

1 **TITLE**

What are we doing when we double check?

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18 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

19 The conceptual work presented here is closely linked to observations of double checking situations in

20 hospitals and discussions with nurses, nursing experts, physicians, and pharmacists about double

21 checking over the course of different research projects. We therefore thank all persons for their

22 openness and interest in the topic. We also thank our colleagues Lynn Häsler and Lea Brühwiler for

23 participating in some important discussions developing the framework.

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24 Double checking is often considered a useful strategy to detect and prevent medication errors,
25 especially before the administration of high-risk drugs[1,2]. From a safety research perspective, the
26 effectiveness of double checking in preventing medication errors is limited by several factors[3,4],
27 even if they are conducted independently[5]: a double check represents a barrier designed to catch
28 errors before they reach the patient. If it is carried out by two people (compared to a technology-based
29 check, like barcode scanning), the detection rate is limited because both people may be affected by the
30 same disturbances in the environment, e.g. noise, confusing drug labels, or cognitive biases in
31 information processing (e.g., confirmation bias[6,7]). Double checks also may become a mindless
32 routine over time[3,7]; meaning that the checking persons rely on the other check and are not as
33 attentive as they could be. Additionally, checking persons may not dare to raise an identified error to a
34 person of higher authority status[8].

35 As double checking uses considerable resources of nurses' time and cognitive capacity[9], there is a
36 pressing need to know whether existing empirical evidence supports using double checking despite its
37 mentioned shortcomings. In this issue, Koyama et al.[9] helped address this gap by reviewing
38 empirical research on the effectiveness of double checking as a patient safety intervention. Just like
39 Alsulami et al. in 2012[10], they come 7 years later to the same conclusion: double checking lacks
40 sound empirical evidence. Out of the 13 studies included in the review, there are only three good
41 quality studies[11–13], one of which provided evidence for double checks reducing medication
42 error[13]. Most studies lacked methodological rigor, e.g., in applying insufficient methods for
43 assessing the outcomes. No study investigated the relation between double checking and medication-
44 related patient harm, and most studies did not assess adherence with double-checking procedures. An
45 important point raised in the review was that very few studies defined the specific actions (e.g., which
46 items to check or the kind of procedure used) required in the double check – in other words, what
47 “double-checking” meant. Only three studies specified whether they studied independent double
48 checking. Additionally, only two out of 13 studies reported the work steps in the medication process
49 requiring double checking.

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50 The conclusion that the empirical evidence on such a resource-intensive and widespread practice is
51 scarce is sobering. In alignment with Hewitt et al.[4], we propose to work on the missing clarity of the
52 concept of double check in order to be able to generate more substantial evidence in future:

53 Firstly, specific descriptions for different double checking procedures need to be developed. Currently,
54 various checking procedures are covered under the umbrella term double checking[14–16]: e.g., one
55 nurse checking two times a prepared drug against the prescription, two nurses performing two checks
56 sequentially or together, e.g., one nurse reading aloud the prescription while the other nurse listens and
57 checks the label and then in a second step reads back the label to the other nurse who checks against
58 the prescription (read-read back procedure[15]). Another example for the missing clarity of the
59 concept of double checking is that double checks have often been defined as requiring two
60 persons[11], while single-person double-checking has also been proposed as a checking strategy[16].
61 In order to systematize the various kinds of checking procedures, we developed the framework
62 presented in the following. Based on this differentiation, any future review should analyze and report
63 the “type of double check” to foster comparability and ease of interpretation of the results.

64 Secondly, it is important to draw a line between checking and activities that are covered by the term
65 today, but require very different cognitive activities: As White et al.[17] pointed out, double checking
66 a set of prepared drugs against the prescription is a rather mechanistic activity, demanding a person’s
67 attention, but not their critical thinking. Currently, activities requiring critical thinking are often called
68 double checking, too, e.g., a) determining whether a dose calculation is correct[14], and b) identifying
69 an error in the prescription, such as the weight-based errors in the simulation study by Douglass et
70 al.[13].

71 Guided by our own research, we present a framework for classifying checking procedures and
72 differentiating them from other medication-related safety behaviors in order to structure future
73 research and practice. Additionally, the concept of independence is discussed.

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75 **FRAMEWORK FOR DEFINING CHECKING BEHAVIORS**

76 We propose the following definition of checking: A check is a comparison of information stemming
77 from two (or more) different sources (e.g., prescription vs. label of an IV-bag of chemotherapy). For a
78 double check, the same comparison is performed twice. Thus, it is not the number of persons or points
79 in time, but the number of comparisons between information sets that is the criterion to distinguish a
80 double from a single check. Important to note is that a check may also be performed by a machine,
81 e.g., in comparing the drug and the prescription using barcode scanning.

82 --- insert table 1 here ---

83 Depending on how many times an information comparison is conducted and how many persons are
84 involved in the check, different kinds of checks can be differentiated (see table 1 and supplementary
85 online figure). The most common checking procedures are single checks, and double checks by two
86 persons, which may either be performed sequentially after each other or simultaneously in a common
87 read-read back procedure. Table 1 shows how different ways to involve persons in a double check can
88 be systematically differentiated. Many of the possibilities are not used in daily practice. For example,
89 it is theoretically possible that four persons conduct a double check, e.g., two different pairs of persons
90 perform a read-read back procedure (see table 1).

91 **Differentiating plausibility reviews from checking**

92 Building on White et al.'s proposition to differentiate checking and critical thinking as requiring
93 different cognitive modes, we define critical thinking, the use of a professional's own knowledge as a
94 plausibility review. In a plausibility review, information is not compared, but evaluated: for example
95 when a nurse checks a prescription and realizes that the drug needs to be diluted in a different carrier
96 solution. The nurse identifies the error by using own knowledge. Plausibility reviews are common in
97 healthcare, at least implicitly, and are often executed without being part of standard protocols or
98 written-down procedures[18].

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99 **Differentiating information generation from checking**

100 In particular in high risk environments like intensive and cancer care, nurses often need to calculate
101 flow rates or dosages or determine them from a table. Calculations are often seen as a part of a double
102 check[15], particularly, when a second person is involved[19]. In our framework, we consider them as
103 *generating* (in contrast to *comparing*) information. The calculated or determined value is new,
104 “generated”, information. If subsequently the two calculated values were compared to each other, this
105 activity would be considered a (single) check according to our framework (see supplementary online
106 figure). Table 2 shows four important questions to be asked in order to be able to determine whether a
107 certain medication safety-related activity is a check, a calculation or a plausibility review.

108 **Clarifying the concept of independence**

109 Independence in double checking is frequently recommended[19], but the concept has been not very
110 well adopted or understood in practice[15,20], and rarely differentiated in research[9]. We suppose
111 that useful recommendations of how to design independent checks are lacking because of the missing
112 clarity of the concept of checks: The usual example brought up to describe an independent check is a
113 calculation, i.e., instead of telling someone to check if a certain number of pills is correct, one should
114 ask the other person to count the pills again[19]. Technically, from our framework’s perspective, the
115 concept of independence is applied to information generation in this example and not to information
116 comparison. An independent calculation means that a clinician uses no prior information in order to
117 avoid confirmation bias: One way to reduce confirmation bias is to have the second person generate
118 the information (e.g., count the pills) before looking at the information to be compared (e.g., the pill
119 count provided by the first person). That is, the second person must (1) count the pills without prior
120 knowledge of the first person’s count, (2) document the information (i.e., the generated pill count) and
121 (3) compare the two sources of information (i.e., first person’s count and the second person’s count).
122 Thus, regarding the calculation of a dose for example, the concept of independence works well to
123 differentiate procedures, i.e., independent vs. ‘do and show, together, and watching’[14] procedures,
124 which do not control for confirmation bias. However, what does independence mean if it is applied to

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125 information comparison, i.e., checking? Priming is much harder to avoid for checking than for
126 calculating or counting, because in order to compare information, one always needs to read it first,
127 which basically is a form of priming. Therefore, full independence cannot be achieved for checks and
128 optimizing independence works differently: in order to reduce confirmation bias[6], it is essential to
129 design procedures that actualize as little prior knowledge about the information to check as possible
130 *and* to reduce contextual influence. Reading numbers from right to left in comparing a programmed
131 infusion rate to the prescription may minimize for example the influence of confirmation bias. For
132 performing good checks, the automatic cognitive efforts of sensemaking need to be reduced as much
133 as possible. In contrast, for plausibility reviews one's own knowledge and sensemaking need to be
134 deliberately actualized. We therefore propose to differentiate between calculations, plausibility
135 reviews and checks in order to make useful recommendations on independence. Thus, for calculations,
136 the traditional concept of independence can be applied and confirmation bias can be avoided in
137 designing good procedures, while for checks the influence of confirmation bias only can be limited;
138 for plausibility reviews, independence is not important, as confirmation bias it not the important issue,
139 it rather should be designed so that the capacity of an individual to actualize own knowledge is
140 maximized (i.e., not being interrupted, calm environment, a dedicated space perform the review). In
141 addition to Koyama et al.'s work, we propose to stop using the concept of primed checks, and instead
142 to describe the ways in which checking procedures are designed to reduce the influence of
143 confirmation bias.

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145 **WHAT DOES THE FRAMEWORK ADD TO RESEARCH?**

146 In their review Koyama et al.'s provide important information on outcome measures, outcome
147 measure assessment methods, and study designs. However, they do not differentiate double checking
148 methods – merely, because this information is often not sufficiently provided in original studies. We
149 believe that without a clear definition of “checking procedures” the evidence base for double-checking
150 will remain at best vague - simply because it is unclear what the investigated intervention precisely is.
151 We presented a framework to conceptualize the various activities covered under the term double check

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152 along the information-processing tasks they consist of. Evaluating the correctness of a prescription
153 may best be done in performing a plausibility review, while checking whether one is about to
154 administer it to the right person or whether an infusion rate is correct represent typical tasks to be
155 fulfilled in performing a (double) check.

156 Currently, nursing guidelines (e.g., Neuss et al.[21]) and hospital nursing procedures are not
157 describing the specific procedure to be performed in a double check[22]. In using precise concepts,
158 guidelines may better support clinical practice. For example, reflective thinking activities are usually
159 not described in standards and protocols, despite being potentially very effective in catching
160 errors[18]. Interestingly, White et al. reported that integrating a question designed to trigger critical
161 thinking in a checklist of a checking procedure did not improve the identification of clinical decision
162 errors in their study: The authors concluded that the “mechanistic”[17] cognitive mode of information
163 processing that is necessary during a check may not translate well into a more reflective thought
164 process: It seems likely that humans have difficulties in switching between these two modes
165 immediately. Thus, distinguishing plausibility reviews from checking is very important to design
166 adequate medication safety processes, for example in defining different points in time or locations.
167 Creating space and points in time in the medication process for plausibility reviews represents a
168 powerful avenue to institutionalize reflective thinking[18] as a means to catch errors.

169 Our conceptualization allows for interpreting prior results from a new perspective, e.g., the simulation
170 study by Douglass et al.[13] that was positively evaluated in the review[9]: The two errors planted in
171 the simulation required two different kinds of cognitive activity to be detected: while the wrong vial
172 could be identified in comparing information (performing a check), the identification of the wrong
173 dose required the use of own knowledge, thus a plausibility review. As reported above, plausibility
174 reviews may not be effective if conducted within a checking situation, because it needs critical
175 thinking instead of mechanistic information comparison. The fact that the wrong dose error actually
176 needed critical thinking to be identified may be the main explanation for the finding that less errors
177 were identified in the wrong dose scenario, in addition to the reason that different drugs were used for
178 the single and the double check scenarios[23].

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179 Although the presented framework presents various forms of double checks, more specifications are
180 necessary for describing how an actual double check should be performed: the items to check, the
181 position of the check within the process, as well as the steps of the actual check need to be specified; if
182 more than one person are involved in the checking procedure, the way the involved persons
183 collaborate needs to be specified, too. Similarly, for calculations, it needs to be specified by whom
184 dosages of high-risk drugs need to be calculated, whether this needs to be performed twice and by
185 whom, how, and how often the result needs to be checked.

186 **POTENTIAL FUTURE USE OF THE FRAMEWORK**

187 The presented framework conceptualizing double checking is intended to serve research and practice:
188 In providing a basis for specifying the activity investigated, future effectiveness studies will be easier
189 to plan, compare and evaluate in their significance. We hope that in using the specific descriptions of
190 checking procedures, future studies will more easily build on each other. Translating empirical
191 evidence into practice will also be easier if the specific procedures studied are known and described.
192 Furthermore, guidelines and standard operating procedures will hopefully benefit from a more concise
193 use of concepts. The framework's concepts furthermore are useful to assess the types of checks
194 performed along a medication process by different professional groups to identify loopholes and
195 redundancies[22].

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260 **TABLES**

261 Table 1. Kinds of checking procedures

First check performed by		
Second check performed by	one person	a pair of persons
the same person	Double check by a single person	Double check by a pair of persons and one person
another person	Double check by two single persons	Double check by a pair of persons and one single person
the same pair	Double check by one person and one pair of persons	Double check by a pair of persons
different pair	Double check by one single person and a pair of persons	Double check by two pairs of persons

262 Table 2. Differentiating plausibility reviews, calculations and checks

Kind of activity				
Questions to ask	Single check	Double check	Calculation	Plausibility review
Are two sources of information being compared?	yes	yes		
Are two sources of information being compared twice?		yes		
Is information being generated (e.g., doses)?			yes	
Is own knowledge being used to evaluate information (e.g., reviewing a prescription)?				yes

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264 **FIGURE LEGEND (for supplementary online file)**

265 *Figure 1.* Framework for identifying checking and non-checking behaviors.

266