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1 **Clinical decisions and time since rest break: An analysis of**
2 **decision fatigue in nurses**

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47

48 **ABSTRACT**

49

50 **Objective:** The present study investigates whether nurses working for a
51 national medical telephone helpline show evidence of 'decision fatigue', as
52 measured by a shift from effortful to easier and more conservative decisions
53 as the time since their last rest break increases.

54

55 **Methods:** In an observational, repeated-measures study, data from ~4,000
56 calls to 150 nurses working for the Scottish NHS 24 medical helpline (37% of
57 the national workforce) were modelled to determine whether the likelihood of
58 a nurse deciding to refer a patient to another health professional the same
59 day (the clinically safest, but most conservative and resource inefficient
60 decision) varied according to the number of calls taken/time elapsed since a
61 nurse's last rest break and/or since the start of shift. Analyses used mixed-
62 effect logistic regression.

63

64 **Results:** For every consecutive call taken since last rest break, the odds of
65 nurses making a conservative management decision (i.e. arranging for callers
66 to see another health professional the same day), increased by 5.5% ($p=.001$,
67 95% CI: 2.2%, 8.8%), an increase in odds of 20.5% per work hour ($p<.001$,
68 95% CI: 9.1%, 33.2%) or 49.0% (on average) from immediately after one
69 break to immediately before the next. Decision making was not significantly
70 related to general or cumulative workload (calls or time elapsed since start of
71 shift).

72

73 **Conclusions:** Every consecutive decision that nurses make since their last
74 break produces a predictable shift towards more conservative, and less
75 resource efficient decisions. Theoretical models of cognitive fatigue can
76 elucidate how and why this shift occurs, helping to identify potentially
77 modifiable determinants of patient care.

78

79 **Keywords:** decision making; fatigue; clinical decisions; nurses; efficiency

80

81

82

83 **INTRODUCTION**

84

85

86 *“We think, each of us, that we're much more rational than we are. And we*
87 *think that we make our decisions because we have good reasons to make*
88 *them.” Daniel Kahneman (2012)*

89

90

91 In order to make decisions about patients, health professionals must take in
92 and weigh up relevant information and make a choice about the most
93 appropriate course of action to take. While it is tempting to believe that the
94 decisions of health professionals are based entirely on logic and a balanced
95 weighing of the information available, human decision-making is susceptible
96 to a wide range of individual, social and environmental influences. In a highly-
97 cited study of judicial decisions, Danziger, Levav and Avnaim-Pesso (2011)
98 studied the parole decisions of court judges over the course of the working
99 day. While the probability of a judge deciding to release a prisoner on parole
100 at the beginning of the day was ~65%, this fell steadily to nearly 0% as time
101 since the start of the court session wore on, returning to ~65% after a
102 food/rest break and again falling steadily to 0% towards the end of the day.

103 The pattern reported fits with the psychological phenomenon '*decision*
104 *fatigue*': a state occurring when mental resources become depleted and/or
105 when motivation to exert mental effort declines over time resulting in a
106 measurable shift towards easier, safer, or more gratifying decisions and
107 actions (Pignatiello, Martin & Hickman, 2018). In the judge's case, the 'safest'

108 and therefore mentally easiest option was to maintain the status quo (denying
109 parole); the more depleted judges became, the more likely they were to select
110 this conservative option until an opportunity arose (in the form of a break) to
111 rest and replenish their resources. Since its publication, re-analyses of the
112 original data and data simulation studies have suggested that non-random
113 ordering of cases before judges and/or explicit planning of cases around
114 breaks is likely to explain some or all of the observed effects (Weinshall-
115 Margel & Shapard, 2011; Glockner, 2016). However, the decision fatigue
116 phenomenon has been observed in multiple contexts where such factors are
117 less likely to be an issue.

118 Exertion-based depletion effects were first observed more than a
119 century ago with Arai (1912) noting in a study of continuous work over time
120 that “.....continued work brings about a decrease in the efficiency of the
121 [mental] function exercised” (p. 114). Depletion effects are evident in a wide
122 range of contexts with people being, for example, more likely to cheat at
123 effortful tasks late in the day (Kouchaki & Smith, 2014), more likely to give up
124 on diets at the end of the day (McKee, Ntoumani & Taylor, 2014), more likely
125 to accept default options at the end of a series of consecutive decisions
126 (Levav, Heitmann, Hermann & Iyengar, 2010) and less able to perform well on
127 cognitive tests later in the day (Sievertsen, Gino & Piovesan, 2016). Within
128 the healthcare context, compliance with hand hygiene protocols declines
129 predictably from the start to the end of shifts (Dai, Milkman, Hofmann &
130 Staats, 2015; Chudleigh, Fletcher & Gould, 2005), gastroenterologists are
131 more likely to detect polyps during morning than afternoon colonoscopies
132 (Chan, Cohen, & Spiegel, 2009), and doctors prescribe more unnecessary

133 antibiotics towards the end than the start of clinic sessions (Linder, Doctor,
134 Friedberg, Reyes Nieva, Birks, Meeker & Fox, 2014).

135 These decision fatigue effects have been primarily conceptualized as
136 either the result of 'ego depletion', that is a decrease in the availability of the
137 mental resources required to exert effortful self-control (Baumeister,
138 Pratlavsky, Muraven & Tice, 1998; Baumeister, 2002), or of a progressive
139 reduction in the motivation required to continue expending effort on the same
140 task (Inzlicht & Schmeichel, 2012; Inzlicht, Schmeichel & Macrae, 2014;
141 Kurzban, Duckworth, Kable & Myers, 2013). Recent registered replication
142 reports (i.e. collections of independently conducted direct replications which
143 follow an identical protocol) find no evidence of the former, self-control
144 specific, ego-depletion effect (Hagger, Chatzisarantis, Alberts, Anggono,
145 Batailler et al, 2016), but, as outlined above, many observational studies
146 demonstrate predictable changes in behaviour and decision-making over time
147 that are compatible with the motivational account (Danziger et al, 2011;
148 Sievertsen et al, 2016; Dai et al, 2015). Within the context of nursing,
149 research which directly contrasts these opposing accounts of fatigue finds
150 motivational factors (perceived reward, perceived control) but not indicators of
151 remaining resource (energy expenditure, work demands) to be consistently
152 related to subjectively experienced fatigue over the working day (Johnston,
153 Allan, Powell, Jones, Farquharson et al, 2018). However, this work looks only
154 at the subjective fatigue reported by nurses and not at any potentially clinically
155 relevant consequences of that fatigue.

156 Both resource and motivational models would predict that decision
157 fatigue should arise as a result of progressive increases in uninterrupted 'time

158 on task' and consequently, that fatigue effects would be apparent in situations
159 where consecutive decisions are made without a break. Large numbers of
160 consecutive decisions are made in frontline healthcare services where health
161 professionals must make appropriate diagnostic and treatment decisions
162 about a series of patients in turn. Consequently, any systematic changes in
163 decision processes within this context would have clear implications for
164 service provision (Pignatiello, Martin & Hickman Jr, 2018). Furthermore, as
165 the most important predictors of patient outcomes in any clinical context are
166 likely to be fixed (e.g. severity of health condition), identifying new and
167 potentially modifiable theoretical determinants of these outcomes is important.

168 The present paper investigates the presence and extent of decision
169 fatigue effects in the healthcare context, specifically testing whether the
170 number of decisions made by health professionals since a break is, as
171 predicted by theory, associated with a predictable shift towards more
172 conservative (and therefore more expensive and less efficient) decisions. The
173 study focuses on nurses working for the NHS 24 telephone helpline, an NHS
174 Scotland wide service in which nurses assess callers' reported symptoms,
175 make decisions about the most appropriate course of action to take, and
176 direct callers onto primary or secondary care services where required. NHS
177 24 nurses deal with large numbers of cases and make many decisions each
178 day. Importantly for the current research, unlike the judges in Danziger et al's
179 study, nurses in the present study had no control over, or advance knowledge
180 of, the content of incoming calls and limited control over the timing of their
181 breaks, enabling a more robust test of the decision fatigue hypothesis. Using
182 data from ~4,000 real clinical decisions made by 150 nurses, the likelihood of

183 different decisions occurring is modelled from the beginning of a shift, up to
184 and following breaks during each shift. In line with theoretical accounts of
185 decision fatigue, it is expected that nurses will become increasingly likely to
186 make 'safer' and 'easier' (i.e. more conservative) treatment and management
187 decisions the more decisions they have made since their last break.

188

189 The present study tests two hypotheses. The **decision fatigue hypothesis**
190 predicts that nurses will become increasingly likely to make conservative
191 decisions the more uninterrupted time they have spent 'on task' within each
192 work shift. If this hypothesis is correct, nurses should make increasingly
193 conservative decisions the more consecutive decisions they have made
194 and/or the more time that has passed *since their last break* (or in the case of
195 the period prior to the first break of day, since they started their shift). A critical
196 prediction of this hypothesis is that any shift in decision making will occur as a
197 function of time/decisions since last break rather than time elapsed/decisions
198 made in total over the working day as breaks represent the theorised
199 opportunity to replenish motivational and/or cognitive resources. To confirm
200 that any effect detected relates specifically to time/decisions *since break*, a
201 second hypothesis -the **general work hypothesis** -is also tested to determine
202 whether decision making changes predictably over the working day as whole
203 irrespective of opportunities to replenish motivational and/or cognitive
204 resources (i.e. breaks). If this general hypothesis is correct, nurses should
205 become increasingly likely to make conservative decisions the more
206 consecutive decisions they have made and/or the more time that has passed

207 in total *since the start of their shift* (regardless of breaks or time spent 'off-
208 task').

209

210 Each hypothesis is tested in our models with both number of decisions and
211 time elapsed as predictors. This results in four planned analyses. Specifically,
212 the likelihood that nurses would direct callers to another health professional
213 within 12 hours (the most conservative decision) is modelled in relation to (1)
214 the number of consecutive decisions made/calls taken since the last break (or
215 start of shift if prior to first break), (2) time since last break (or start of shift if
216 prior to first break), (3) decisions made/calls taken in total since the start of
217 shift regardless of breaks, and (4) total time spent at work since the start of
218 shift regardless of breaks.

219

220

221 **METHODS**

222

223 **Design and setting**

224

225 In a within-person, repeated measures study, data were collected on the
226 timing and number of calls and decisions made by nurses assessing callers to
227 the NHS 24 telephone service. NHS 24 is a nurse-led telephone (and now
228 online) advice service operating across Scotland and designed to provide >5
229 million members of the public with 24 hour access, 365 days a year, to health
230 services and information. Data for the present study were collected during a
231 comprehensive evaluation of the possible determinants and consequences of

232 stress in nurses working for the NHS 24 service between 2008 and 2010. The
233 original parent study included physiological, behavioural and cognitive
234 measures collected in real time over two full working shifts in addition to
235 information about the calls received by nurses during the measurement
236 period. The study protocol (Allan, Farquharson, Choudhary, Johnston, Jones
237 & Johnston, 2009) gives full details of these measures. Only methodological
238 information of relevance to the present study is presented here. The study
239 was reviewed and ethically approved by the NHS North of Scotland Research
240 Ethics Committee (05/S0801/136).

241

242 **Participants and recruitment**

243 All 465 nurses working in the four main NHS 24 call centres nationally or in
244 any of the 11 associated integrated local call centres were contacted with
245 study information and invited to take part in the study. Those interested in
246 participating ($n=171$ / 37% of the national workforce) returned a signed
247 consent form and arranged suitable shifts for participation. Four participants
248 were excluded (as they were taking medication that would interfere with heart
249 rate recordings taken in the main study), two participants withdrew, it was not
250 possible to schedule data collection with thirteen further participants and data
251 was not available for an additional two participants. This resulted in a final
252 sample of 150 participants (M age = 44 years, $SD = 7.5$). Most participants
253 were female ($n = 142$, representative of the gender split in this workforce) and
254 were employed in seven different call centres across Scotland. Participants
255 worked an average of 22.6 hours per week ($SD = 10.4$), had been qualified for
256 an average of 21 years ($SD = 8.3$) and had been employed by NHS 24 for an

257 average of 3.5 years ($SD = 2.6$).

258

259 **Procedure**

260 Participating nurses were asked to identify two 'typical' shifts from their next
261 month's rota where they would be available for participation and where they
262 would not be engaging in any non-standard activities (e.g. training, away days
263 etc). Data were collected on all calls received by each of the 150 participating
264 nurses over these two full working shifts. Call timing (time of day at which call
265 was taken) and duration (length of call in minutes/seconds) were
266 automatically recorded, and call outcomes (ambulance call-out, GP referral,
267 self-care, information provided, etc. see Table 1) were recorded by the nurse.
268 Most calls to the service are incoming (i.e. a standard call received from a
269 member of the public who has dialled the service or been routed from their
270 GPs number). However, during times of peak demand, urgent calls are
271 prioritised and less urgent calls are queued and returned by nurses later,
272 resulting in outgoing calls. Outgoing calls were excluded from the present
273 analysis as in these cases, nurses know in advance that the call is likely to be
274 non-urgent. Decision making within the service is supported by computerized
275 decision algorithms which highlight additional questions that nurses may wish
276 to ask /conditions that should be considered in response to particular
277 symptoms but in each case, the final decision on treatment / management is
278 made by an individual nurse.

279

280 **Data Coding**

281 Call outcomes - decisions taken by the nurse on which service the patient is

282 referred to and with what level of urgency - were classified as either
283 conservative (i.e. clinically safest and cognitively easier decisions) or not. All
284 decisions where the patient was advised to urgently seek, or was directly
285 referred to primary or secondary care within 12 hours via an urgent as
286 opposed to routine pathway were conceptualized as the conservative option:
287 in these cases, callers would be assessed by at least two health professionals
288 (the NHS 24 nurse and a primary/secondary care practitioner/first responder)
289 within the same day. As patients in these cases are retained within the
290 healthcare system and are assessed via phone and then again face to face
291 the same day, this was deemed the safest option clinically. Such decisions
292 are also cognitively 'easier' as nurses do not need to offer detailed information
293 or instructions to the patient, can resolve any uncertainty they feel about the
294 best course of action and can handover final responsibility for treatment and
295 management decisions to another health professional. These calls were
296 compared to all other calls where outcomes reflected less conservative
297 courses of action (where callers were not retained continuously in the
298 healthcare system but were advised to seek primary or secondary care 'within
299 36 hours', or 'at their leisure').

300

301 Breaks from work were classified as any continuous period of 15 minutes or
302 more between consecutive calls as this reflects the minimum standard break
303 length within the NHS 24 service. Outside of official breaks, nurses are
304 required to remain at their stations so that they are 'available for call' and
305 consequently during these times are unlikely to be truly 'off-task'. The position
306 of each call within the sequence of calls received since (i) start of shift; and (ii)

307 the last break was computed as the predictor of interest.

308

309 **Analysis**

310 The final dataset had a two-level structure with triage decisions made during
311 incoming calls to the service (level-1; $k = 3,948$) nested within individual
312 nurses (level-2; $n = 150$). Nurses' decision making (1 = conservative; 0 = less
313 conservative; as defined above) exhibited meaningful and significant
314 clustering within nurses (ICC = 0.079, SE = 0.017, $p < .001$) and were
315 therefore analysed using two-level mixed-effects logistic regression models.
316 All models included a random intercept, and a fixed effect of shift (first of the
317 two participation shifts = 0; second shift = 1). Since calls at certain times of
318 day may be more likely to involve serious conditions (warranting more urgent
319 responses), all analyses also included time of day (entered as a series of hour
320 of day dummy variables). As participating nurses worked in either one of the
321 larger, main call centres ($n=3$) or in a smaller, regional call centre ($n=4$), call
322 centre size was also controlled for in analyses.

323

324 To test hypothesis 1 (the decision fatigue hypothesis) two models were
325 estimated with the following fixed effects added: Model (i) number of decisions
326 i.e. calls since last break; and Model (ii) time elapsed in hours since the last
327 break. To test hypothesis 2 (the general work hypothesis) a further two
328 models were estimated, with the following fixed effects added: Model (iii)
329 number of decisions since the start of the shift; and Model (iv) time elapsed in
330 hours since the start of the shift. All analyses were carried out in Stata 15.
331 Statistical significance was set at $\alpha = .05$, corrected for multiple comparisons

332 (Bonferroni corrected $\alpha = .0125$).

333

334

335 **RESULTS**

336 The participating nurses did not significantly differ from the rest of the NHS 24
337 workforce in terms of years qualified ($t_{(373)} = -0.817, p=0.41$), years of
338 employment ($t_{(271)} = -0.005, p=0.99$), or number of hours worked per week ($t_{(430)} = 1.14, p=0.25$).

340 During data collection, participating nurses dealt with 5,325 calls in
341 total (mean number of calls per nurse = 35.51; $SD = 11.72$). Of these, 95 calls
342 (1.8%) were coded as 'refused triage' meaning that either the call was
343 disconnected before a decision was made, or no decision could be agreed
344 between nurse and patient. As no decision was made during these 'refused
345 triage' calls, decisions in these cases were recorded as missing and were not
346 included in the analyses. A further 1,282 calls (24.1%) were outgoing calls
347 and were also excluded from the analyses as nurses in these cases had
348 advance knowledge that the call content was non-urgent. The remaining
349 3,948 calls were standard incoming calls and were included in the analyses.
350 During these incoming calls, 3,075 (77.9%) of the decisions made were
351 classified as conservative and 873 (22.1%) as not (see Table 1 for a
352 breakdown of call outcomes).

353 Participating nurses' shifts were on average 7.09 hours long ($SD 1.73$)
354 and involved an average of 13.78 incoming calls ($SD= 6.82$) each lasting an
355 average of 15.04 mins ($SD = 6.08$). There were 662 observed breaks lasting \geq
356 15 mins (mean = 2.30 breaks per shift; $SD = 1.47$. Median break length was

357 25 minutes (IQR 19-35). The average time from the end of a break (or from
358 the start of shift) to the end of the last call taken prior to the next break (or end
359 of shift) was 2.14 hours (SD=1.12). Nurses took an average of 4.35 incoming
360 calls (SD=3.61) between breaks.

361

362 [Table 1 here]

363

364 Table 2 presents the fixed effect regression coefficients from all four models
365 where each model controls for time of day, shift (first or second), and size of
366 call centre.

367

368 Model i (decisions since break) and ii (time since break) test the **decision**
369 **fatigue hypothesis**: whether nurses make more conservative decisions the
370 more consecutive decisions they have made and/or the more time that has
371 passed *since their last break*. The Model i results show that for every
372 additional call taken since their last break, the odds of nurses making a
373 conservative decision increased by 5.5% ($p = .001$, 95% CI: 2.2%, 8.8%). The
374 results for Model ii show a similar effect with time elapsed. The odds of
375 nurses making a conservative decision increase by 20.5% for every hour that
376 passes since the last break ($p < .001$, 95% CI: 9.1%, 33.2%). This translates
377 to an increase in odds of 49.0% from the first call after one break to the final
378 call taken before the next break (i.e. an average of 2.14 hours later).

379

380 Models iii (decisions since start of shift) and iv (time since start of shift), test
381 the **general work hypothesis**: whether nurses simply become more likely to

382 make more conservative decisions with more effort exerted during the whole
383 shift. These models found no effect on decision making of number of calls
384 (decisions) since the start of their shift ($p = .529$) nor time elapsed since start
385 of shift ($p = .766$).

386

387 [Table 2 here]

388

389

390

391 **DISCUSSION**

392

393 The present analysis of ~4,000 clinical decisions made by nurses working for
394 the telephone based NHS 24 service, revealed evidence of a predictable,
395 mental-fatigue related bias in clinical decision making. Specifically, nurses
396 made progressively more conservative and therefore more expensive and
397 less efficient decisions as the time and the number of decisions made since
398 their last rest break increased. For every call taken since last break, the odds
399 of nurses recommending a treatment option that involved callers seeing
400 another primary or secondary care professional within 12 hours increased by
401 5.5%: an increase in odds, on average, of 20.5% an hour or 49.0% from just
402 after one break to just before the next. To convert this into relative
403 probabilities: relative to the first person to call in after a nurse's break, the
404 second caller will be 1.3% more likely to be retained within the healthcare
405 system and seen the same day by another health professional, but the final
406 caller before the next break will be 8.8% more likely to be seen the same day

407 (i.e. a modelled probability of 75.4% immediately after a break, increasing to
408 82.0% before the next break). This effect appears to be related specifically to
409 the number of decisions made / time that has elapsed *since a nurse's last*
410 *break* and not to an accumulation of general fatigue as decisions were
411 unaffected by the total number of calls taken or time at work over the shift as
412 a whole.

413

414 **Theoretical and clinical implications**

415 These results demonstrate that clinical decision makers are not immune to the
416 cognitive biases demonstrated in a range of other settings including law,
417 education and marketing (e.g. Danziger et al, 2011; Sievertsen et al, 2016;
418 Levav et al, 2010). Decision fatigue, i.e. the tendency to become increasingly
419 likely to go for the 'safe', 'default', or 'easy' option as the number of decisions
420 made increases, has long been exploited in the commercial sector. Economic
421 studies, for example, explicitly recommend that high mark-up options be
422 offered to customers late in a series of decisions to increase the likelihood of
423 them being accepted (Levav et al, 2010).

424 From a theoretical standpoint, the present findings cannot determine
425 whether the observed effects arise as the result of depletion of some general
426 cognitive resource or from a progressive shift in motivation away from current
427 task, but either way, they demonstrate that the effect is tied to the length of
428 continuous episodes of work (i.e. without a break) within a work period rather
429 than to the total or cumulative amount of work over the whole work period.

430 Within the clinical context, decision fatigue serves to bias decision
431 making in a conservative direction. This is optimal from a patient safety point

432 of view as retaining patients within the healthcare system will maximize the
433 chances that any detectable health conditions are recognised and treated
434 quickly. However, an increased tendency to refer patients to primary or
435 secondary care services within a short time frame may also increase the
436 number of unnecessary investigations carried out, increase patient anxiety,
437 skew patient expectations of care, and make less efficient use of limited
438 resources. Referring large numbers of patients to primary and secondary care
439 undermines one of the core aims of medical telephone helplines. NHS 24 was
440 established by the Scottish Government in 2001 with a vision to “.....reduce
441 the ever increasing burden on existing services” (NHS 24, 2004). Our analysis
442 suggests that health professionals may become increasingly unable to fulfill
443 this vision as time since break increases. Furthermore, it implies that at times
444 when services are under the highest levels of demand, decision making may
445 be least efficient, since at these times, staff may be less likely to take the
446 breaks required to combat decision fatigue.

447 Importantly, our analysis suggests that it would not be necessary to
448 reduce total workload or shift length in order to reduce the effects of decision
449 fatigue in health professionals. Rather, it suggests that strategic scheduling of
450 (frequent, short) breaks would be the best way to ensure that decision making
451 remains efficient throughout shifts. This may be particularly relevant for those
452 who consciously recognise cognitive changes occurring as previous analyses
453 from the same dataset (Allan, Farquharson, Johnston, Jones, Choudhary &
454 Johnston, 2014) indicate that nurses who report noticing that they are making
455 frequent cognitive failures (slips of attention and memory) are more likely in
456 general to refer callers on to other services.

457 Much empirical data suggests that breaks from work are restorative, in
458 that they function to reduce, or even reverse, fatigue-related changes in
459 decision making and performance. A study of job performance over four
460 weeks (Binnewies, Sonnetag & Mojza, 2010) found that when people had a
461 chance to fully recover from work demands during the weekend they reported
462 better performance of their core work tasks, were more likely to be proactive
463 and show initiative, and more likely to help others on their return to work.
464 Similarly, Dai et al (2015) demonstrated that while health professionals'
465 compliance with hand hygiene guidelines declined systematically over the
466 course of a 12-hour shift, workers with longer breaks between shifts showed
467 reduced depletion effects. While these studies look at 'breaks' in terms of
468 days off work, recent studies suggest that breaks in the day of 20-30 minutes
469 may be sufficient to completely remove cognitive depletion effects
470 (Sievertsen et al 2016). Similarly, there is some evidence to suggest that even
471 breaks of very short durations (3 minutes) are sufficient to mitigate depletion-
472 related declines in productivity (Dababneh, Swanson & Shell, 2001).

473

474 **Future Directions**

475 Future research may be usefully focused on identifying optimal patterns of
476 breaks within the working shifts of healthcare professionals. Nursing shifts are
477 typically longer (8-12 hours) than in other professions (Stimpfel, Sloane &
478 Aiken, 2012) and it is possible that multiple short breaks spaced across the
479 working shift (in addition to core meal and rest breaks) would improve rather
480 than reduce service efficiency. Sievertsen et al (2016) conclude in their study
481 of cognitive test performance over the day that the beneficial effect that

482 resulted from a 20-30 minute break was larger than the initial depletion effect,
483 indicating that frequent breaks over the day may actually improve overall
484 performance. Future studies could investigate varying lengths of break,
485 possibly using an experimental design. Clearly, in a demanding and often
486 short staffed NHS setting, the logistical reality of providing staff with frequent
487 breaks is extremely challenging, but the present analysis suggests this is
488 worth exploring. It is estimated that primary care appointments cost the NHS
489 an average of £120 each (NHS Information Services Division, 2012) so it is
490 possible that frequent, short breaks, if they can safely reduce the number of
491 patients being referred onto other services, could be cost effective.

492 For further development of theory, it is important to investigate whether
493 decision fatigue effects are indeed the result of progressive shifts in
494 motivation away from the current task. If so, then strategic incentives or
495 scheduled changes between different tasks may mitigate the effects.

496 Finally, the present study focused on telephone based nurses who are
497 largely sedentary during working hours. Future studies should investigate
498 whether decision fatigue is enhanced or ameliorated in physically active,
499 ward-based nurses, that is, whether physical and mental fatigue effects
500 interact.

501

502 **Strengths and weaknesses**

503 The present study utilises existing data on the timing and outcome of ~4,000
504 real clinical decisions and the analytical approach allows important theoretical
505 predictions about changes in this clinical decision making to be tested within
506 people over time. As the data replicate the decision fatigue phenomenon

507 observed in other professional groups (judges, GPs), it is likely that the results
508 are generalizable to other occupational settings. In terms of limitations, the
509 present study is observational in nature: it was not possible to experimentally
510 manipulate the timing and frequency of breaks. In addition, as data on call
511 content was not available, it was not possible to determine whether the
512 observed shift towards more conservative decisions was clinically less
513 'appropriate'. While similar studies indicate that clinicians' decision making
514 does become less appropriate over time (Linder et al, 2014), this could not be
515 tested directly in the present study. Finally, breaks were identified as any
516 period of >15 minutes between calls. While all such periods reflect a break
517 from active work, this method of classification is likely to include both officially
518 designated breaks where nurses are completely 'off-task' and periods of
519 inactivity at the workstation while still 'available for call'. The opportunities to
520 rest and recuperate from work may be reduced in the latter case and
521 consequently, the reported results may underestimate the magnitude of any
522 effect of breaks on decision making.

523

524 In conclusion, every consecutive decision that occurs, or hour that passes
525 since a break, produces a predictable and measurable change in nurses'
526 decision making that may function to gradually reduce service efficiency over
527 the working day. Future research should focus on identifying an optimal
528 pattern of breaks to minimize these effects.

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640 Table 1. Descriptive data on calls
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Decision taken by nurse	Frequency (n)
Referral within 12 hours (conservative) - Total	3075
<i>Ambulance sent</i>	390
<i>Urgently attend accident & emergency</i>	277
<i>Urgently attend GP surgery</i>	2382
<i>Urgently speak to GP</i>	17
<i>Other^a</i>	9
Referral outside 12 hour window (less conservative)- Total	873
<i>Attend GP surgery</i>	320
<i>Speak to GP</i>	3
<i>Information provided</i>	176
<i>Self-care advised</i>	237
<i>Other^b</i>	137
Refused Triage	95
Total calls handled	4043

643 ^a Other conservative referrals included to pharmacist, dentist, midwife, primary care
 644 emergency centre

645 ^b Other less conservative referrals included to pharmacist, dentist, midwife, health visitor,
 646 public health nurse, police, optician, breathing space (mental health) or poison information
 647 service.

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Table 2. Mixed effects logistic regressions predicting likelihood of nurses making conservative decisions from (i) number of decisions (calls) since last break, (ii) hours since last break, (iii) number of decisions (calls) since start of shift and (iv) hours since start of shift. Time was entered as a series of dummy hour of day variables and is included in all analyses shown. Complete tables (showing time variables in full) can be found in Supplementary Table S1.

	Odds Ratio	S.E	p	95% CI	
				Lower	Upper
Model i					
Decisions Since Break					
Intercept	3.135	0.649	< .001	2.089	4.703
Shift ^a	0.938	0.076	.430	0.801	1.090
Center Type ^b	1.891	0.353	.001	1.311	2.728
Decisions (calls) since break ^c	1.055	0.017	.001	1.022	1.088
McKelvey & Zavoina Pseudo R ²	0.065				
Model ii					
Time Since Break					
Intercept	3.067	0.635	< .001	2.044	4.603
Shift ^a	0.938	0.0766	.425	0.800	1.098
Center Type	1.825	0.344	<.001	1.289	2.668
Time (hrs) since break ^c	1.205	0.061	<.001	1.091	1.332
McKelvey & Zavoina Pseudo R ²	0.066				
Model iii					
Decisions Since Starting					
Intercept	3.410	0.739	< .001	2.230	5.215
Shift ^a	0.933	0.753	.390	0.796	1.093
Center Type	1.836	0.344	.001	1.272	2.651

Decisions (calls) since start of shift	1.006	0.009	.529	0.988	1.023
McKelvey & Zavoina Pseudo R ²	0.060				

Model iv

Time Since Starting

Intercept	3.685	0.841	< .001	2.356	5.765
Shift ^a	0.936	0.076	.412	0.799	1.097
Center Type	1.830	0.343	<.001	1.267	2.643
Time (hrs) since start of shift	0.992	0.026	.766	0.942	1.045
McKelvey & Zavoina Pseudo R ²	0.060				

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^a Shift coded as 0 = shift one, 1 = shift two; ^b center type coded as 0 = three large centers, 1 = four small centers; ^c Since last break, or start of shift if in first call period.