



second edition

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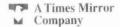
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dedications

To family, friends, colleagues, and students who have extended their love, support, wisdom, encouragement, and perspective during our professional lives and during the development of this book, especially:

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preface

Health and Physical Assessment reflects recent changes in the practice of health assessment by nurses. This new edition represents our beliefs in holistic health assessment as the basis for nursing intervention and practice. Health assessment is presented as the systematic collection of data that health professionals can use to make decisions about how they will intervene to promote, maintain, or restore health. Our goal for this text is to provide an innovative product that reflects and anticipates the ways in which nursing practice and health care are changing.

Health and Physical Assessment is designed for students and beginning practitioners. It contains the theory and skills necessary to collect a comprehensive health history and to perform a complete physical examination. These skills can be most effectively mastered when the text is used within a structured learning environment, which includes supervised student practice in skills laboratories or clinical settings. Because Health and Physical Assessment contains a great deal of substantive detail on examination techniques and findings, the student is not expected to outgrow the text but to continue to use it as a valuable reference in clinical practice.

Throughout this text, the consumer of health care is referred to as the *client* because the term implies the ability of a person, whether well or sick, to contract for health care as a responsible participant, along with the providers, in the health care process. Health care providers cannot expect consumers to accept assessment or intervention unless they have been actively included in the process.

■ ORGANIZATION

The content in *Health and Physical Assessment* is organized in four units. Unit I, *Taking the Health History*, introduces the linkages from health assessment to subsequent steps of the client care process—diagnosis, care planning, and implementation. It also consists of thorough discussions of the art and science of effec-

tively taking and recording a comprehensive health history for purposes of health or illness assessment and management. Unit II, *Holistic Assessment*, assists the reader in understanding and assessing a client holistically, with chapters on developmental, nutritional, and sleep assessment and cultural considerations in health assessment.

Unit III, *Physical Assessment*, follows the traditional body-system approach and contains detailed, richly illustrated discussions of the physical examination of body systems or regions. The chapters in Unit III are consistently organized and include the following headings and content:

Anatomy and Physiology

Health History

Preparation for Examination

Technique for Examination and Normal Findings

Variations from Health

Sample Documentation and Diagnoses

The last chapter in this unit assists the reader in bringing together all physical assessment components into a logical system for performing the comprehensive physical examination.

Although this book focuses on the assessment of the healthy adult client, no comprehensive text on health assessment can ignore the special assessment techniques required by clients of other age groups and with special health needs. Thus Unit IV, Assessing Special Populations, includes chapters that present assessment techniques unique to pregnant women, children, older adults, and individuals with functional limitations. These client groups are frequently served by nurse practitioners.

FEATURES

 Color photographs of physical examination techniques are extensively used to enhance learning, and carefully crafted illustrations clarify significant aspects of the discussion, especially anatomy and physiology.

- ×
- Preparation for Examination boxes quickly present needed equipment and special considerations for preparing the client and setting for an examination.
- Helpful Hint boxes provide tips from experienced practitioners for performing a thorough and accurate assessment.
- Examination Step-by-Step boxes provide a quick overview of the physical examination discussed in a chapter.
- Teaching Self-Assessment is included in all applicable chapters and provides information on health promotion.
- Cultural Considerations boxes provide information on variations in findings that may represent cultural anomalies.
- Sample Documentation and Diagnoses boxes highlight the importance of documenting assessment findings and formulating nursing diagnoses, and can serve as models for documentation in the clinical setting.
- A Glossary is included as a reference at the end of the book and provides definitions of key terms that appear in the text.

SUPPLEMENTS

An Instructor's Manual and Test Bank to accompany Health and Physical Assessment is available. The Instructor's Manual includes, for every chapter in the text, learning objectives and detailed lecture outlines, and the Test Bank includes approximately 1000 questions with answers.

A Student Workbook and Laboratory Manual is available that includes helpful learning exercises to aid the student in obtaining a thorough understanding of the material covered in Health and Physical Assessment. Laboratory checklists and skills checklists are also included to guide the student through learning the components of physical assessment.

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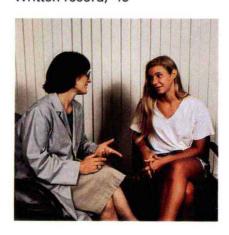
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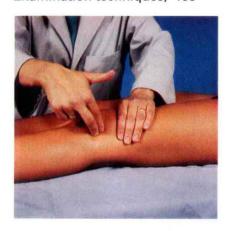
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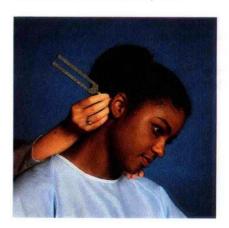
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Clinical Reasoning in Determining Health Status

The chapters that follow present methods to collect data when performing a general health assessment. The examiner uses these data to formulate conclusions about the client's health status. To reach a conclusion, or diagnosis, the practitioner uses a process known as clinical reasoning, or decision making. This chapter discusses the process of clinical reasoning and its relationship to the nursing process and nursing diagnosis. In addition, it presents some methods for facilitating decision making.

M CLINICAL REASONING PROCESS

Process of Gathering Information

The first step in clinical reasoning is gathering information. The general health assessment provides the data or information needed to formulate a diagnosis and eventually a plan of treatment and evaluation. The datagathering process includes:

- 1. Data collection
- 2. Data validation
- 3. Data organization
- 4. Pattern identification

Data collection

Data include information gathered from the first encounter with the client and during the health interview and physical examination. Laboratory data, if applicable, are also considered. These components of a database are part of a general health assessment. In later follow-up with a client, the practitioner focuses the assessment by collecting data on a specific problem or concern.

Data are collected using a system or framework. In the physical examination, the examiner can collect data using several organizing principles: head-to-toe, regional areas of the body (e.g., pelvic examination), or body systems (e.g., cardiovascular or neurological). Each of these methods provides a logical, organized framework for collecting physical assessment data. The practitioner's decision about which method to use is influenced by both priority needs of the client and personal preference. For example, if you see a client for a periodic health examination, you would use a head-to-toe approach. However, if a client who appears in acute distress stated she had just injured her hand, you would begin the assessment by focusing on the body region affected.

As you develop expertise as a practitioner, you will

develop your own approach to data collection that is appropriate to the circumstances, such as the client's age, sex, emotional state, and acuity of the health problem or concern. Whatever approach is used, you must think about the range of possibilities and develop a sensitivity to the possible meaning of all signs and symptoms.

Data validation

Validation is the process of making sure the data collected are accurate. Data obtained using an instrument with a measurement scale can be validated by repeating the measure. For example, if a weight on the clinic scale indicates a 10-pound weight loss since the last visit, you can repeat the weight to validate this measure. Verify information with the client by direct observation or interview. Preferably, validate information yourself, rather than relying on information obtained by others, especially if it involves subjective data open to interpretation. Strategies to validate data include the following:

- Recheck your own data. Go back to an area of the physical examination that you need to palpate or observe again.
- Be sure other factors did not influence the accuracy of the data (e.g., while in a hurry to obtain a blood pressure, you used the wrong-size blood pressure cuff).
- Always recheck information that is grossly abnormal. For example, repeat a systolic blood pressure reading of 260 mm Hg.
- 4. Ask someone, preferably more experienced, to collect the same data. If you hear a grade III systolic heart murmur on physical examination, have another clinician also listen to the heart.
- Recheck previous documentation yourself or with other clinicians to see if abnormal findings were previously recorded.

Data organization

Data are organized by clustering. The ability to do this efficiently depends on the examiner's knowledge, skill, and preference. Theoretical frameworks help to organize data and are discussed in more detail later in this chapter. The different chapters in this book present various frameworks for health assessment. For example, Chapter 16 presents a systems approach (cardiovascular). Chapters 4 and 26 present a developmental approach that modifies the health history and physical examination for the client's age.

Pattern identification

The examiner analyzes the data to determine if gaps exist or if more data are needed to make a diagnosis. For example, if a client states he has a loss of appetite, obtaining a weight is critical to determine if weight loss has occurred. You would compare the current weight with

previous weights to determine if a pattern of weight change is evident. If no previous weights were recorded, you and the client would plan to obtain weight data at a designated frequency over the next month. You would then assess these data to detect any pattern of weight change.

Medical Diagnostic Reasoning Process

Many investigators have studied how physicians diagnose illness. By comparison, few studies concern nursing decision making. However, some of the research that has been done suggests that physicians and nurses use similar clinical reasoning processes. This conclusion seems reasonable, since researchers have suggested that both tradition and necessity require nurses to make both medical and nursing judgments.

The medical diagnostic reasoning process includes four major steps (Table 1.1).

Cue recognition

In the first phase of diagnostic reasoning, the practitioner must recognize that a cue is significant. A cue is a piece of information. It can consist of either subjective or objective data. For example, a subjective cue might be the client's statement, "I feel nervous." In contrast, an objective cue might be observing a client's hand tremor.

Whether a cue is considered significant depends on the practitioner's ability to distinguish between normal and abnormal behavior, physical characteristics, and diagnostic findings. This ability, in turn, depends on the

table 1.1 Stages of Diagnostic Reasoning

Stage	Example
Cue recognition	Look at client's face— notice cyanosis as abnormal
Hypothesis formulation	Client is experiencing impaired gas exchange
Hypothesis testing	Arterial blood gas result: pH 7.32, PcO ₂ 55 m, PO ₂ 65. The client appears restless and confused. Weak cough effort
Hypothesis evaluation	Do enough data exist to confirm the diagnosis of impaired gas exchange? If yes, then diagnosis is made. "Impaired gas exchange related to"

examiner's knowledge base and expertise. You must stay attuned to even slight variations of normal findings, since they may have a significance that is not at first obvious. A knowledgeable and experienced practitioner, for example, might note the slight pallor of a client's nail beds and consider the diagnosis of anemia. In contrast, an inexperienced student might not even notice the subtle change in nail bed color.

In summary, during the first phase of diagnostic reasoning, cue recognition, the practitioner receives thousands of pieces of information. Next, he or she begins to sort the data, keeping some pieces of information and ignoring others. This process of sorting information is called clinical judgment. The remaining data or cues serve as a more efficient resource for the next step in the process: hypothesis formulation.

Hypothesis formulation

During the second phase of diagnostic reasoning, the practitioner decides on possible explanations for the cues recognized in the previous step. This phase is often referred to as hypothesis formulation. Inference is the process of perceiving and interpreting a cue. The examiner must be a critical observer to pick up all cues available. Before making any conclusions, the examiner first clusters or links the cues to determine any patterns. One cue, in isolation, is rarely enough to suggest a particular hypothesis or diagnosis. Rather, the presence of several cues that are usually or always associated with a specific problem helps indicate what other further information is necessary before arriving at a conclusion.

As in the first phase, an examiner's knowledge and expertise strongly influence the diagnostic reasoning process. The practitioner's knowledge influences the interpretation and relative importance of the remaining

cues. Often the novice jumps to early and erroneous conclusions because he or she misinterprets cues, focuses on only one cue, or fails to eliminate irrelevant cues from the cues considered. As a practitioner gains knowledge and experience, he or she builds associations between cues and clinical situations. These associations enable the examiner to cluster cues into meaningful groups and formulate hypotheses.

The formulation of hypotheses or tentative conclusions helps focus further data collection efforts on a manageable group of possibilities. However, the examiner must be careful not to limit further investigation to only one hypothesis, since the likelihood of an accurate final diagnosis increases when several explanations are considered. The examiner must think about the more likely problems, since common problems occur with more frequency, while at the same time entertaining the probability that a rare problem might be presenting itself.

Hypothesis testing

During the third stage of diagnostic reasoning, the practitioner focuses on gathering data to support or reject the previously generated hypotheses. This phase is called hypothesis testing. Examiners use many different data collection strategies during this stage. Tables 1.2 and 1.3 list methods of continued inquiry. One or more of these techniques may be appropriate for a given clinical situation. In addition, the practitioner may be more comfortable using some methods rather than others.

Throughout the hypothesis testing phase, the practitioner needs to guard against having biases about hypotheses. Some of these biases may lead to prematurely accepting a possible explanation or prematurely rejecting an explanation (Table 1.4).

Approach	Explanation	Example
Cue based	Explore each aspect of initial cues until all facets are covered	Facial cyanosis—mucous membranes, ears, skin color
	Investigate the defining characteristics to	Hypoxia?
	confirm their presence or absence	Hypercapnia?
		Restlessness?
		Confusion?
		Irritability?
		Inability to move secretions?
Systematic	Review body systems	Start with respiratory system, then move to cardiovascular system, etc.
Hit or miss	No recognizable strategy	Ask client when last bowel movement took place

table 1.3 Hypothesis Testing Strategies Used by Experts

Strategy	Explanation
Confirmation	Seek data to confirm hypothesis
Elimination	Eliminate hypothesis based on absence of key signs and symptoms (defining characteristics)
Discrimination	Investigate defining characteristics that separate diagnoses with similar signs and symptoms (i.e., look for those characteristics that are different)
Exploration	Consider investigation of diagnoses with similar manifestations

Bias	Explanation
Frequency of occurrence	If the diagnosis being considered has been made frequently, it has a higher probability of being chosen.
Recency of experience	If the clinician has made the considered diagnosis in the recent past, the clinician may be more familiar with this diagnosis than with other related diagnoses.
Profoundness of memory	Vivid impressions of cases in which a certain diagnosis was made can influence decision making in favor of this diagnosis.

table 1.4 Biases Affecting Diagnosis

HELPFUL HINT To minimize bias in hypothesis testing:

- · Don't maintain a narrow focus.
- · Don't jump to conclusions.
- · Do explore alternative explanations.
- · Do keep an open mind.
- · Do take your time.

Hypothesis evaluation

After the practitioner has investigated all reasonable explanations for the initial set of cues, he or she must evaluate each hypothesis in light of the new evidence collected and reach a final diagnosis or conclusion. Hypothesis evaluation requires synthesis of all data that have been collected, since information obtained to refute one hypothesis may support another. You might also find that the data suggest that more than one problem exists.

Careful recording of data collected is crucial. Failure to document data fully increases the chance that information necessary to evaluate the hypothesis will be lost or forgotten. Missing data, in turn, can lead to erroneous conclusions. Chapter 23 contains an example of one form that can be used to record data during the assessment process.

During this phase of diagnostic reasoning, the practitioner determines which explanation has the most supporting data and chooses this hypothesis as the diagnosis. In some cases, however, the examiner can merely eliminate hypotheses until only the one with the highest probability remains.

INFLUENCE OF THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS ON CLINICAL REASONING

Although nurses and physicians seem to use the same general clinical reasoning process, these two groups of professionals reach conclusions that are quite different. The reason for this difference stems from each profession's focus of concern.

Medical and Nursing Concerns

The focus of medicine is the diagnosis and treatment of disease. The knowledge base physicians use is derived, in part, from cell and germ theories. The organizing framework for the biomedical model is biochemical or biophysical systems. As a result, physicians concentrate their investigations on biological abnormalities and on identifying the cause of such disorders. Traditionally, how human psychosocial and socioeconomic factors have an impact on health has not been a focus of medicine.

In contrast, nursing's primary focus is the diagnosis of human responses to actual or potential health problems. These responses may result in health problems but may not be disease states. Nursing assessment focuses on the client's physical, psychological, and spiritual reactions to illness and the environment. Nurses use many theoretical frameworks to explain these phenomena. Some examples are Roy's adaptation model, Orem's self-care model, and the unitary person framework proposed by the North American Nursing Diagnosis Association (NANDA).

Theory-Based Clinical Reasoning: The Unitary Person Framework

Using a framework to guide assessment and decision making is beneficial because it helps organize knowledge and provides direction for further investigation of initial cues. A framework also provides practitioners with specific terminology, which facilitates more effective communication between members of the same discipline. NANDA has been instrumental in providing a common language to communicate nursing findings and a common framework to explain the phenomena nurses observe. The language provided by NANDA consists of nursing diagnoses arranged in a taxonomy, or meaningful pattern, based on the unitary person framework.

NANDA Taxonomy: A Nursing Classification System

The NANDA taxonomy is a nursing diagnosis classification system arranged in a hierarchy from the general to the specific based on the unitary person framework. The unitary person framework suggests that a person's health status is manifested by observable phenomena that can be classified into nine human response patterns. The most general concept of the system is the unitary person. A slightly more specific concept is health. Health, in turn, is determined by functioning within the nine human response patterns. The nine response patterns have subcategories that identify specific human patterns and behaviors within each particular response pattern. These nine human response patterns act as the major categories for the NANDA taxonomy of approved nursing diagnoses (see box above, right).

The next level of this system consists of nursing diagnoses and other subcategory headings that NANDA's Taxonomy Committee has determined to be related to a particular pattern. The boxed material on pp. 6-7 shows diagnoses arranged according to the nine human response patterns of the unitary person framework.

The NANDA taxonomy can be used to guide clinical decision making. A practitioner can select the general response pattern and assess for signs and symptoms associated with that response pattern. Response patterns are broad and can be further defined.

For example, the examiner wishing to evaluate the

Nine Human Response Patterns of the Unitary Person Framework

- 1. Exchanging: Mutual giving and receiving
- 2. Communicating: Sending messages
- 3. Relating: Establishing bonds
- 4. Valuing: Assigning worth
- 5. Choosing: Selection of alternatives
- 6. Moving: Activity
- 7. Perceiving: Reception of information
- 8. Knowing: Meaning associated with information
- 9. Feeling: Subjective awareness of information

From Sparks SM, Taylor CM: Nursing diagnosis reference manual, Springhouse, Pa, 1991, Springhouse Corp.

exchanging pattern might start by assessing the client's elimination, since "altered elimination" is one diagnosis found in this pattern.

The examiner then decides which type of elimination to evaluate first-bowel or urinary. He or she chooses bowel elimination.

Next, the examiner looks for signs and symptoms of diarrhea, constipation, or incontinence. Nursing diagnoses have been defined and determined to have certain signs and symptoms, called defining characteristics. These defining characteristics are cues for diagnostic reasoning.

Occasionally, the examiner can make even more specific diagnoses (e.g., "colonic constipation" [see box on p. 6]).

A practitioner can also use the NANDA taxonomy to investigate a specific finding, such as an abdomen that is firm to palpation. Other cues may be associated with this finding (e.g., the client's complaint of a feeling of abdominal fullness). Based on these cues, the examiner makes a tentative diagnosis of constipation. The practitioner then tests this diagnosis by searching for the presence of its other defining characteristics, such as client reports of no bowel movement for 3 days. If several of these signs and symptoms are present, the examiner can make the diagnosis of "constipation."

The predictive relationships between defining characteristics and nursing diagnoses are not perfect. These relationships are initially based on the observations of experienced clinicians who propose new nursing diagnoses. Much research is currently being conducted to validate the defining characteristics of the diagnoses accepted by NANDA. Although the association of a cluster of signs and symptoms with a nursing diagnosis may be strong, no single group of characteristics ever absolutely indicates a particular nursing diagnosis.