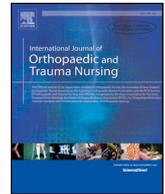




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Understanding research: Qualitative research in orthopaedic and trauma nursing



Understanding research series

This ‘Understanding Research’ series aims to provide a plain language explanation of the various types of research related to orthopaedic and trauma practice. Each article in the series will identify why research is important, who uses the knowledge from research, how it is used to shape or influence practice and its importance in the delivery of safe and effective practice that is based on high quality research and evidence.

It is important that all health care professionals develop skills in understanding, reading, conducting and incorporating research into their practice. For some people, understanding research articles may be challenging, especially for those not experienced in reading, conducting or using research. The language used can seem complicated and make understanding, and therefore using, research difficult. This series will explore different approaches to research, explain why research is conducted in a certain way and consider the benefits of using different approaches whilst defining some of the terminology used.

There is much focus in nursing practice, and in the literature, on ensuring that practice is based on good quality evidence, but it is important to understand what evidence is, where it comes from and how to know if it is of a high enough quality to influence practice. Best practice recommendations are rarely based on a single piece of evidence. Policy and practice tend to change over time in response to new evidence identified through research. When thinking about changing practice, clinicians can become overwhelmed when there are large amounts of literature to consider on a given topic and it can be confusing if research appears contradictory, so identifying exactly what best practice can be difficult. This is compounded by the fact that not all research is conducted or reported well. Evidence may also be specific to a setting or situation and may not always be relevant for another situation or setting.

This series will assist the reader in understanding what constitutes good research. It is hoped that this will facilitate reading and understanding various types of research, allowing practitioners to begin applying and incorporating this knowledge to practice.

Qualitative research

While qualitative research can be considered a relatively new way of conducting research, the focus of the research and the methods that it uses have been in existence for centuries. It was not until the 20th century that this type of research began to be defined more clearly and accepted more broadly as a valuable approach to conducting research and understanding the complex relationships and organisation of our world. It grew out of the social/health sciences and humanities disciplines and sought to better understand the complexities of the modern

world by considering the context of situations, complex relationships and experience of people in various situations.

The paradigm of qualitative research seeks to answer questions about intangible concepts. Ellis (2016) states that qualitative research ‘... is about feelings, understanding and being, and is therefore more difficult to measure in a direct way’ (p.11). Qualitative research is used when the researcher needs to better understand human reality, their social world and the processes which relate to them (Schneider et al., 2007). It seeks to understand and make more obvious things such as the experience of people to certain circumstances, the complexities of our social order that have an impact on our everyday experiences and the factors that influence the way people interact and behave. The qualitative paradigm is a broad term that has been referred to as either interpretive or critical research. Interpretive research is concerned with explaining or describing reasons in order to better understand the phenomenon of interest or the experience (Richardson-Tench et al., 2018). On the other hand, critical research aims to create change in a system through a greater understanding of the area of interest (Richardson-Tench et al., 2018). Whether research is interpretive or critical depends on the underlying philosophical assumptions of the researcher (see Table 1).

Adapted from Polit and Hungler (1997).

The differences in these terms will be explored in more detail in the following sections.

Interpretive research

The social interactions that involve human consciousness and subjectivity are the basis for interpretive research (Taylor, 2013). It offers the opportunity to find answers to questions based on social experiences, how it is created and how it provides meaning to the human experience (Speziale et al., 2011). Complex factors such as experience, context and relationships between groups, as well as experiences of particular situations or meanings in certain circumstances, are better explained through interpretive research. The relationship between the researcher and the participants is important in this paradigm, so subjectivity and context influence should be considered in this type of research. Understanding the social world of humans requires identifying the underlying assumptions such as meanings and beliefs that the individual/s ascribes to a phenomenon.

Ethnography, phenomenology and grounded theory are some of the main forms of interpretive research that use this approach. Sociology and anthropology are the roots of this philosophical paradigm. The making of meaning by human beings and their interpretation of their reality are fundamental to this approach. The purpose of such research is to understand the meaning of the complexities of the experiences within interactions between individuals, groups and systems that then

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Table 1
Research purposes and research questions.

	Questions Interpretive	Questions Critical
Identification	What is this phenomenon?	
Description	What is important about this phenomenon?	What is happening here?
Exploration	What is the full nature of this phenomenon?	What is really going on here?
Explanation	What is the meaning of the phenomenon?	What are the social forces that maintain the status quo?
Prediction and control		How successful is this change?

allows refinement of practice and healthcare delivery to improve the experience and lives of those involved in that phenomenon. Nursing has used this approach in the past for the reason, amongst others, that it focussed on the holistic perspective of certain circumstances, settings or people. However, contemporary nursing research employs a wide range of research methodologies.

Ethnography

Ethnography has become an increasingly popular methodology in nursing research. It follows a long tradition associated with anthropology, but is now far removed from traditional ethnography which began with researchers spending vast amounts of time undertaking fieldwork, documenting the cultures of ancient tribes. However, the fundamental tenets of ethnography are unchanged as it is concerned with understanding cultural groups. Ethnography is the description (graphic) of a group of people and their culture (ethno) (Oliffe, 2005).

The key elements of culture include; the knowledge inherent in the group, the behaviour of those in the group and the common values and shared ideals, that members of the group identify as being specific to their culture. While such groups may be large cultural groups based on location, religion or race, they can also be groups who share other common values and which are not limited by the traditional consideration of race or religion etc. Groups such as nurses or nurses working in a specialty or setting will share common values and norms and can be the subject of ethnographic studies. All ethnographic research uses a range of data collection methods in studying what components or elements reflect a particular culture. Three key activities are featured in ethnographic data collection: what activities the group are engaged in; what things are meaningful to those in the group; and what the group members are saying (Ellis, 2016; Spradley, 1980). The aim of ethnography is to study a group in their own environment (Ellis, 2016), so observation in the field is an important data collection method for this methodology. Interviews or focus groups can also be conducted to better understand the culture within the setting and are usually informal and undertaken in the field. Ethnographic research is holistic and seeks to understand the complexity of the social situation. This methodology also allows the researcher to view the significance of material objects (artefacts), such as nursing practice tools, meetings and strategy documents used by the culture in the natural environment.

Phenomenology

The phenomenological approach to qualitative research is concerned with the lived experience of the individual. It is designed to look at the core elements of an experience from the participant's perspective. The individual's experience of the phenomenon is at the core of the research which aims to reveal the thoughts, perspectives, and behaviours from the individual's perspective (Schneider et al., 2016). Due to the individual nature of this approach, it is imperative that the research is conducted with a clear direction and within a rigorous analytical framework to enable the participant's story to be truly reflected. Phenomenology focusses on the uniqueness of an experience to an individual. There are two main schools of thought regarding phenomenology: Husserlian and Heideggerian. Husserl was the founder of descriptive phenomenology which views human beings as subjects in a

world of objects and is primarily interested in; what do we know? (Schneider et al., 2007). Here the experience of individuals is described, but not interpreted as to its meaning. Bracketing is used by researchers with the aim of identifying and considering their pre-conceived thoughts and prejudices to allow better transparency and conduct of the research and is also a feature of Husserlian descriptive phenomenology (Schneider et al., 2007). Heidegger, who was a student of Husserl, was the founder of interpretive phenomenology which is concerned with understanding the person's position and the meaning of that experience (Schneider et al., 2007). If you consider the phenomenological approach in the context of your patients, there are clinical examples of where individual experience influences your practice. An example is pain. If you interviewed some of your patients about their lived experiences of pain, you would collect many different responses. In the phenomenological approach it is important for the researcher not to influence the analysis of phenomenological data with their own experience. Pain is a good example of that, as it is a common experience that all humans endure.

Interpretive Phenomenology Analysis (IPA) is form of phenomenology that is being used more widely and, as detailed by Smith, it provides a comprehensive pragmatic approach to hermeneutics (Smith et al., 2009).

Grounded theory

Gerrish and Lathlean (2015) established grounded theory which was developed to provide a theoretical explanation for socially constructed events (Schneider et al., 2007). There are three main theorists for researchers to consider when choosing a Grounded Theory approach – 1) Glazer, 2) Strauss and Corbin and 3) Charmaz (Schneider et al., 2007). Grounded theorists ask the questions: 'what social processes are occurring here and what do they mean?' Grounded theory is a good choice of methodology for research topics where there is little known about the area being researched. There is no need for a literature review before commencing the research as the approach allows the researcher to build their case from the ground up. The roots of grounded theory are in the theoretical framework of symbolic interactionism, which considers that people are both 'self-aware' and 'aware of others' (Schneider et al., 2016). Grounded Theory is prescriptive and has a well-defined method for data collection, analysis and theory building. These processes include developing concepts which can be grouped to form categories (Liamputtong, 2010). A formal theory may be identified if there is a relationship between categories and this theory explains the meaning of the studied topic to the participants (Liamputtong, 2017). The purpose is to explain the processes rather than just provide a description of the studied topic. Constant comparative analysis is a feature of grounded theory. The researcher works with the data in a process of analysis throughout the course of the research and may clarify interpretations and codes with participants during initial or subsequent interviews (Richardson-Tench et al., 2018).

Critical research

Critical research has some similarities to interpretive research, but the power relationships in society and their impact are acknowledged and considered in the critical research process. It accepts that reality

(the human experience and activity) is shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic and gender values (Speziale et al., 2011) and that the researcher positionality. It seeks to improve quality of life through emancipation and some examples are action research and feminist research. This approach aims to work with participants as co-researchers to bring about change by addressing problems systematically in practice and use the participants being studied as part of the research process itself (Taylor, 2013). An example is the study by Hurdle (2001) who considered the role and value of social support to improve healthcare outcomes for women in a previously under researched area.

Action research

Action Research was developed by a social psychologist Kurt Lewin in 1946 and has its roots in critical social theory (Schneider et al., 2016). Narrowing the gap between research recommendations and implementation was the underlying motivation for the development of action research. The idea was to involve the potential beneficiaries (people) of the research outcomes in the research process. This collaborative, inclusive and negotiated methodology was designed to achieve common recommendations and actions. Action research is an umbrella term that includes research processes such as: Cooperative Inquiry, Action Inquiry, Participatory Action Research (PAR), Appreciative Inquiry, Collaborative Inquiry and Participative Inquiry (Schneider et al., 2016).

Action research goes to the area of concern and works with those involved to generate solutions to problems that individuals experience in their everyday lives (Richardson-Tench, 2018). These individuals become the co-researchers in the search for a solution. For example, the researchers may work with a group of nurses as co-researchers when trying to generate a solution to a clinical practice issue. There are four beginning collective stages in action research which are planning; acting; observing and reflecting (Richardson-Tench et al., 2018). These stages lead to another cyclic phase which consists of revising the plan and then taking further action, observing and reflecting. These collaborative processes are pivotal to the success of action research (see Fig. 1).

Feminist research

Feminist research, as the name suggests, has a major focus on women and their experiences. The principles of feminist research are concerned with embodiment, empowerment and emancipation (Richardson-Tench et al., 2018). The exploration of issues that result in addressing discrepancies and inequality for women is the focus for this approach (Im, 2010). The research is directed at bringing about change for women in the specific area being researched such as health care provision. The methods of the research need to be undertaken in such a

way that they reflect feminist processes. In terms of a particular method, this is not prescriptive and is only dependent on the research focus and therefore can include interviews, group work, storytelling or participant observation (Richardson-Tench et al., 2018)..(see Table 2)

Data collection approaches used in qualitative research

The purpose of data collection in qualitative research is to access the participant's perspective regarding the study topic. Therefore, the data collection method needs to be congruent with the methodology. For example, if ethnography is the chosen methodology then data collection that identifies the cultural aspects of a particular group are required, so participant observation would likely be part of the data collection process (Ellis, 2016). Whereas other qualitative methods may rely on interviews and focus groups for data collection. Some methodologies may employ the use of a variety or combination of data collection methods where appropriate but must serve the purpose of the research and be congruent with the methodology.(see Table 3.

Observational data collection

With this form of data collection the researcher (observer) either observes the (participants) phenomenon or becomes immersed in the setting. For example, in ethnographic research a researcher may observe nursing practice on a ward and record their interpretation of the activities. The idea is to allow the research to understand the context (setting and practices) of the participants before further stages of the research, such as interviews occur (Ellis, 2016). The researcher also takes field notes to augment the observational data.

Verbal data collection

Verbal is the most common method of data collection in qualitative research (Ellis, 2016). Structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews as well as focus groups are common collection methods.

Interviews

Structured interviews have set questions and the researcher asks the same questions in a particular order to each participant to provide consistency (Bibi et al., 2018). Semi-structured interviews consist of more general questions that do not have to be asked in a particular order and allows the interview to be more reflexive and adaptive in nature (Bibi et al., 2018). This gives the researcher the opportunity to ask more in-depth and probing questions to elicit richer data from the participants. This is the most common form of questions for interviews in qualitative research (Norwood, 2010). There are no predetermined questions for unstructured interviews, with probing and exploratory questions used (Norwood, 2010).

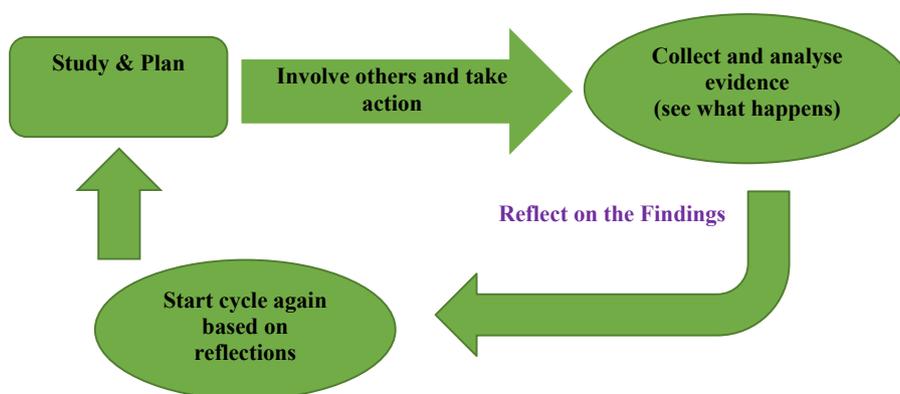


Fig. 1.

Table 2

Glossary of common qualitative research terms	
Term	Meaning
Action Research	Research design that considers the introduction of change involving collaboration between researchers and practitioners. Often involves a cyclical research method of plan, implement, evaluate and repeat.
Bracketing	Used in methodologies such as phenomenology to identify and set aside the researchers' own beliefs, opinions and experiences.
Coding	A method of data analysis in qualitative methodologies where data (from interviews or observations) is allocated a code or category by the researcher. These codes can be clustered together to identify themes that describe the findings.
Data Collection	Information collected during research that forms the basis of the study's findings - the interpretation of that data. In qualitative research data can be transcripts from interviews, focus groups, observations, open ended questions in surveys and also texts and documents from the study setting. Traditionally 'data' refers to the plural noun and 'datum' singular - although, in the contemporary world, data tends to be used for both.
Data Saturation	Refers to the point in data collection where no new information is being uncovered in the research.
Ethnography	Qualitative research that explores behaviour, beliefs and experiences of different groups based on culture. Here, culture does not necessarily mean things such as ethnic groups, but is more about groups who share various beliefs, practices and characteristics.
Fieldwork	Refers to data collection in the field of study - often in the natural environment or setting of the area of research; ie on a specific ward of a hospital. Includes mapping, observations etc.
Grounded Theory	Research that attempts to provide an explanation or a theoretical framework to account for the social situation being studied.
Phenomenology	A form of research designed to describe the experience of people within a certain phenomenon or setting. Can be descriptive in nature, where the experience is described. Or it may be interpretative where the meaning behind the experience is sought.

Adapted from.
Rees (2016).

Interviews are usually recorded and are then transcribed. Commonly, the participants are given the transcript to verify the content (Ellis, 2016).

Focus groups

Focus groups usually consist of approximately 6–10 participants who come from a similar background relating to the context of the study (Norwood, 2010). Unlike interviews, there are often two researchers involved in a focus group, one as facilitator and the other as an observer who takes notes on body language and behaviour (Ellis, 2016). The purpose is similar to interviews but allows more discussion

within a group in which participants debate ideas and generate new data.

All of the verbal data collection methods described have commonly been undertaken using a face to face approach, but there are now some online alternatives such as chat rooms, online meetings rooms, over the telephone or discussion boards (Ellis, 2016).

Data analysis

Just as the method of data collection needs to be congruent with the methodology chosen, the method of analysis needs to fit as well. Data analysis is an essential phase of the research process concerned with the

Table 3

Example of research studies employing specific qualitative methodologies.

Methodology	Example research article	Synopsis	Implications for practice
Ethnography	Lau, J. B. C., Magarey, J., & Wiechula, R. Violence in the emergency department: An ethnographic study (Part I & Part II). <i>International Emergency Nursing</i> (Lau et al., 2012a,b)	Considered the cultural aspects of violence including observations and interviews with nurses. Culture here is not related to nationality etc but the culture of that setting.	The complex nature of violence in this setting is explored and strategies identified that assist nurses in preventing and managing violence.
Phenomenology	Bibi, S., Rasmussen, P., & McLiesh, P. The lived experience: Nurses' experience of caring for patients with a traumatic spinal cord injury. <i>International Journal of Orthopaedic and Trauma Nursing</i> . (Bibi et al., 2018).	The experience of orthopaedic nurses caring for patients with traumatic spine injury is explored.	This knowledge is used to provide guidance for nurses new to the setting in how to best manage the challenges of delivering care to this patient population.
Grounded Theory	Norton, E, Holloway, I & Galvin, K., Comfort vs risk: a grounded theory about female adolescent behaviour in the sun. <i>Journal of Clinical Nursing</i> (Norton et al., 2014)	Develop an understanding of the behaviour of this population and why they behave in certain ways. Identified reasons that influence the behaviour and decisions that may not have been traditionally considered such as fitting in and comfort	Allowed healthcare professionals to design more effective health messages re sun safe activities that address the reasons for risk taking behaviours.
Action Research	Cusack, L., De Crespigny, C., & Wilson, C. Over-the-counter analgesic use by urban Aboriginal people in South Australia. <i>Health & Social Care in the Community</i> (Cusack et al., 2013)	Exploration of Aboriginal people's knowledge, use and experience of over-the-counter analgesics. Identified a lack of knowledge in this area and a dearth of culturally and linguistically available information.	Offers insight into this potentially dangerous activity and allows researchers, clinicians and governments an opportunity to target this group with appropriate interventions to limit poor outcomes.
Feminist	Im, E. Current trends in feminist nursing research. <i>Nursing Outlook</i> (Im, 2010)	An exploration of contemporary trends in feminist nursing research to assist future research in this area.	Recommend a wider range of researchers consider study in nursing to better understand the complex factors that impact this group.
Thematic Analysis	Rasmussen, P. Identifying the scope of practice in nursing specialties using child and adolescent mental health as an illustration. <i>The Journal of Mental Health Training, Education and Practice</i> (Rasmussen, 2015)	Explored the applicability of a conceptual framework of practice for areas without a clear scope of practice.	Makes the scope of practice in these specific areas more explicit that can then be used to develop better specialist practice and contribute new knowledge to nurses working and developing their expertise in these areas.

interpretation of the meaning of the data that have been collected. These interpretations are usually referred to as the findings of the research. The researcher is seeking patterns or themes in the words of the participants rather than statistical significance through numbers as would be the case in quantitative methodology. Through the analysis process the researcher interprets the data (Nagy, 2010) and endeavours to elicit meaning from it. This process leads the researcher to the answer to their research question. In the case of qualitative research ‘... the findings resulting from data analysis are presented using excerpts ...’ (Nagy, 2010 p. 137). The excerpts are the words or actions of the participants used to provide illustrations to support the themes that are developed. Although data analysis usually concerns text, sometimes it can involve art, music or relics which have been part of the data collection. Unlike quantitative data analysis, qualitative analysis is always influenced by the researcher’s own perceptions and experiences so it has a subjective component to it (Nagy, 2010). This is addressed through rigour in the conduct of the research process which includes; credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability (Box 1).

The process of data analysis requires a large time commitment from the researcher. According to Ellis (2013), ‘There are essentially four steps that are required to analyse qualitative research data:

1. Reducing the raw data to something more manageable;
2. Filtering the important ideas out from the less significant;
3. Identifying important themes;
4. Constructing a theory/hypothesis or narrative account of the analysis’. (p. 59)

There are variations of the analysis process or methods such as content analysis or discourse analyses etc.

The researcher becomes very familiar with the data through using the above steps. To become familiar with the data the researcher needs to read it many times and this allows them to distil what the participants are saying. The themes that are developed from the data are the end result of this process. The meanings in the participants’ data need to be supported by excerpts from the transcript to further support the credibility of the research findings. The findings are then developed into a narrative (story) that reflects what the participants are saying. There is an interrelation between data collection and data analysis in the qualitative paradigm (Norwood, 2010), with analysis often beginning while the researcher is in the field as they are note taking.

The more traditional storage format of data is handwritten or typed notes and excerpts as the researcher works through the analysis. However, some researchers find computer programs such as QSR NVivo preferable.

Thematic analysis

The thematic analysis process involves identifying the explicit (overt) and implicit (covert) themes in the data. The themes that relate more closely to the questions asked in the data collection are the explicit themes. So, for the researcher these are the themes that more obviously answer or are related to the questions. Implicit themes are

more covert in nature and become more overt as the researcher continues their analysis of the data. Implicit themes are the unsaid or taken for granted assumptions the participants have about their domain (Nagy et al., 2010).

Content analysis and coding

Content analysis is concerned with analysing the text from transcripts. Coding is the process by which the researcher identifies connected ideas and concepts in the data. These are then labelled using a meaningful word which can be from the actual words of the participants (Nagy, 2010). This allows the researcher to determine how often individual concepts are used in the data.

The data analysis method that is chosen needs to be in keeping with the data collection method of the study. The method chosen must enable the researcher to answer the research question through an analysis to identify the findings of the research. Analysis needs to go further than just a written description of the data as it needs to identify the underlying themes and contextualise them through the lens of the methodology. In other words, the findings need to reflect a deeper meaning of the data (participant’s responses) in the context of the research question.

Rigour

As with quantitative research, rigour is an important element of good research. Some concepts such as bias, which are important in quantitative research, are dealt with in a different way in qualitative research. For example, in ethnography the researcher’s perspective may be included in the research data as they have recorded their observations and responses to the culture they are studying it. This may also be the case with phenomenology, where the participant and researcher perspectives may be combined. Therefore rigour or trustworthiness must be clearly demonstrated.

A useful mnemonic when appraising rigour in qualitative research is **FACTS** (Box 1).

(Jakubec and Astle, 2017).

Ethical considerations

As with any type of research methodology used, there are fundamental principles of ethics that must be followed and demonstrated in relation to the design and conduct of the research. While ethical guidelines may vary between countries or settings, the overall principles remain the same and it must be made clear in any research paper that the research is conducted ethically, effectively and safely and is designed to bring the greatest benefit to all. The predominant ethical principle for any research is that the people, animals or systems involved in the research are protected, as effectively as possible, from injury or adverse events, harm is minimised and anonymity and rights of those involved are maintained.

Due to the nature of qualitative research, the data collected and the methods of investigation, there are potential risks to those involved in

Box 1 Rigour in qualitative research - FACTS

Fittingness or transferability which refers to the how the findings can be applied to another context.

Auditability or confirmability and is concerned with having demonstrated a clear methodological trail of how the themes or findings were developed.

Credibility and refers to the level of confidence that the reader has that the findings accurately represent the participant’s experience.

Trustworthiness which is reflected in the demonstrated accurateness of the research methodological process.

Saturation which is demonstrated when there is no new information to add to the data.

the research (participants). This may be due to the personal nature of the observations or data being collected and uncomfortable or negative psychological states may be uncovered for the participants while discussing challenging situations or experiences (Hadjistavropoulos and Smythe, 2001). There is also potential risk to the researchers that should be considered, especially if data collection involves exposure to the clinical setting during observations. When planning and conducting the research, the researchers should consider these potential risks and design systems that minimise the risk/s and have a plan to limit the severity of any impact. In certain qualitative methodologies there may be potential risks to participants who reveal their beliefs or disclose certain experiences to the researcher that may be seen by others outside of the research as a problem. An example may be an employee making a statement about a workplace experience that reflects poorly on the leadership or the organisation. The researcher must plan how that information is to be managed and how the identity of the participant is to be protected.

Research must also seek to improve the lives of those involved, either now or in the future (*National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* (2007) (updated May 2015)). Researchers should design and conduct their studies in an ethical manner, but they should

also seek and gain official approval from the relevant human ethics committee before the research begins. Terminology used by the group that is responsible for this may vary in various parts of the world. How the authors have addressed all ethical principles should be clearly stated in any publication/article and they must identify that they have received approval from the appropriate ethics committee with an approval number.

Conclusion

This article, the third in a series focused on understanding research, has explored the design and conduct of qualitative research. It is hoped that a better understanding of this type of research will allow the reader to better read a qualitative research article, understand it and conduct a critique of it with more confidence. It will also provide the knowledge needed to develop an understanding of qualitative research methods that the practitioner may be able to apply to practice. Further reading to support this is suggested in [box 1](#). This knowledge should assist in developing a critical thinking approach to issues and challenges encountered in practice to help to improve the quality of practice and associated outcomes (see [Box 2](#)).

Box 2

Suggested further Reading

Books

- Ellis, P. (2016). *Understanding Research for Nursing Students*: SAGE Publications.
- Gerrish, K., et al. (2015). *The Research Process in Nursing*, Wiley
- Jakubec, S., & Astle, B. (2017). *Research Literacy for Health and Community Practice: Canadian Scholars*.
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- Polit, D. and Beck, C. (2013) *Essentials of Nursing Research: Appraising Evidence for Nursing Practice*.
- Rees, C. (2016). *Rapid Research Methods for Nurses, Midwives and Health Professionals*: Wiley.

Journal Articles

- Decoyna, J., McLiesh, P. & Salamon, Y. (2018). Nurses and physiotherapists' experience in mobilising postoperative orthopaedic patients with altered mental status: A phenomenological study. *International Journal of Orthopaedic and Trauma Nursing*, 29, 32–40 ([Decoyna et al., 2018](#))
- Marks, A., Wilkes, L., Blythe, S., & Griffiths, R. (2017). A novice researcher's reflection on recruiting participants for qualitative research. *Nurse Researcher*, 25(2), 34-38 ([Marks et al., 2017](#))
- Phillippi, J., & Lauderdale, J. (2018). A Guide to Field Notes for Qualitative Research: Context and Conversation. *Qualitative Health Research*, 28(3), 381-388 ([Phillippi and Lauderdale, 2018](#))

Websites

- Joanna Briggs Institute (JBI)- Research & development centre
Home page: <http://joannabriggs.org/>
Critical Appraisal tools: <http://joannabriggs.org/research/critical-appraisal-tools.html>
JBI Approach: <http://joannabriggs.org/jbi-approach.html>
- National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) – Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research
Australian Government
<https://www.nhmrc.gov.au/guidelines-publications/r39>
- National Institute of Nursing Research
<https://www.ninr.nih.gov/>
- National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) – UK National Guidance on improving practice based on evidence
<https://www.nice.org.uk/>
- Phenomenology Research Center
<http://www.phenomenologyresearchcenter.org/>
- Qualitative Research Guidelines Project
<http://www.qualres.org/>

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