

Collaborative clinical reasoning: a scoping review

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Background Collaborative clinical reasoning (CCR) among healthcare professionals is crucial for maximizing clinical outcomes and patient safety. This scoping review explores CCR to address the gap in understanding its definition, structure, and implications.

Methods A scoping review was undertaken to examine CCR related studies in healthcare. Medline, PsychInfo, SciVerse Scopus, and Web of Science were searched. Inclusion criteria included full-text articles published between 2011 to 2020. Search terms included cooperative, collaborative, shared, team, collective, reasoning, problem solving, decision making, combined with clinical or medicine or medical, but excluded shared decision making.

Results A total of 24 articles were identified in the review. The review reveals a growing interest in CCR, with 14 articles emphasizing the decision-making process, 5 using Multidisciplinary Team-Metric for the Observation of Decision Making (MDTs-MODE), 3 exploring CCR theory, and 2 focusing on the problem-solving process. Communication, trust, and team dynamics emerge as key influencers in healthcare decision-making. Notably, only two articles provide specific CCR definitions.

Conclusions While decision-making processes dominate CCR studies, a notable gap exists in defining and structuring CCR. Explicit theoretical frameworks, such as those proposed by Blondon et al. and Kiesewetter et al., are crucial for advancing research and understanding CCR dynamics within collaborative teams. This scoping review provides a comprehensive overview of CCR research, revealing a growing interest and diversity in the field. The review emphasizes the need for explicit theoretical frameworks, citing Blondon et al. and Kiesewetter et al. The broader landscape of interprofessional collaboration and clinical reasoning requires exploration.

1 Collaborative Clinical Reasoning: a scoping review

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15

16

17 **Abstract**

18

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46 interprofessional collaboration and clinical reasoning requires exploration.

47

48 **Keywords:** collaborative clinical reasoning, scoping, health professions, shared mental

49

50 **Background**

51

52 **Clinical Reasoning Errors**

53 Diagnostic errors pose a significant challenge in healthcare, with an estimated error rate
54 of 10% to 15% according to autopsy data in the United States (Graber, 2013; Shojanian et al.,
55 2003). While diagnostic errors are not the primary cause of death in the country, they still
56 exert a substantial impact on patient outcomes and healthcare costs. The majority of errors
57 that occur can be attributed, at least in part, to cognitive processes of individual healthcare
58 professionals (Norman & Eva, 2010). Faulty clinical reasoning is considered a key contributor
59 to diagnostic errors, and studies suggest that error prevention requires an improvement in
60 clinical reasoning skills (Connor et al., 2020; Durning et al., 2020; Norman et al., 2017).

61

62 **Clinical Reasoning in Medical Education**

63 Clinical reasoning, a central component of professional competence for healthcare
64 practitioners, is defined as “the thought process that guides practice” (Connor et al., 2020).
65 Terms such as problem-solving, decision-making, critical thinking, and judgment are also
66 used interchangeably with clinical reasoning (Norman, 2005). This process involves
67 collecting cues, processing information, understanding patient problems or situations,
68 planning and implementing interventions, evaluating outcomes, and reflecting on and

69 learning from the entire process (Levett-Jones et al., 2010).

70 One influential model explaining clinical reasoning process is the “dual-process’ theory
71 of cognition, which posits that errors are often associated with “system 1” thinking (automatic
72 and intuitive) rooted in cognitive heuristics (Royce et al., 2019). Although system 1 thinking
73 allow for rapid judgement through pattern recognition, it is susceptible to the biases and
74 emotional influences (Schwartz & Elstein, 2008). On the other hand, “system 2” thinking
75 (slow, effortful, and analytic) can yield more normatively rational reasoning, but it is easily
76 disrupted by high cognitive loads (Evans, 2008; Norman & Eva, 2010). In busy clinical
77 settings, where continuous system 2 thinking is impractical, healthcare practitioners often rely
78 on system 1 thinking, which may lead to incomplete or incorrect diagnoses and practices.

79

80 **Interprofessional Collaborative Clinical Reasoning**

81 While previous literature on collaborative healthcare has primarily focused on teamwork
82 competencies and interprofessional collaboration (Figueroa et al., 2013; Ponte et al., 2010;
83 Shrader et al., 2013), the current study seeks to explore collaborative clinical reasoning. The
84 conventional discussion of team impacts on healthcare professional competences mainly
85 focused on individualist discourse. They emphasized on the outcomes, with the individual
86 gain that practitioners acquire, perform, and maintain over their practice life. The notion of

87 “collective competencies” shed light on the underlying mechanism of teamwork (Anderson,
88 2012). It addresses how individually "incompetent" healthcare professionals shared and
89 distributed to form a "competent" team. This collectivist discourse focuses on the similarities
90 and differences that each practitioner perceived in the situation, and how they trigger and share
91 the mental models among the various team members. The term “collaborative reasoning”
92 proposed by Mason will be employed to describe the process of reaching a shared mental
93 model (Mason & Santi, 1998). It was proposed that team participants work together efficiently
94 by anticipating other members’ responses. One of the insights was that the degree to which
95 team members shared to develop a shared mental model is positively correlated with the team
96 performance (Lim & Klein, 2006).

97

98 **Significance of Current Study**

99 The dual-processing model of clinical reasoning involves both systems 1 and 2 thinking during
100 decision-making among healthcare professionals. While system 1 thinking is advantageous
101 for quick judgments, system 2 thinking is less effort-prone but demands more mental effort.
102 In a busy clinical setting, it is impractical for an individual healthcare professional to stay in
103 system 2 thinking continuously, despite this type of thinking is often crucial and less prone to
104 error (Baddeley, 1992; Evans, 2008; Schwartz & Elstein, 2008). Collaborative clinical

105 reasoning, akin to shared mental models, may facilitate cognitive load sharing in a complex
106 situation involving multiple healthcare professionals. It may help identify, reduce subjective
107 biases and leads to efficient decision-making during diagnostic processes through team effort
108 and communication (Anderson, 2012; Figueroa et al., 2013; Lim & Klein, 2006; Mason &
109 Santi, 1998). A preliminary scholarly search has indicated a scarcity of literature on
110 collaborative performance in clinical reasoning and most studies only address the importance
111 of communication in a healthcare team or describe team effort with the common goal of
112 reaching a consensus for decision making (Anderson, 2012; Figueroa et al., 2013; Kiesewetter
113 et al., 2017; Lim & Klein, 2006; Mason & Santi, 1998). Amidst this scholarly landscape, the
114 term “multidisciplinary teams or meetings” (MDTs or MDMs) emerges as a recurring theme
115 within literature addressing collaboration in healthcare. MDTs or MDMs are structured
116 gatherings involving professionals from various disciplines within the healthcare setting.
117 These meetings serve as a platform for collaborative decision-making and comprehensive
118 assessment of complex cases involving patients. However, a notable trend surfaces—much of
119 the literature leans heavily towards quantitative assessments. The focus on MDTs or MDMs
120 tends to revolve around numerical evaluations, leaving a gap in our comprehension of how
121 collaborative clinical reasoning shapes both system 1 and system 2 thinking. A further insight
122 into the cognitive process or the diagnostic dimension of collaborative clinical reasoning is

123 therefore required. This review, therefore, aims to address this scholarly gap by systematically
124 mapping the available evidence. Our goal is to provide a thorough understanding of how
125 multidisciplinary healthcare professionals engage in collaborative clinical reasoning,
126 shedding light on its cognitive underpinnings and its implications for informed decision-
127 making. As we map CCR research, we aim to answer the following research questions:

128 RQ1. What is the current status of collaborative clinical reasoning (CCR) research in general?

129 RQ2: How is collaborative clinical reasoning conceptualized and practiced within
130 multidisciplinary teams or meetings (MDTs or MDMs)?

131

132 **Method**

133 In accordance with the Arksey and O'Malley framework (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005), and the
134 recent recommendations by Levac et al., (Levac et al., 2010), our scoping review methodology
135 comprises the following steps: (1) scoping review questions, (2) search strategy, (3) study
136 screening and selection, (4) data extraction, (5) analysis and presentation of results, and (6) team
137 consultation.

138

139 (1) Review questions

140 This review is centered around two overarching question, “What is the current status of

141 collaborative clinical reasoning (CCR) research in general?” and “How is collaborative
142 clinical reasoning conceptualized and practiced within multidisciplinary teams or
143 meetings (MDTs or MDMs)?”

144

145 (2) Relevant studies and search strategy

146 The search involved four electronic databases: Medline, PsychInfo, SciVerse Scopus
147 (multidisciplinary, 1823-present), and Web of Science (multidisciplinary, 1900-present).

148 We limited the search to the years between 2011 and 2020. The language of articles is
149 limited to English. Using Kiesewetter’s search strategy (Kiesewetter et al., 2017), the
150 search terms included cooperative, collaborative, shared, team, collective, reasoning,
151 problem solving, decision-making, combined with clinical or medicine or medical, but
152 excluded shared decision-making (see Table S1 in the Supplementary Information, SI).

153 The primary interest of subjects was associated only with healthcare professionals who
154 were involved actively in clinical activities. The studies involving patients or trainees
155 such as students and interns were excluded.

156

157 (3) Study selection and screening

158 All papers were collected and managed using EndNote® software to eliminate

159 duplicates. Initially, CYL and HYL screened only the title and abstract independently to
160 filter articles that fail to meet the minimum inclusion criteria. All of the full-text articles
161 were then reviewed by two additional researchers (CHL and MMC). The exclusion
162 criteria were applied to non-peer-reviewed paper, conference, letters or editorial articles,
163 papers lack of original data, and those without full-text available. Papers involved
164 discussion mainly about individual clinical reasoning itself but without any types of team
165 effort or collaborative interaction were also excluded.

166

167 (4) Data charting

168 Relevant papers were then imported to ATLAS.ti™ from EndNote® after screening. A
169 charting content was developed using ATLAS.ti™ to ensure relevance and to extract
170 study characteristics, including publication year, publication type, methodology,
171 participant details (RQ 1). Additionally, critical findings germane to the exploration of
172 Multidisciplinary Teams or Meetings (MDTs or MDMs), encompassing composition and
173 content aspects, were systematically extracted (RQ 2). This charting process was
174 reviewed by the research team and pretested by all reviewers before implementation. The
175 characteristics of each full-text article were extracted and coded by two independent
176 reviewers (CYL and SY Y). Studies failing to meet the eligibility criteria were further

177 excluded. Reviewers met throughout the process to resolve conflicts and ensured
178 consistency with the research questions.

179

180 (5) Data summary and synthesis

181 To systematically analyze the collected data, a comprehensive approach blending
182 quantitative and thematic methods was employed. This involved the development of an
183 analytical framework to collate and interpret various themes derived from the gathered
184 information. For the quantitative analysis, an overview of basic descriptive frequency
185 counts was conducted, focusing on key article ‘demographic,’ such as publication year
186 and journal. This quantitative lens facilitated a high-level understanding of the
187 distribution and trends within the selected literature. Simultaneously, thematic coding
188 was applied to extract and categorize the content of each article. This involved identifying
189 recurring patterns, concepts, or topics relevant to collaborative clinical reasoning (CCR).
190 Frequencies of counts were summarized and presented in graphical or tabulated form.
191 Microsoft Excel 2010 (Microsoft, Redmond, WA, USA) was used to facilitate
192 descriptive analyses and graphical summaries. Each article was coded by a maximum of
193 two themes by ATLAS.ti™.

194

195 (6) Team consultation

196 The research members met on a weekly basis to track the progress of the scoping review,
197 and monthly meetings were held with the international consultant for further
198 consolidation of results.

199

200 **Results**

201 The initial database searches yielded 281 citations. After conducting a duplication check and
202 screening titles and abstracts against the exclusion criteria, 24 articles met the eligibility criteria
203 for comprehensive review and analysis (Figure 1).

204

205 *Year, Journal, and Methodology (RQs 1–2)*

206

207 The average frequency of the included articles on CCR ranged between 1 and 2 per year between
208 2011 and 2016 (Figure 2). The ranged between 1 and 2 per year increased to 3 in 2017 but declined
209 to 1 again in 2018. The highest and second highest number of CCR studies for analysis were found
210 in 2019 (n=6) and 2020 (n=4), respectively. The journals with which these 24 articles were
211 published were listed alphabetically in Table S2, found in SI. There were only 2 articles published
212 in the same journal, *Annals of Surgical Oncology*. Each journal as suggested by its name was

213 categorized into six genres. The majority of the articles fell into categories of oncology (n=8) and
214 medicine in general (n=7) while the rest of the articles made up the categories of nursing (n=2),
215 medical education (n=3), ergonomics or medical informatics (n=2), and philosophy or psychology
216 (n=2). Both quantitative (n=11) and qualitative (n=10) methodology were the most prevalent
217 approaches while mixed methods (n= 3) was the least common approach.

218

219

220 *Themes, Population, and Trends (RQs 3–5)*

221

222 In table 1, the matching of the articles into four major content themes were as follows: (1)
223 Decision-making process (n=14) (Alby et al., 2015; Alcantara et al., 2014; Bingham et al., 2020;
224 Bolle et al., 2019; Charani et al., 2019; Jalil et al., 2013; Kilpatrick, 2013; Kinnear et al., 2018;
225 Lamb et al., 2011; Lamb et al., 2012; Radcliffe et al., 2019; van Baalen & Carusi, 2019; Wallace
226 et al., 2019; Wolf et al., 2015); (2) Quality assessment by MDTs-MODE (Multidisciplinary Team-
227 Metric for the Observation of Decision Making; n=5) (Gandamihardja et al., 2019; Hahlweg et al.,
228 2017; Scott et al., 2020; Soukup et al., 2020; Soukup et al., 2016); (3) CCR theory and definitions
229 (n=3) (Blondon et al., 2017; Kiesewetter et al., 2017; Olson et al., 2020); and (4) Problem-solving
230 process (n=2) (Maseide, 2011; Måseide, 2016). The double coding frequency was also used to
231 support the key issues identified within content themes.

232

233 I. MDT Participants and Data Collection

234 Overall, there are 14 studies conducted with MDT members (Alcantara et al., 2014; Bolle et al.,
235 2019; Gandamihardja et al., 2019; Hahlweg et al., 2017; Jalil et al., 2013; Lamb et al., 2011; Lamb
236 et al., 2012; Maseide, 2011; Måseide, 2016; Scott et al., 2020; Soukup et al., 2020; Soukup et al.,
237 2016; van Baalen & Carusi, 2019; Wallace et al., 2019). Only 1 article among these MDT-related
238 studies collects both non-cancer and occasionally cancer related MDT data in a thoracic ward (van
239 Baalen & Carusi, 2019). The remaining 13 articles all address issues about cancer MDT, 5 of
240 which focus on MDT quality assessment utilising the tool, MDTs-MODE. The most discussed
241 MDT case was colorectal or gastrointestinal cancer. In terms of the MDT composition, nurses or
242 nurse specialists were the most frequently identified team members. The second and third highest
243 propotion of team members, namely surgeons, radiologists, histopathologists and oncologists
244 entails how they are often coupled with nurses or nurse specialists, and altogether they often
245 represent the common composition of team members found in a cancer MDT.

246 II. Non-MDT-specific articles

247 These studies do not specifically include the term MDT, however there are few of them do fall
248 into the category of team concept. These studies are also summarized by minor themes (Table 1).
249 Two reviews describe the theory about CCR (Kiesewetter et al., 2017; Olson et al., 2020) while
250 one review characterizes collective intelligence in medical decision-making (Radcliffe et al.,

251 2019). Two comparative studies show evidence on better performance in teams than individuals
252 when solving a cognitive drug problem (Kinnear et al., 2018) or interpreting mammograph
253 screening (Wolf et al., 2015). One study qualitatively compares the different decision-making
254 process on antibody prescriptions between emergency and surgical teams, where the authors
255 attribute such difference to team culture (Charani et al., 2019). One simulation study conducted
256 with residents and nurses in internal medicine wards identifies characteristics and dimensions of
257 CCR (Blondon et al., 2017). Two studies demonstrate the importance of communication during
258 decision-making process, and specifically the role of a nursing staff on initiating a decision-making
259 process in a team (Bingham et al., 2020; Kilpatrick, 2013). Upon qualitative analysis of informal
260 conversations about patient cases in a medical team, one study reveals three collaborative
261 practices: (a) joint interpretation, (b) intersubjective generation and validation of hypotheses, and
262 (c) postponing the diagnostic decision (Alby et al., 2015). In general, several articles have
263 addressed separately how communication, trust, team composition, institutional culture, or
264 prescriptive authority may exert an influence on collaborative practice in healthcare team decision-
265 making (Alby et al., 2015; Alcantara et al., 2014; Bingham et al., 2020; Blondon et al., 2017; Bolle
266 et al., 2019; Charani et al., 2019; Jalil et al., 2013; Kilpatrick, 2013; Kinnear et al., 2018; Måseide,
267 2016; van Baalen & Carusi, 2019; Wallace et al., 2019).

268

269 Discussion

270

271 This scoping review illuminates the landscape of CCR research spanning 2011 to 2020, consisting
272 of 24 identified studies. Notable trends in yearly publications reflect an initial alternation between
273 1 and 2 articles from 2011 to 2016, a peak in 2019, and a sustained level of interest in 2020. This
274 temporal evolution underscores the growing importance and recognition of CCR research in recent
275 years. The 24 selected articles spanned various journals, with only two articles appearing in the
276 same journal (Annals of Surgical Oncology). These journals were categorized into six genres,
277 predominantly falling within oncology and medicine in general. Methodologically, both
278 quantitative and qualitative approaches were prevalent, with mixed methods being the least
279 common. The remaining articles covered nursing, medical education, ergonomics or medical
280 informatics, and philosophy or psychology.

281

282 A comprehensive analysis of these studies reveals distinct patterns and avenues for advancing
283 understanding in this multidimensional field. Four major fields were identified including Decision-
284 making process, CCR theory and definitions, Quality assessment by MDTs-MODE, and Problem-
285 solving process. The dominant theme was the decision-making process. The prevalence of studies
286 emphasizing the decision-making process underscores its centrality in CCR. The articles focus on

287 communication and factors associated with collaborative decision-making processes. However,
288 the majority of discussion dwell on the conceptual importance of CCR, leaving a noticeable gap
289 in the concrete definition, structure, and process characterizing CCR. In depth, only two studies
290 provide explicit definitions and theoretical frameworks for CCR, elucidating key factors
291 influencing its performance (Blondon et al., 2017; Kiesewetter et al., 2017). Kiesewetter et al.
292 summarized factors that may influence the performance of CCR: (1) The initial distribution of
293 information, (2) practitioners' clinical experience in a team, (3) information exchange among
294 members, and (4) individual retrieval and representation of the information that shared by a team
295 such as distribution of information or clinical experience (Kiesewetter et al., 2017). In a simulation
296 study conducted in healthcare setting, Blondon et al. have identified five dimensions of
297 collaborative reasoning in internal medicine: (1) diagnostic reasoning, (2) patient management, (3)
298 patient monitoring, (4) communication and (5) explanations to patient (Blondon et al., 2017).
299 Based on the definitions of CCR from these two studies (Blondon et al., 2017; Kiesewetter et al.,
300 2017), one review emphasizes the importance of clinical reasoning collaboration in relation to the
301 development of shared decision-making or inter-professional education (Hanum & Findyartini,
302 2020). Kiesewetter et al.'s focus on information distribution, clinical experience, and exchange,
303 and Blondon et al.'s identification of five dimensions serve as foundational pillars, urging future
304 research to integrate these frameworks for a deeper understanding. Integrating these conceptual

305 frameworks into future research is essential for a more profound understanding of CCR.

306

307 Despite the prevalence of CCR studies, the broader landscape of interprofessional collaboration

308 and clinical reasoning remains underexplored within the identified studies. The literature search in

309 healthcare collaboration reveals terminologies such as interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary,

310 interprofessional and intraprofessional, commonly interchangeably with teamwork, team

311 approaches, collaborative practice, coordination and cooperation (Angelini, 2011; D'Amour et al.,

312 2005; Körner, 2010; Smith, 2015). Only a handful of studies delve into the confluence of CCR and

313 interprofessional collaboration, revealing nuances in role perceptions and expectations within

314 healthcare teams (Blondon et al., 2017; Hanum & Findyartini, 2020; Kiesewetter et al., 2017;

315 Muller-Juge et al., 2013; Olson et al., 2020; Wölfel et al., 2016). Muller-Juge et al. conducted

316 semi-structured interviews with nurses and residents, exploring their role perceptions and

317 expectations on interprofessional collaboration in an internal medicine ward (Muller-Juge et al.,

318 2013). Their study highlighted a thematic findings wherein both professions perceived residents

319 play a major role in clinical reasoning within collaborative framework (Muller-Juge et al., 2013).

320 In a parallel context of internal medicine, nurses and physicians in another study by Wölfel et al.

321 regarded CCR as core-competences and particularly essential for interprofessional development

322 (Wölfel et al., 2016). However, in strict terms, these two studies exhibited limit relevance to CCR,

323 despite acknowledging clinical reasoning as a fundamental component of collaborative practice.

324

325 While communication emerges as a critical dimension in CCR, akin to the findings of Blondon et

326 al., it is seldom explored comprehensively across the literature (Blondon et al., 2017). Olson et al.

327 observed that team clinical reasoning within existing healthcare often leads to a “parallel play”

328 rather than authentic collaborative practice (Olson et al., 2020). Therefore, concerted efforts have

329 been directed toward team communication, aiming to enhance information exchange and optimize

330 decision-making during collaborative practice (Lancaster et al., 2015; Matziou et al., 2012). This

331 observation is consistent with our scoping review, where a cluster of MDT studies showcases the

332 utilization of MDT-MODE to assess information retrieval and communication among healthcare

333 teams for evaluation of the decision-making quality. Although communication stands out as one

334 of the dimensions identified in the CCR process (Blondon et al., 2017), other dimension, such as

335 diagnostic reasoning, are infrequently explored across the literature.

336

337 Additional themes emerged, such as articles involving multi-disciplinary team meetings (MDT or

338 MDM), communication and other factors in decision-making, collective intelligence, triggers for

339 decision-making, team conversational data, and simulation in the ward. These minor themes

340 provide a nuanced understanding of the factors influencing CCR. Out of the 14 studies conducted

341 with MDT members, the majority focused on cancer MDTs, particularly colorectal or
342 gastrointestinal cancer. Nurses or nurse specialists were frequently identified team members,
343 followed by surgeons, radiologists, histopathologists, and oncologists. This composition
344 represented the common team structure in cancer MDTs. Studies not explicitly labeled as MDT-
345 related fell into the broader category of team concepts.

346

347 **Implication**

348

349 These articles covered diverse topics such as reviews on CCR research, comparative studies
350 demonstrating team performance advantages, and simulation studies identifying characteristics of
351 CCR. Communication, trust, team composition, institutional culture, and prescriptive authority
352 were addressed as influencers in healthcare team decision-making. The scoping review highlights
353 the versatility of CCR research, extending beyond healthcare into areas like digital public health
354 interventions, dental care, and occupational therapy. This broad applicability emphasizes the
355 comprehensive nature of CCR and its relevance across different disciplines. Future CCR research
356 should aim for a more integrated understanding by incorporating explicit theoretical frameworks,
357 such as those proposed by Blondon et al. and Kiesewetter et al. These frameworks will not only
358 guide research design but also foster a nuanced interpretation of CCR dynamics within

359 collaborative teams. This comprehensive approach will contribute to the evolution of evidence-
360 based practices in collaborative clinical reasoning, fostering a more patient-centered and
361 interprofessionally integrated healthcare landscape.

362

363

364 **Conclusions**

365

366 This study provides the literature overview on CCR research spanning 2011 to 2020, revealing
367 both a temporal evolution and a research diversity reflective of the multidimensional nature of
368 CCR. The pronounced emphasis on the decision-making process within CCR, as evidenced by a
369 prevalence of studies, underscores its central role. However, a discernible gap exists due to the
370 absence of precise definitions and structures characterizing CCR. Blondon et al. and Kiesewetter
371 et al. provide explicit definitions and theoretical frameworks, serving as foundational pillars for
372 future research integration. The call for future research to incorporate explicit theoretical
373 frameworks, particularly those proposed by Blondon et al. and Kiesewetter et al., is crucial for
374 guiding research design and interpreting CCR dynamics within collaborative teams. This
375 integrated approach, including an awareness of the cognitive processes in CCR, aims to contribute
376 to evidence-based practices in collaborative clinical reasoning, promoting a more patient-centered

377 and interprofessionally integrated healthcare landscape.

378

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Figure 1

Flowchart of the study selection process

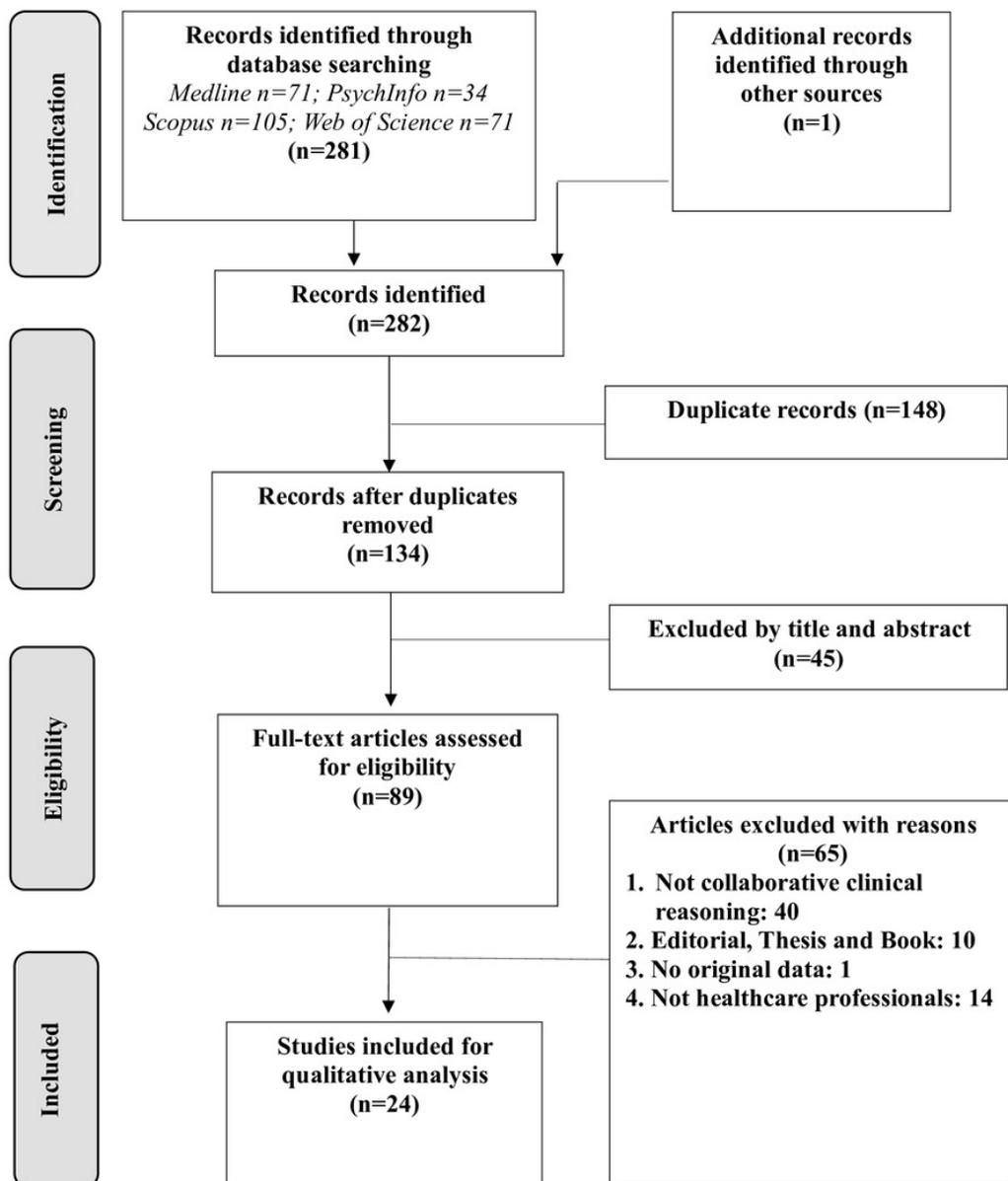


Figure 2

The number of included articles on collaborative clinical reasoning between 2011 and 2020

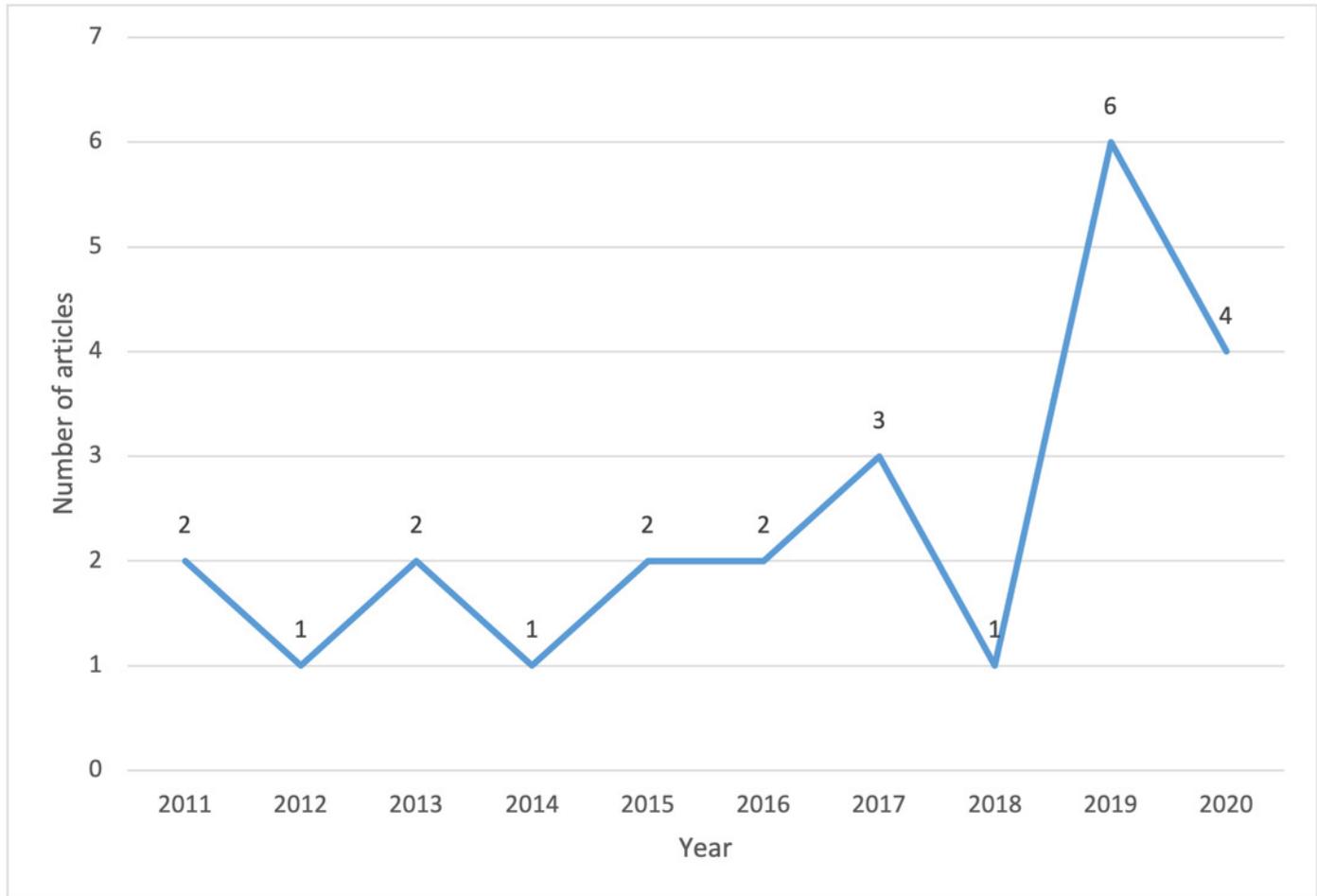


Table 1 (on next page)

Content themes for articles on collaborative clinical reasoning between 2011-2020

1 Table 1 Content themes for articles on collaborative clinical reasoning between 2011-2020

| Major Content Themes | Single Coding Frequency |
|--|-------------------------|
| Decision-making process Any article directly addresses the topic of “decision-making” process in the title or keyword, or as the subject of interest throughout the context. ²³⁻³⁶ | 14 |
| Quality assessment by MDTs-MODE Articles involve the assessment of multi-disciplinary team meetings (MDT or MDM) using the standard MDT-MODE (Multidisciplinary Team-Metric for the Observation of Decision Making). ³⁷⁻⁴¹ | 5 |
| Collaborative clinical reasoning theory and definitions Articles specifically explain the theory or definitions about collaborative clinical reasoning. ^{20,42,43} | 3 |
| Problem-solving process Articles directly address the topic of “problem solving” process in the title or keyword, or as the subject of interest throughout the context. ^{44,45} | 2 |
| Minor Content Themes | Double Coding Frequency |
| Articles involve multi-disciplinary team meetings (MDT or MDM) (eg. 13 cancer MDTs, 1 thoracic) | 14 |
| Communication and other factors (eg. culture) in decision-making | 8 |
| Collective intelligence (eg. compositional team cognition) | 4 |
| Trigger for decision-making (eg. Nurses initiate decision-making) | 2 |
| Team conversational data (their relation to decision-making | 2 |

| | |
|----------------------------|----------|
| or problem solving) | |
| Simulation in ward | 1 |

2