recorded their observations and interpretations in hand-written journals, with
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51 electronic summary reports typed-up and shared with all researchers to inform on-going
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53 reflection and analysis.
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8 Semi-structured interviews were carried out with 213 individuals across the study sites, and a
9
10 small number of individuals (5-10) participated in follow-up interviews to clarify our findings.
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12 Participants were identified on the basis of observed involvement in hospital discharge, and
13
14 were usually recruited to interview whilst researchers were carrying out ethnographic
15
16 observations, or through working with service leaders to identify staff group representatives.
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18 Selection sought to achieve representation and diversity across occupational groups (Table 2).
19
20 In addition, seven focus groups were carried out with staff representatives not involved in
21
22 interview: including community rehabilitation nurses (n12), stroke therapists (n11),
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24 orthopaedic nurses (n6), stroke nurses (n15), GP and primary care commissioners (n7, n4); and
25
26 Ambulance Service representatives (n3).
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35 Interviews were broadly structured to explore participants' understandings of discharge
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37 planning and care transition. We did not use a standardised interview topic guide with all
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39 participants, rather the focus of interview questions were altered over time in light of emerging
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41 findings, and varied according to the particular individual being interviewed. For example,
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43 earlier interviews with hospital doctors explored slightly different issues than later interviews
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45 with community social care providers. The common interview topics included: career
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47 background and role; experiences and perceptions of discharge process; understanding of
48
49 communication and coordinating issues in discharge process; views about the risks and
50
51 problems associated with discharge; and also, views about the relative contribution of different
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53 discharge interventions. Interviews and focus groups ranged in length from 30 to 90 minutes.
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3 All interview participants gave written consent to be interviewed, and all interviews were
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5 recorded and transcribed verbatim.
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19 The study received favourable ethical opinion through standard NHS research governance
20 procedures. Information booklets, posters and staff briefing sessions were provided at all study
21 sites prior to data collection. In advanced of carrying out observations in different
22 organisational settings, e.g. in meetings or on wards, verbal consent was sought from those
23 present. Where data collection involved direct observations of individual or group interactions,
24 and where individuals were involved in interviews, additional written informed consent was
25 provided.
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37 Data Analysis 38

39 Data analysis followed in the ethnographic tradition of developing rich empirical descriptions
40 and inductive interpretations of social processes (Fetterman 1990). Taking a grounded
41 approach, we started analysis from the point of commencing data collection, including
42 individual and group reflections of emerging findings and themes; identification and selection
43 of observations and interview participants based on on-going analysis; and continuous
44 processes of coding and categorisation (Corbin and Strauss 1990). As noted above, our initial
45 focus was on the broad social organisation of hospital discharge, but through the early stages
46 of data analysis we focused our enquiries including attention to the contribution of different
47 interventions to support inter-professional communication. At this stage, the research literature
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3 on communication interventions and knowledge boundaries was reviewed (e.g. Carlile 2004;
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5 Gittell and Weiss 2004) to sensitise our on-going data collection.
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10 In practical terms, interpretative qualitative data analysis was undertaken to develop descriptive
11 accounts and interpretations of discharge planning and care transition (Corbin and Strauss
12 1990). This involved an iterative process of open coding, constant comparison, elaboration of
13 themes and re-engaging with wider literature. All authors were responsible for preliminary
14 coding using the computer package nVivo (v.10), with weekly meetings to discuss individual
15 reflections and review the consistency of coding. Inductive analysis developed descriptive
16 accounts of discharge processes, attending to the configuration and contribution of different
17 interventions (Gittell and Weiss 2004). In reviewing and extending our inductive categories
18 and themes, we further engaged with Carlile's (2004) framework to help us make sense of
19 explain the relatively contribution of each intervention to discharge process. In particular, data
20 analysis focused on how different approaches to discharge planning support inter-professional
21 knowledge sharing and learning. This included analysis of the cumulative benefits of different
22 approaches to discharge planning.
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45 **Findings**

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49 Although the preliminary aspects of discharge planning can commence at the point of
50 admission to hospital, our observations found that the main work of discharge tended to occur
51 across five common stages later in the care pathway: i) determining readiness for discharge,
52 including completion of hospital care prior to discharge; ii) assessing and planning on-going
53 post-discharge care; iii) determining the settings and resources for post-discharge care; iv)
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3 managing care transition and re-settlement; and v) initiating on-going care and rehabilitation
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5 in the community. Our observations found that three common types of intervention were used
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7 to facilitate inter-professional communication and coordination across these stages (Table 2).
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17 A large number of information communication technologies were used routinely across the
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19 patient pathway, with many having an important role in discharge planning and care transition.
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21 We use the term information communication technology to refer to any form of technology
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23 involved in the communication of information. This ranged from paper and pen to digital
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25 computer technologies, and as elaborated below, these tended to focus on the exchange of
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27 explicit forms of information. These technologies ranged in purpose, from care management
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29 and coordination (main patient record) to specific technologies used to support discharge
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31 planning (discharge progress checklists). They varied in form, from paper-based records and
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33 notes, to electronic communication systems, such as an e-discharge communication system.
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35 Many participants noted the rapid growth in digital technologies that added to, rather than
36
37 replaced older systems, and contributed to more complex patterns of communication, often to
38
39 the detriment of direct patient communication. Many established record systems were tailored
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41 to the needs of individual professionals, for example occupational therapists kept a dedicated
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43 record to support discharge planning, with inter-professional communication often involving
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45 ‘reading-off’ paper records during group meetings. Of note, two wards used a ‘Shared
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47 Discharge Record’ that collated multiple sources of information related to discharge planning
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49 and on-going care, parts of which were shared with external agencies at the point of discharge.
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51 In addition, each study site used a variety of other specialist systems for specific tasks within
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53 the discharge process, such as social work referral notifications, ordering ‘To Take Out’
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3 medicines (TTOs) or transportation booking systems. It was also found that telephones and fax
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5 machines continued to have a significant role in supporting communication where new digital
6
7 systems were not established.
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11
12 In different ways, all of these technologies supported information communication (but not
13
14 necessarily knowledge sharing) during hospital discharge. All enabled the recording and
15
16 sharing of primarily codified information, usually directed by template forms and standardised
17
18 questions. Electronic systems were increasingly adopted with the declared intent of improving
19
20 accuracy and ease of information capture and exchange. In a number of instances, the use of
21
22 electronic communications systems was supported through preliminary or parallel use of
23
24 paper-based records or verbal communications, for example the electronic ordering of TTOs
25
26 would often first be recorded by hand in the patient record, or ordering home adaptations through
27
28 an online booking systems regularly required telephone conversations to query items. As such,
29
30 electronic technologies did not offer the panacea many assumed.
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38 “We still use fax. Can you believe it. Fax. Mostly when sending referrals to social
39
40 services. It seems too old fashioned” [Ward Clerk, S2, Orthopaedic]
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43
44 “I still pick up the phone and call through the referral centre. Its rare to actually speak
45
46 to a social worker but at least you get to log the referral with someone before you then
47
48 send through the forms” [Nurse, S1, Stroke]
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54 The multiplicity of technological systems not only necessitated duplication of recording due to
55
56 a lack of inter-operability, but also problems of coordination between systems that needed
57
58 additional work to be resolved during day-to-day practice. For example, communication with
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3 care homes, GPs and equipment supplies would typically require three separate IT systems,
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5 with additional information exchange via email or telephone conversations. As such,
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7 professionals needed to work-out which systems to use on a case-by-case basis, with little
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9 indication of common solutions being developed
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15 “it’s electronic now, all on the system and the idea is that for all of the GPs in the area
16
17 *will be* [emphasis added] connected to the discharge summary.” [Ward Clerk, S2
18
19 Stroke]
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21

22
23 “There isn’t a simple answer. There are just too many agencies out there, and each has
24
25 their own system, and you have to know what they each need, and when they need it”
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27 [Nurse, S2, Orthopaedic]
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33 In contrast, paper-based records seemed to act as a more dynamic and evolving record that
34
35 appeared to be ‘owned’ by a professional group or team. These had more material and tangible
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37 qualities that could both exchange explicit information, but also act as a medium for inter-
38
39 professional dialogue whether at the patient’s bedside or in meetings. Such mediated inter-
40
41 professional exchange was difficult through remote electronic systems, i.e. professionals would
42
43 refer to and discuss written records during shared decision-making. In team meetings, for
44
45 example, patient records and discharge tools acted as an organising device for discussion and
46
47 decision-making where clinicians would question the meaning or implications of information
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49 leading to more layered inter-professional exchange.
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3 “It might seem antiquated but with a patient file you can pick it up and give it to
4 someone...when everything fails you can put the summary on the trolley with the
5 patient as they get wheeled out” [Nurse, S2, Orthopaedic]
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10 11 12 13 14 15 Roles

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19 A number of dedicated professional roles supported discharge planning, including
20 Discharge/Care Coordinators, Community In-reach workers, and Discharge Liaison Teams. In
21 different ways, these took responsibility for: i) determining and allocating care needs before
22 and after discharge; ii) sequencing and coordinating tasks for care transition, such as
23 outstanding tests; iii) facilitating communication across hospital and community teams; iv)
24 working with external agencies to arrange on-going care, e.g. social work; and v) managing
25 documentation and care plans. Other professionals fulfilled similar functions, but these tended
26 to be more narrowly task-based when compared with these coordinating roles, i.e. social
27 workers would lead on social care assessments.
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42 Discharge Coordinators had the most active role in discharge planning, working with clinicians
43 on the hospital ward to support progression towards discharge and liaising with community
44 services to plan for on-going care. In one study site, a Discharge Liaison Team had a similar
45 role, but was reserved for patients with especially complex needs or personal circumstances.
46 Community in-reach workers fulfilled similar planning roles, but with greater emphasis on
47 supporting the continuity of care once transferred to the community. These were employed by
48 community health providers to work on the hospital wards to pre-plan and initiate care prior to
49 discharge.
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6 These boundary spanning roles (Williams 2002) were involved in high levels of multi-directed
7 knowledge sharing across semantic and pragmatic boundaries (Carlile 2004). This involved: i)
8 gathering knowledge from different specialists; ii) translating knowledge into a form relevant
9 to others; iii) sharing knowledge with others at the right time; and iv) helping others to integrate
10 knowledge into their own practice. This included codified patient information, such translating
11 test results for non-specialist audiences, and more tacit assumptions about, for instance,
12 scheduling discharge in the context of resource constraints.
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24 “The discharge co-ordinator will know exactly where [patients] are in that process....
25 And okay it doesn’t change where [the patient] is but at least we know where it is in
26 the process and that doesn’t always happen when you haven’t got a discharge co-
27 ordinator... because their whole job is to try and push the patients through, clearly they
28 have to move or they aren’t in that process. [Medical, S1 Orthopaedic]
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39 “And I think one of my main contacts is the discharge specialist sister, she tends to sort
40 out any issues that I’ve got. I’ve developed quite a relationship with her, so she’ll often
41 help me out”. [Community Nurse, S2 Stroke]
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48 These coordinators and in-reach workers had many personal contacts across professional
49 boundaries that enabled them to better appreciate the different working routines whilst enabling
50 to develop a strong sense of reciprocity and mutuality. This could be seen, for example, when
51 working with Social Workers to discuss discharge arrangements, or with Occupational
52 Therapists to plan on-going rehabilitation. In such instances, their personal connections and
53 detailed understanding of specialist roles and routines enhanced the flow of more tacit know-
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3 how, fostering shared understanding at key contact points across the care system. This included
4
5 ‘soft intelligence’ (Martin et al. 2015) about the current state of community services that might
6
7 not be officially documented. They also mediated interactions between health and social care
8
9 professionals during times of disagreement, and more commonly acted as problem-solvers
10
11 when navigating the idiosyncrasies of the care system. Through working across professional
12
13 boundaries role-holders acquired a form of ‘architectural’ knowledge of the care system, i.e.
14
15 how the various services should (or could be made to) fit together to facilitate discharge.
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24 Group Activities

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28 The organisation of patient care involves many inter-professional group activities, three of
29
30 which provided the main sites for discharge planning: i) daily ward rounds; ii) daily board
31
32 rounds; and iii) weekly multi-disciplinary team (MDT) meetings. These activities varied in
33
34 purpose, scheduling, number and variety of participants, and patterns of communication; all of
35
36 which shaped the opportunities for and quality of knowledge sharing.
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43 Ward rounds were used to review and allocate daily tasks to progress patient care. These were
44
45 led by the medical team and organised around the patient bedside, with tasks usually allocated
46
47 to junior doctors and nursing staff. A key decision-making issue was whether the patient was
48
49 (or remained) medically ‘fit’ for discharge, with a primary focus on their physical condition
50
51 and recovery from the perspective of the medical team. Communication focused on the clinical
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53 tasks needed to progress the patient towards discharge, often taking the form of ‘question-and-
54
55 answer’ interactions between medical staff and patients, junior doctors or nurses. These
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3 interactions involve the syntactic and semantic knowledge exchange, from codified test results
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5 to professional reflection, with a view to addressing short term care plans.
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10 The doctors do the ward round. The doctors will then say, 'Well as far as we're
11 concerned, this patient is medically fit'. If OT and physio and speech and language are
12 happy, then they can be discharged. Then it's our job to find out from them and then if
13 there's a problem, then we take it from there". [Sister, S1 Stroke]
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22 In three sites, Board Rounds were organised away from the patient bedside as a more detailed
23 review of daily care and discharge planning. These involved a comprehensive review of the
24 outstanding care needs of all admitted patients, usually led by a senior ward nurse with
25 representatives of other ward-based professionals, e.g. dieticians, occupational therapists and
26 junior doctors. These usually followed-up on the decisions reached during the medical ward
27 round, but with more attention to the broader and outstanding care needs for each patient. In
28 practice, inter-professional communication was mediated via a whiteboard on which core
29 patient information was recorded together with a list of outstanding tasks and an 'estimated
30 date of discharge'. Although focused on daily care planning, board rounds took a slightly
31 longer-term view of care planning. Significant, was the frequent involvement of ward managers
32 in Board Rounds who tended to emphasise the need to prioritise and expedite discharge to
33 'free-up beds'. The pressure to progress discharge and move-on patients appear to encourage
34 professionals to hurry discharge processes; compressing the time for problem-centred
35 knowledge sharing and collaboration amongst different professional groups.
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56 "...it's about seeing who's appropriate to maybe go home from the unit. It might be
57 that day, we might think in a couple of days time they can go home, so it's about
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3 screening.... So once we've prioritised it's then going through an assessment, which
4
5 for some patients can be very quick and very straightforward, you can get to grips with
6
7 them quite quickly". [OT, S2 Stroke]
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12 "The board round give us a snapshot of who is coming in and who can go out. It helps
13
14 with focusing attention and getting the care plans moving" [Manager, S1, Stroke]
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19 Like ward rounds, knowledge sharing took both explicit and implicit forms, but with more
20
21 active involvement and more open discussion about how inter-connected tasks can be
22
23 scheduled. Where open discussion was encouraged by senior staff it seemed to support a
24
25 common *ward-based* understanding of discharge processes, for example, where ward nurses
26
27 made additional time for occupational therapists to work with patients, or where dietician
28
29 scheduled their work to coincide with family visitors to allow relatives to understand
30
31 on-going care needs. Where Board Rounds were not used, or where they were tightly controlled
32
33 to manage bed-flow, knowledge sharing was more task-focused with less scope to allow for
34
35 mutual coordination and learning. Due to the time at which both ward and board rounds were
36
37 scheduled, it was rare for community-based professionals to attend, and therefore aspects of
38
39 on-going care were rarely discussed.
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47 All research sites utilised weekly multi-disciplinary team meetings (MDTs) to review
48
49 individual care plans. Given the length of time from admission to discharge, most were
50
51 reviewed at least two MDTs. The decision to initiate discharge planning was usually reached
52
53 or confirmed here. In three sites, a core group of hospital professionals, including
54
55 representatives of the medical team, ward nurses, occupational- and physio- therapists,
56
57 dieticians, speech and language therapists, and ward-based pharmacists participated in the
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3 MDTs. The focus of the meetings was not exclusively discharge planning, rather overall case
4
5 management, but discharge remained a priority from the point of admission. In two sites, social
6
7 work and community nursing representatives were actively invited to attend weekly meetings
8
9
10 to inform on-going care planning.
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14 MDTs provided an opportunity for knowledge sharing that not only enabled care planning
15
16 based on sharing of specialist knowledge, but also a platform for more collaborative working
17
18 based upon professionals acquiring a better understanding of the contribution of others in the
19
20 organisation of care. Although the MDTs had common features, each had local routines and
21
22 recording practices. It was common, for example, that during the MDTs each professional
23
24 representative offered specialist insight into patient care needs, which contributed to the
25
26 specification of medium-term and longer-term care planning. The open exchange of
27
28 information seemed especially useful for social work representatives who could better
29
30 understand the workflow and demands on the wards, whilst also sharing information about
31
32 resource availability in the community. This could lead to the decision, for example to extend
33
34 ward-based rehabilitation because of limited services in the community.
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43 “I think between us we’ve got a broad enough experience of complex discharge to
44
45 actually know what we’re doing and it’s very rare we sort of come up against
46
47 something. So we all head-scratch and what have you. And then again within the MDT
48
49 as well try and discuss anything and brainstorm it and take it from there”. [Nurse, S1,
50
51 Stroke]
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57 “I’ve learned so much about medication and continence things that I didn’t realise
58
59 before. So it’s you know, you can take that with you and think a little bit more about
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3 discharges. And just when you think of a discharge, when I was doing discharges
4
5 before you would look at the OT bits whereas now, I look at things holistically”.

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8 [Physio S1, Orthopaedic]
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13 In one site (S2, Orthopaedic) MDTs were primarily focused on medical and nursing care, and
14
15 other professional representatives rarely attended or participated in decision-making. It was
16
17 further observed that these MDTs rarely considered discharge planning being concerned
18
19 instead with pre- and post-surgical care. It was expected that discharge would be managed
20
21 during day-to-day ward care, and not in group meetings. This limited opportunities for
22
23 overarching care planning with ward staff working towards care plans that varied on a daily or
24
25 shift basis.
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31 “To be honest the surgical teams don’t get hugely involved with discharge. All they
32
33 will do is what they think is necessary following surgery and the patient is generally fit.
34
35 They’ll just say discharge planning and then they don’t get too involved.” [Medical, S2
36
37 orthopaedic]
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44 “We don’t get involved in the weekly MDT, we usually have to wait to hear from the
45
46 nurse-in-charge, or try and work out the care plan through reviewing the records” [OT,
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48 S2, orthopaedic]
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56 Discussion

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3 The technologies, roles and group activities observed in our ethnographic study are widespread
4 features to most developed care systems and have, individually, been the subject of previous
5 research. However, few studies have compared or examined the interaction of these
6 approaches, nor their contributions to inter-professional knowledge sharing and learning. Our
7 findings suggest each affords opportunities for knowledge sharing and learning, but often with
8 limits. It also suggests that the cumulative effect of these approaches, where appropriately
9 aligned might best support discharge planning and care transition.
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21 Information systems represent a relatively stable and routine conduit for information exchange
22 across syntactic professional boundaries (Carlile 2004). Across all sites they took various forms,
23 from pens and paper to specific online software, and were broadly characterised by the
24 recording, storage and transfer of explicit or codified information, often in the form of
25 prescribed reporting standards developed with reference to the work of professional groups
26 working in a given care setting, e.g. on the ward or in the community. They also ranged in
27 application from being broad information resources for general care planning to facilitating
28 specific tasks within the processes of hospital discharge, e.g. ordering home adaptations. In many
29 instances these technological systems often seemed to be concerned with spanning particular
30 spatial and temporary boundaries, in that they enable indirect or impersonal knowledge
31 exchange mediated through third-party technologies. These systems might be interpreted as
32 more rigid or fixed 'bridges' between professional communities that enable the relatively
33 seamless and streamlines flow of standardised information between disconnected
34 communities.
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56 As a medium for exchanging information across syntactic boundaries there is arguably an
57 assumption that those using these technologies share some common language or lexicon around
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3 the processes and goal of discharge planning. It was observed, however, that in many instances
4
5 those using these technologies did not share this common language, and struggled with
6
7 technological competence, necessitating the use of parallel or additional communication
8
9 channels. In particular, the emergence of novel conditions could result in an existing
10
11 technological systems no longer being sufficient to process information at the boundary. This
12
13 could be seen when actors become involved in care planning who were unconnected to the
14
15 established NHS technological systems or 'bridges', such as care homes. More significant,
16
17 however, because such systems are largely concerned with the collection and transfer of
18
19 explicit information they are limited in their capacity to engender semantic or pragmatic
20
21 knowledge transfer. As Cook and Brown (1999) note, explicit knowledge alone cannot support
22
23 all the required epistemic work for the creation of new knowledge. Thus, information systems
24
25 in isolation offer little opportunity for knowledge sharing and mutual learning and perform, at
26
27 best, as an underlying basis for information exchange. It is noteworthy that such systems
28
29 require significant resource and time investment in set-up and administration and result in
30
31 multiple instances of duplication and additional work. As suggested above, when new ICT are
32
33 poorly coordinated or embedded with the realities of the workplace they do not offer the
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35 communication revolution so many policies assume.
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45 In contrast, discharge coordinators and in-reach workers represent a more dynamic approach
46
47 to knowledge sharing during hospital discharge. These roles operated both within and across
48
49 professional boundaries, and importantly, supported the transfer of tacit know-how amongst
50
51 diverse communities based upon their direct or first-hand experience of working within and
52
53 across the distinct epistemic, cultural and organisational boundaries (Waring et al. 2013).
54
55 Within the wider social science literature, these roles might be interpreted as 'boundary
56
57 spanners' (Williams 2002) because of their ability to work across and understand the
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3 differences and similarities between professional communities. In particular, they acted as
4
5 knowledge brokers (Meyer 2010, Ward et al. 2012), using their exposure to different
6
7 professional communities to understand, interpret and translate the tacit know-how of one
8
9 group, and through the processes of translation and communication they enable other groups
10
11 to better understand and accommodate this knowledge in their own distinct practices. As such,
12
13 they had a key role in supporting knowledge translation across the semantic boundaries (Carlile
14
15 2004), especially in the processes of problem-solving. Although discharge coordinators often
16
17 presented themselves as focusing on the care plans of individual patients, their contribution to
18
19 hospital discharge was found in their potential to enhance broader patterns of inter-professional
20
21 communication through facilitating knowledge sharing and mutual learning. In part, this was
22
23 enabled by these actors having acquired a developed 'architectural' understanding of the local
24
25 care system, including how 'component' specialists could be better coordinated (Currie and
26
27 White 2012; Henderson and Clark 1990). These qualities suggest that, unlike 'bridging'
28
29 information systems, role-based brokers illustrate a more dynamic 'broker' or 'boat' that has
30
31 both multiple entry and exit points into different communities, and is capable of bring together
32
33 different specialist around a specific issue.
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42 Such roles were not without complications or risk. Comparison of these role-holders in the
43
44 different study sites suggests that their individual social position and social capital can
45
46 influence how these roles are enacted. This often focused on the relative experience and
47
48 standing of the role-holder, not only within their own profession, but with those other groups
49
50 they interact with; which appeared to determine the extent of 'access' and 'exposure' to the
51
52 knowledge, culture and working practices of these other groups (Currie and White 2012).
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54 Furthermore, over-reliance upon these role-holders could reduce the need for other professional
55
56 actors to develop similar connections and expertise in discharge planning, potentially leading
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3 to a form of learned helplessness. This risk is potentially compounded by the possibility that
4
5 where these roles are discontinued, or when a broker is absent, the main conduits of knowledge
6
7 sharing are lost, including the detailed architectural understanding of how the care system
8
9 works. As such, efforts might be made to share the expertise or delegate the part of their work
10
11 to other actors within the care system. A further point for discussion is the important interplay
12
13 between these discharge coordinators and information systems. In a number of the study sites,
14
15 key technologies, such as shared records, were administered by the local discharge
16
17 coordinators, revealing the cumulative advantage of combining the semantic knowledge
18
19 sharing capabilities of the discharge coordinators with the syntactic information processing of
20
21 technologies systems, with the former adding supplementary layers of translation and
22
23 interpretation to the latter.
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31 Finally, group-based activities provided dynamic opportunities for more direct and broad
32
33 spectrum inter-professional knowledge exchange. These interactions are significant because
34
35 they allow for disconnected actors to share a common spatial and temporal frame, in which
36
37 both explicit and implicit knowledge is shared across syntactic, semantic and, importantly,
38
39 pragmatic boundaries in the processes of interactive problem-solving and decision-making.
40
41 Although such boundaries are not permanently removed, there is *opportunity* for stark
42
43 professional boundaries to be de-emphasised and blurred as actors focus attention on the
44
45 common problems of hospital discharge (Evans and Scarbrough 2014). In this context, groups
46
47 of professionals might be seen as not only exchanging, but co-producing knowledge relevant
48
49 to discharge through active inter-professional problem-solving (Ward et al. 2012).
50
51 Furthermore, these meetings provided platforms for debate and deliberation in which the
52
53 ideological differences of stakeholders could be shared and potentially revolved or aligned,
54
55 such as the different philosophies of care between health and social care actors (Glasby 2000).
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3 Seen another way, sustained interaction of this type, especially when facilitated by common
4 information systems and role-based coordinators, can engender mutual learning and inter-
5 professional 'bonding' around shared problem as professional not only learning each other's
6 ways of thinking and working, but develop new ways of thinking and working together.
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14 However, our study found only limited signs of this potential for mutual learning, because
15 group activities varied in their purpose, contribution to care planning, and more importantly,
16 in membership, scheduling and processes. Ward rounds, for example, were clearly dominated
17 by the needs of medical decision-making and gave limited scope for multi-directional
18 knowledge sharing. Daily board rounds were capable of engendering shared understanding
19 within the hospital ward, but did not involve external groups and could be captured by
20 management agenda. Weekly MDTs offered the most realistic possibility for the type of
21 bonding outlined above, but again these varied in terms of membership, with some dominated
22 by medical/surgical interests, and only one site was routinely capable of engaging external
23 health and social care agencies. Furthermore, analysis of these group activities, showed the
24 persistence of institutional power and status hierarchies in the social organisation of healthcare
25 (Currie and White 2012). In particular, medical professionals continue to exert a strong
26 influence on inter-professional working. Furthermore, these interventions, especially group-
27 based, interventions were predominately focused on the hospital sector, and offered limited
28 opportunity for community health and social care providers to participant in decision-making.
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51 Significantly, the study suggests that no single intervention is likely to engender the types of
52 inter-professional knowledge sharing and learning that could enhance the quality and safety of
53 hospital discharge. Rather, we suggest a combination of approaches is needed that enables
54 dynamic and 'multi-channel' forms of information and knowledge sharing across different
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3 syntactic, semantic and pragmatic boundaries (Carlile 2004). Returning to our above
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5 descriptive metaphors, we see merit in the role of knowledge ‘bridges’ for the routinised and
6
7 regularised exchange of relatively explicit information across syntactic boundaries, together
8
9 with knowledge ‘brokers’ to translate more tacit know-how across semantic boundaries, and
10
11 also activities that enable knowledge ‘bonding’ through reconciling pragmatic differences.
12
13 However, it is through a combination of these different forms of knowledge exchange that
14
15 inter-professional communication and coordination can be enhanced. Specifically, the study
16
17 suggests that improvements in knowledge sharing and learning around hospital discharge are
18
19 more likely through a combination of i) a dedicated discharge coordinator role that leads of
20
21 discharge planning and who can facilitate, rather than replace, interaction amongst the wider
22
23 system of care professionals; ii) the discharge coordinator has responsibility for administering
24
25 a shared discharge planning record that complements existing systems, and ideally reduces the
26
27 burden of duplicate systems; and iii) discharge planning meetings are convened that allow for
28
29 key representatives of health and social care professionals to participate in care planning,
30
31 ideally facilitated by a discharge coordinator. However, there were significant differences
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33 across the study sites in how care organisations and systems prioritised and resourced hospital
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35 discharge.

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45 These recommendations would benefit from further empirical testing, and in different service
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47 settings. The challenges to inter-professional communication and coordination extend beyond
48
49 hospital discharge to include almost all aspects of the care system, especially if one considers
50
51 that nearly all patient pathways require the involvement of multiple interacting professionals,
52
53 and where greater integration amongst these professionals is likely to result in more patient-
54
55 centred and high-quality care (Glasby 2017). There are also inevitable limitations with the
56
57 study design that make these recommendations tentative. Specifically, the study used no formal
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3 measure of quality or outcome of hospital discharge, e.g. re-admission rates. The study was
4
5 also limited to only two care systems and two patient groups, and although some description
6
7 variations were observed across these sites it was not possible to give a full account of the
8
9 contextual factors driving these variations. And as noted above, significant changes in the
10
11 organisation of stroke services may render some of the findings that relate to hospital care
12
13 planning out-dated. That said, the study strengths are found in the depth of insight developed
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15 through prolonged ethnographic observations, the comparison of approaches to discharge
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17 planning and the use of relevant theory to inform analysis.
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Table 1: Study System Information

	System 1	System 2
Population	956,000	790,000
Geography	823 ² miles	2350 ² miles
Number of GP practices	210	126
Acute hospitals	3 large research-intensive hospitals under single management structure	2 medium sized general hospitals under single management structure
Community hospitals	2 community hospitals providing long-term care and rehabilitation	1 community hospitals providing long-term care and rehabilitation
Community care provision	3 rehabilitation and intermediate care services, including nursing care homes with step-down facilities	1 general rehabilitation service, and limited number of specialist nursing care homes
Social Services	Separate City and County social service authorities	Single social service authority covering City and County
Social care provision	Large number of public, private and third sector social care providers	Small number of public, private and third sector social care providers

Table 2: Discharge communication interventions within each study site

System 1		System 2	
Stroke	Orthopaedic	Stroke	Orthopaedic
<u>Information Systems:</u>	<u>Information Systems:</u>	<u>Information Systems:</u>	<u>Information Systems:</u>
e-Discharge system	e-Discharge system	Shared Discharge Record	Discharge pathway tool
	Share Discharge Record		
<u>Dedicated Roles:</u>	<u>Dedicated Roles:</u>	<u>Dedicated Roles:</u>	<u>Dedicated Roles:</u>
Discharge Coordinator	Discharge Coordinator	Discharge Coordinator	Discharge Liaison Team
Community In-reach	Community In-reach		

<u>Group activities</u>	<u>Group Activities</u>	<u>Group Activities</u>	<u>Group Activities</u>
Weekly MDT case review	Weekly MDT case review	Weekly MDT case review	Weekly MDT case review
Daily Ward/Board Road	Daily Ward/Board Round	Daily Ward Round	Daily Ward Round

Table 3: Interview Participants

Group	System 1	System 2	Total
Medical (hospital)	10	8	18
Nursing	18	15	33
HCA's	5	2	7
Occupational Therapists	10	10	20
Physiotherapists	16	8	24
Other therapists (speech, dieticians)	2	3	5
Pharmacists	1	2	3
Ambulance manager	1	1	2
Administrative	2	2	4
Hospital/Ward Management	3	3	6
Social Work	9	5	14
Social Care	2	2	4
Community Nursing	2	7	9
General Practitioners	1	2	3
GP/CCG administration	2	0	2
Support group/voluntary	4	2	6
Patients	16	14	30
Carers/Family	12	11	23
Total	116	97	213