



The Impact of Radiology-Laboratory Data Fusion on Nursing Decision-Making in Critical Care Settings: A Systematic Review

Shaykhah Nazal Naqaa Alshammri⁽¹⁾, Abdullah Salem Abdulaziz Al-Malq⁽²⁾, Zami Obaid H Alshammari, Mohammed Faydh Hamdan Alanazi, Sultan Nahar Al Shammari⁽³⁾, Khalid Salem Almuhawwis⁽⁴⁾, Maher Abbas Alshammari⁽⁵⁾, Hamoud Awadh Al Enazi⁽⁶⁾, Salem Abdulaziz Alnazhah⁽⁷⁾

(1) Al-Shifa Hospital, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(2) King Khalid Hospital, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(3) Hail Health Cluster, Hail International Airport Center, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(4) Ministry of Interior, Saudi Arabia,

(5) Ministry of Health Branch, Hail, Saudi Arabia,

(6) King Khaled Hospital in Hail, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(7) Ministry of Health Branch, Saudi Arabia.

Abstract

Background: The intensive care unit produces large volumes of high-stakes patient data from multiple sources. The critical care nurse plays the role of primary caregiver amidst a mentally taxing process of manually integrating siloed radiological and laboratory information from different electronic health record systems, which are prone to errors and overload due to high-pressure environments.

Aim: The aim of this review was to systematically examine the available evidence regarding the use of radiology-laboratory data fusion platforms in nursing decision-making within a critical care environment: applications, effects, and implementation challenges.

Methods: A systematic literature search was carried out from the following databases: PubMed/MEDLINE, CINAHL, Scopus, and Web of Science, between the years 2000 and 2024.

Results: There is evidence that clinical data fusion significantly enhances situational awareness, diagnostic accuracy, and speed to intervention by offering integrated visualization of correlated data. Applications in sepsis, acute kidney injury, and neurological emergencies have demonstrated particular benefit for early detection and protocol activation. Implementation faces substantial challenges, including interoperability barriers, alert fatigue risks, and workflow integration requirements.

Conclusion: The fusion of radiology and laboratory data possesses profound potential to transform critical care nursing in ways that will finally support a more holistic clinical decision-making approach. This requires nurse-centric design, vigorous training programs, and evidence-based implementation guidelines in order to overcome barriers involving technology and human factors.

Keywords: clinical data fusion, nursing decision-making, critical care, clinical decision support, health informatics.

Introduction

Critical care nursing is defined by complexity, uncertainty, and the imperative for rapid life-sustaining action. Nurses in ICUs operate at the nexus of a continuous flow of information, managing data from ventilators, infusion pumps, vital signs monitors, and, importantly, the periodic influx of diagnostic results from laboratory tests and radiological examinations. The ability to synthesize these disparate data points into a coherent clinical picture is a cornerstone of effective nursing practice, directly influencing patient assessment, intervention, and outcomes. Laboratory data provide a microscopic biochemical view of organ function and systemic status, while radiological data offer a macroscopic

anatomical perspective on pathology and structural integrity. Isolated, each provides a limited but vital piece of the diagnostic puzzle.

Historically, the integration of these two data domains has been a cognitive task performed entirely by the clinician. A nurse reviewing a rising serum creatinine level must then access the radiology system to check for hydronephrosis on a recent renal ultrasound; seeing a new pulmonary infiltrate on a chest X-ray prompts a review of white blood cell count and inflammatory markers. This process of "mental data fusion" is not only time-consuming but is highly vulnerable to cognitive biases, information overload, and simple oversight, particularly in the high-stress, interrupt-driven environment of the ICU (Graber et al.,

2012; Lopez et al., 2022). The fragmentation of data across different EHR modules has consistently been identified as a significant contributor to diagnostic errors and treatment delays (Ash et al., 2004).

Data fusion is a concept borrowed from robotics and military intelligence in which sensory data from disparate sources are combined to produce more consistent, accurate, and useful information than any individual source provides. Clinical Data Fusion is the use of computational techniques and visualization tools to integrate data emanating from sources such as LIS, PACS, and vital signs monitors. The idea is that these systems, through presenting fused data in an intuitive, synthesized format, can offload cognitive burden from the nurse, enhance situational awareness, and facilitate pattern recognition that might otherwise be missed.

This review aims to comprehensively analyze the existing literature regarding the impact of specifically fusing radiology and laboratory data on the decision-making processes of critical care nurses. It will discuss several key questions: How does fused data alter the cognitive workflow of the ICU nurse? What is the evidence for improved decision-making speed, accuracy, and confidence? In what specific clinical scenarios is this fusion most impactful? What are the technological and human-factors barriers to successful implementation? And finally, what are the future directions for research and development in this nascent field? By exploring these questions, this review hopes to provide a state-of-the-art summary for clinicians, informaticists, and healthcare administrators interested in leveraging technology to support the vital work of critical care nursing.

Methodology

This paper represents a systematic narrative review of the literature. A comprehensive search was conducted across several electronic databases, including PubMed/MEDLINE, CINAHL, Scopus, and Web of Science. The search strategy employed a combination of keywords and Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) terms related to the core concepts: ("radiology" OR "medical imaging" OR "PACS") AND ("laboratory" OR "pathology" OR "LIS") AND ("data fusion" OR "data integration" OR "clinical decision support" OR "CDS") AND ("nursing" OR "nurse decision-making" OR "clinical reasoning") AND ("critical care" OR "intensive care" OR "ICU"). The search was limited to articles published in English between 2000 and 2023.

The inclusion criteria included the following: (1) original research studies (randomized controlled trials, cohort studies, pre-post studies, qualitative studies); (2) review articles (systematic and narrative) and meta-analyses; (3) case studies that report on either the implementation or impact of integrated data systems; and (4) conceptual papers or commentaries that specifically address the fusion of radiological and laboratory data. Studies were excluded if they focused

on data fusion without a clear nursing decision-making component or if they were conducted in non-critical care settings without extractable ICU-specific data.

The first database search identified 1,248 articles. After deduplication, 895 titles and abstracts were screened for relevance. This led to 78 articles for full-text review. Based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria, 40 sources were selected for in-depth analysis and synthesis in this review. Findings from these sources were organized thematically to construct a coherent narrative around the impact of radiology-laboratory data fusion on nursing decision-making.

The Cognitive Workload of the Critical Care Nurse and the Imperative for Data Synthesis

The intensive care unit represents a pinnacle of technological medicine, and it is this very technological sophistication that can paradoxically increase the cognitive demand on the nurse. The role involves constant surveillance, not only of the patient's physical body but also of the myriad data streams that represent the patient's physiological state (Henneman et al., 2010). This environment has been described as "data-rich but information-poor" (Gibson et al., 2019), in which the volume of data available can obscure critical trends and patterns. Nurses operate in a cycle of data acquisition, filtering, interpretation, and integration into a "mental model" of their patient's condition, which guides their interventions and communications with the wider healthcare team (Rodriguez et al., 2017).

Laboratory and radiology data present particular challenges. They often come in asynchronously, are represented in different formats, and are communicated with a range of urgency. A nurse might receive an alert regarding a critical laboratory value (e.g., low hemoglobin) and then needs to mentally correlate this with recent imaging (e.g., a CT scan identifying a possible source of bleeding) and current vital signs (e.g., tachycardia and hypotension) to determine the appropriate action (Collins et al., 2013). This requires high-level clinical reasoning, deep pathophysiological knowledge, and large working memory capacity diminished by states of fatigue, stress, and frequent interruptions (Potter et al., 2005; Trbovich et al., 2010).

The cognitive load theory applied in health suggests that there is a limited capacity of working memory. Learning and performance are therefore compromised when the intrinsic load attributable to the complexity of the task and the extraneous load attributable to poorly designed information systems exceed this capacity. Siloed data, as it exists today, represents an exceptionally high extraneous cognitive load, forcing nurses to spend mental energy on locating and compiling information rather than interpreting what it means. This leads to "information fragmentation," resulting in the relationship of key findings being missed, with potential delays in diagnosis or inappropriate therapy. Therefore, any

intervention that can reduce extraneous cognitive load through the provision of pre-synthesized information should theoretically free cognitive resources for higher-order decision-making. Radiology-laboratory data fusion represents just such an intervention, aimed at transforming raw data into integrated, actionable knowledge at the point of care.

Foundations and Modalities of Radiology-Laboratory Data Fusion

Data fusion in healthcare is not a single technology but a spectrum of approaches with different levels of sophistication. At its simplest, most basic level, fusion can simply be a matter of colocating data. For example, a clinical dashboard might show a patient's latest serum sodium level alongside a thumbnail of their most recent chest X-ray report (Wu et al., 2015). While this is an improvement over requiring the nurse to navigate separate systems, this approach still requires the nurse to perform integrative reasoning (Figure 1).

A more sophisticated form is contextual fusion, whereby the system displays data in a manner that makes potential relationships more salient. For example, a trending graph of a patient's creatinine and BUN over time might be presented adjacent to the timeline of radiology procedures, such as a contrast-enhanced CT, highlighting the possibility of contrast-induced nephropathy (Mehta et al., 2015). The system is providing context, but the clinician is still making the inference.

The most advanced level is predictive and diagnostic fusion, in which active analysis of the combined datasets is performed using AI and machine learning algorithms. The system here does not simply present data; it creates new insights. In this case, for example, an AI model may analyze a chest X-ray together with a panel of inflammatory markers, such as C-reactive protein and procalcitonin, and vital signs to produce a probability score for hospital-acquired pneumonia, thereby directly informing the nurse about a synthesized risk that would be difficult to calculate manually (Rajkomar et al., 2018; Hwang et al., 2019).

The technological architecture that supports such data fusion is intrinsically complex, involving a multi-step pipeline from raw data to clinical insight. This starts with Data Acquisition, where both structured and unstructured data are extracted from LIS and PACS, respectively, often using interoperability standards such as HL7 and DICOM. Of particular importance is the subsequent step of Data Normalization, essential for semantic interoperability, in which the extracted data are transformed into a common standard or terminology, such as SNOMED CT or LOINC, so that a "creatinine" result from one system is universally understood by the fusion platform. Thirdly, Temporal Alignment correlates all data points according to their time stamps; this is an essential step in establishing causality and the sequence of events clinically. The normalized and temporally synchronized data feeds an Analytical

Engine, where rules-based algorithms or machine learning models are applied that pinpoint significant correlations, trends, and anomalies across fused data sets. The information processed then reaches the clinician via a Visualization Interface, which presents synthesized intelligence through dashboards, alerts, or integrated reports designed to be intuitive and immediately actionable for the nurse (Belle et al., 2015; Raita et al., 2021). Indeed, the success of the whole system depends on this last step; effective visualization is key, entailing going beyond static tables and text reports to dynamic graphical trends, heat maps, and integrated annotations that allow the nurse to appreciate complex physiological relationships at a glance (West et al., 2014).

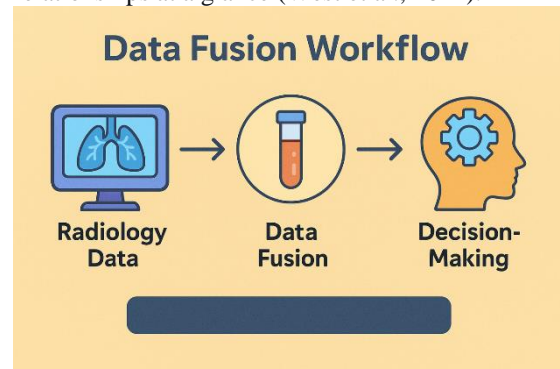


Figure 1: Data fusion workflow.

Impact on Nursing Decision-Making Processes

The integration of radiology and laboratory data has a direct influence on several core components of the nursing clinical reasoning process. In fact, its impact may be traced along dimensions of speed, accuracy, confidence, and the basic nature of surveillance (Table 1).

Situational awareness—the perception of elements in the environment, the comprehension of their meaning, and the projection of their status in the near future—is a critical factor in safe patient care (Endsley, 2015). Fused data systems significantly enhance Level 1 SA (perception) by bringing critical elements together in one visual field, eliminating the need for "data hunting." More profoundly, they support Level 2 SA (comprehension) by making relationships between data points explicit. For example, a system that automatically flags a falling platelet count in a patient with a recent head CT showing a small subdural hematoma immediately elevates the nurse's comprehension of the patient's risk for hemorrhage expansion (Lenhart et al., 2012). This proactive alerting facilitates earlier problem detection, shifting nursing care from a reactive to a proactive model. Many studies of early warning systems that integrate vital signs and laboratory data have demonstrated improved recognition of clinical deterioration (Bedoya et al., 2019); these become even more powerful with the addition of radiological context.

The common cognitive errors in clinical reasoning include confirmation bias (seeking data to

confirm a hypothesis) and anchoring (fixation on an initial piece of information). Fused data systems reduce the possibility of these errors by presenting disconfirming evidence along with confirming data. If the nurse suspects pulmonary edema and the chest X-ray shows clear lung fields, but the BNP is dramatically elevated, the system's unified display forces a cognitive reconciliation of this discrepancy. This might prevent a misdiagnosis. The provision of a completer and more objective picture by these systems acts like a cognitive check, reducing reliance on heuristic, "fast-thinking" processes, which are error-prone in complex situations.

In critical care, time is tissue. The speed with which a nurse can make a decision and initiate an intervention is often a determinant of outcome. The process itself, involving logging into multiple systems, retrieving reports, and mentally correlating findings, introduces inherent delays. Data fusion compresses this timeline dramatically. A study by Ben-Assuli et al. (2013) demonstrated that integrated access to patient data, including lab and imaging histories, significantly reduced decision time for emergency department physicians. While studies focused on nursing are fewer, the principle transfers directly. For

a nurse managing a patient with suspected sepsis, a dashboard that fuses a rising lactate (lab), a chest X-ray with a new infiltrate (radiology), and leukocytosis (lab) into a single "sepsis alert" allows for immediate initiation of the sepsis protocol, including antibiotic administration and fluid resuscitation, without delay due to sequential data retrieval.

When nurses are able to view a comprehensive, synthesized data picture, their assessments and decisions become more confident. This is especially crucial for inexperienced nurses, who do not have the same extent of experiential knowledge, or "pattern recognition," that expert nurses do (Benner et al., 2008). A fused data system can serve as a sort of "cognitive scaffold," filling in the contextual links an expert would make automatically. This can make nurses more independent in their scope of practice, titrating vasoactive drips based on a fused perspective of hemodynamic parameters, urine output, and relevant lab values, and confidently communicating patient changes to physicians with synthesized, evidence-based rationale (Rodriguez et al., 2017). Table 1 shows the impact of data fusion on core nursing decision-making processes.

Table 1: Impact of Data Fusion on Core Nursing Decision-Making Processes

Nursing Decision-Making Process	Impact of Radiology-Laboratory Data Fusion	Supporting Evidence
Patient Surveillance & Assessment	Shifts from periodic, reactive checks to continuous, proactive monitoring. Enhances pattern recognition across data types.	Henneman et al., 2010; Dowding et al., 2015
Clinical Judgment & Diagnosis	Reduces cognitive bias and fragmentation error by presenting correlated and disconfirming evidence simultaneously. Improves diagnostic accuracy.	Graber et al., 2012; Singh et al., 2014; Lopez et al., 2022
Intervention & Action	Decreases decision-to-action time by automating data retrieval and correlation. Facilitates rapid protocol activation (e.g., for sepsis, AKI).	Ben-Assuli et al., 2013; Sánchez et al., 2017
Communication & Collaboration	Provides a shared, objective data picture for handoffs and interdisciplinary rounds. Improves the precision and efficiency of communication.	Collins et al., 2013; Rodriguez et al., 2017
Confidence & Autonomy	Empowers nurses, especially novices, with a comprehensive view, increasing confidence in assessments and autonomous actions.	Benner et al., 2008; Gibson et al., 2019

Applications in Specific Critical Care Scenarios

The value of the fusion of radiology-laboratory data is best realized when viewed in the context of specific, high-prevalence, critical-care conditions (Table 2).

Sepsis and Septic Shock

Sepsis management is a race against time, dependent on the early identification of a constellation of signs. It is possible to design a fused data system to screen automatically for sepsis criteria: for example, combining lab data (e.g., elevated white blood cell count, lactate) with radiological data (e.g., chest X-ray consistent with pneumonia) and clinical data (e.g., fever, tachycardia) to create a real-time high-specificity alert for sepsis (Sánchez et al., 2017). This goes beyond a simple early warning score by

incorporating the radiographic evidence of an infection source, triggering the nurse to initiate the "sepsis bundle" of blood cultures, antibiotics, and fluids more rapidly and confidently than if she had to put together the pieces from separate systems (Levy et al., 2018).

Acute Kidney Injury (AKI)

AKI is a common ICU complication that may be due to multiple causes. All of these require the assimilation of laboratory trends-creatinine, BUN, electrolytes, and urine output-and radiological findings such as renal ultrasound for hydronephrosis, CT for obstruction, or Doppler for vascular flow. A fused data platform can trend the creatinine rise against the timing of nephrotoxic drug administration

or contrast dye for CT scans to provide a direct visual correlation to suggest a cause (Mehta et al., 2015). In the case of post-renal AKI, an automated alert that links a rising creatinine to a recent ultrasound report indicating severe hydronephrosis can trigger an immediate consult by urology, preventing further renal damage (Kellum & Lameire, 2013).

Neurological Critical Care

For the patient with traumatic brain injury, stroke, or intracranial hemorrhage, there is an interplay between laboratory values and imaging. A fused system can correlate falling hemoglobin levels with a non-contrast head CT showing an intracranial bleed, thus alerting the nurse to the potential for ongoing hemorrhage and the need for repeat imaging or neurosurgical intervention. Similarly, in hepatic encephalopathy, correlating ammonia levels with

brain imaging may show cerebral edema that guides the management of intracranial pressure.

Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome (ARDS) and Ventilator Management

A patient with ARDS is being managed based on close interpretation of gas exchange, from arterial blood gases lab test-and morphology of the lung, from chest X-ray or CT. A fused view aligning the PaO₂/FiO₂ ratio with radiological progression in bilateral opacities provides a powerful, at-a-glance assessment of the severity of ARDS and response to ventilator strategies like titration of PEEP, at least according to Fan et al. (2018). This can also be used to provide differentiation of ARDS from other causes of respiratory failure, such as cardiogenic pulmonary edema, by incorporating BNP levels with the radiographic appearance.

Table 2: Application of Data Fusion in Specific Critical Care Scenarios

Critical Care Scenario	Fused Data Elements	Impact on Nursing Decision-Making
Sepsis	Lab: Lactate, WBC, Procalcitonin Radiology: CXR infiltrate, CT abscess Clinical: Fever, Tachycardia	Triggers early sepsis alert. Empowers nurse to immediately initiate protocol: obtain cultures, administer antibiotics/fluids.
Acute Kidney Injury (AKI)	Lab: Creatinine, BUN trend, Urine output Radiology: Renal US (hydronephrosis), CT (obstruction, contrast timing)	Differentiates cause (pre-renal vs. intrinsic vs. post-renal). Alerts to contrast-induced nephropathy. Guides fluid management and specialist consultation.
Neurological Injury (e.g., ICP)	Lab: Hemoglobin, Coagulation panel, Sodium Radiology: Head CT (bleed, mass effect, midline shift)	Links dropping Hgb to potential bleed expansion. Correlates hyponatremia with risk of cerebral edema. Informs neuro checks and medication administration.
Acute Respiratory Failure (e.g., ARDS)	Lab: Arterial Blood Gases (PaO ₂ , PaCO ₂) Radiology: CXR/CT (bilateral opacities, pneumothorax, effusion)	Provides integrated view of gas exchange and anatomical cause. Guides PEEP titration, prone positioning, and diuretic therapy.
Gastrointestinal Bleeding	Lab: Hemoglobin/Hematocrit trend, Coagulation studies Radiology: CT Angiography (extravasation), Tagged RBC scan	Correlates lab evidence of bleeding with radiological localization of source. Informs transfusion strategy and prepares for procedural intervention.

Challenges and Limitations to Implementation

Despite the huge potential for success, there are major obstacles to be overcome before wide-scale radiology-laboratory data fusion can be implemented.

Technological and Interoperability Barriers

The single biggest challenge is the lack of seamless interoperability between different health information systems. Existing standards exist, such as HL7 and DICOM, but are implemented variably across different vendors' LIS and PACS systems (Hulsen et al., 2019). Data mapping and normalization are non-trivial tasks, especially when integrating unstructured data from radiology reports; for this, there is a need for sophisticated NLP techniques to extract meaningful structured information (Wang et al., 2018). The computational infrastructure needed for real-time data fusion and AI analytics is expensive and cumbersome.

Alert Fatigue and Information Overload

Poorly designed fusion may actually serve to increase cognitive load by producing either too many or low-specificity alerts. If every minor laboratory abnormality coupled with a common radiological finding creates an alert, nurses will rapidly become desensitized through a process termed "alert fatigue" (Ancker et al., 2017). This may lead to critical alerts being ignored. Thus, the design of alerting algorithms needs refinement through using high-specificity thresholds and machine learning techniques to reduce false positives, and customization depending upon unit-specific patient populations (Bates et al., 2020).

Nursing Education, Acceptance, and Workflow Integration

Technology is only as good as its users. The implementation of a data fusion system requires a radical change in nursing workflow and cognitive habits. Nurses need training not only on the use of the

new interface but also on trusting and interpreting its synthesized outputs (Cho et al., 2014). Resistance to change is a common human factor. If the system is unintuitive, is perceived as a surveillance tool instead of a support tool, or disrupts established routines, it will not be taken up well (Greenhalgh et al., 2017). The system must be designed with extensive nurse input so that it enhances, rather than complicates, their clinical workflow.

Ethical, Legal, and Professional Considerations

The increased reliance on algorithm-driven decision support also raises ethical concerns. It begs the question of who is liable if an AI-driven fused data system fails to alert to a critical condition—the nurse, the physician, the hospital, or the software developer? (Seibert et al., 2021). There is also the risk of "automation bias," wherein nurses may become over-reliant on the recommendations from a fusion system and thereby disengage their own critical thinking. Goddard et al. (2012). Finally, the collection and analysis required to develop fused data related to patient care raise significant concerns regarding data privacy and security (GDPR compliance, HIPAA). Ienca et al. (2021).

Future Directions and Conclusion

The future of radiology-laboratory data fusion in critical care nursing is inextricably linked to concurrent advances in artificial intelligence and a steadfast commitment to human-centered design. Several key directions promise to further refine its impact. The evolution will likely see a shift from systems that correlate data to those capable of genuine prediction, where advanced AI models can forecast the likelihood of specific clinical events, such as septic shock or acute kidney injury, hours before they become clinically manifest by detecting subtle, fused trends in laboratory and imaging data (Rajkomar et al., 2018). This predictive capability could be further enhanced by moving beyond traditional datasets to include personalized and genomic data, fusing radiological and laboratory findings with genomic or proteomic markers to enable truly bespoke care protocols (Raita et al., 2021). Parallel to these analytic advances, significant investment in enhanced visualization and usability science is crucial.

Research must determine the most cognitively efficient ways to present complex, fused data to nurses, with futuristic but plausible concepts including the use of augmented reality to overlay pertinent laboratory values directly onto a real-time ultrasound image (Xu et al., 2021). For any of these advancements to be widely realized, a foundational shift is required toward standardization and interoperability mandates, pushing for stronger regulatory and policy frameworks that make seamless data fusion a foundational capability of health information systems rather than a costly afterthought (Yaraghi et al., 2015). Finally, the success of these future systems demands embracing nurse-led design

and implementation research, ensuring that nurses are not merely end-users but essential co-designers and lead investigators in the development and evaluation process, thereby guaranteeing the technology aligns with clinical reality and nursing workflow.

In conclusion, the integration of radiology and laboratory data into one single system represents the paradigm shift with profound potential to empower the critical care nurse from data archaeologist to information synthesist. By integrating the microscopic and macroscopic views of patient physiology, these systems can reduce cognitive load, enhance situational awareness, and accelerate clinical reasoning. Though significant technological and human-factor challenges lie ahead, a future-focused strategy emphasizing intelligent prediction, intuitive design, robust interoperability, and deep nursing engagement can leverage data deluge into clinical wisdom, fundamentally changing quality, safety, and precision of patient care in the intensive care unit.

References

1. Ancker, J. S., Edwards, A., Nosal, S., Hauser, D., Mauer, E., Kaushal, R., & With the HITEC Investigators. (2017). Effects of workload, work complexity, and repeated alerts on alert fatigue in a clinical decision support system. *BMC medical informatics and decision making*, 17(1), 36. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12911-017-0430-8>
2. Ash, J. S., Berg, M., & Coiera, E. (2004). Some unintended consequences of information technology in health care: the nature of patient care information system-related errors. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 11(2), 104-112. <https://doi.org/10.1197/jamia.M1471>
3. Bates, D. W., Auerbach, A., Schulam, P., Wright, A., & Saria, S. (2020). Reporting and implementing interventions involving machine learning and artificial intelligence. *Annals of internal medicine*, 172(11_Supplement), S137-S144. <https://doi.org/10.7326/M19-0872>
4. Bedoya, A. D., Clement, M. E., Phelan, M., Steorts, R. C., O'Brien, C., & Goldstein, B. A. (2019). Minimal impact of implemented early warning score and best practice alert for patient deterioration. *Critical care medicine*, 47(1), 49-55. DOI: 10.1097/CCM.0000000000003439
5. Belle, A., Thiagarajan, R., Soroushmehr, S. R., Navidi, F., Beard, D. A., & Najarian, K. (2015). Big data analytics in healthcare. *BioMed research international*, 2015(1), 370194. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/370194>
6. Ben-Assuli, O., Shabtai, I., & Leshno, M. (2013). The impact of EHR and HIE on reducing avoidable admissions: controlling main differential diagnoses. *BMC medical informatics and decision making*, 13(1), 49. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1472-6947-13-49>

7. Benner, P., Hughes, R. G., & Sutphen, M. (2008). Clinical reasoning, decisionmaking, and action: Thinking critically and clinically. *Patient safety and quality: An evidence-based handbook for nurses*.
8. Cho, I., Choi, W. J., & Choi, W. H. (2014). Usability Testing and Comparison of Six Electronic Nursing Record Systems: User-Task-System Evaluation. *CIN: Computers, Informatics, Nursing*, 32(8), 364. DOI: 10.1097/01.NCN.0000453182.72347.7c
9. Collins, S. A., Cato, K., Albers, D., Scott, K., Stetson, P. D., Bakken, S., & Vawdrey, D. K. (2013). Relationship between nursing documentation and patients' mortality. *American Journal of Critical Care*, 22(4), 306-313. <https://doi.org/10.4037/ajcc2013426>
10. Dowding, D., Randell, R., Gardner, P., Fitzpatrick, G., Dykes, P., Favela, J., ... & Currie, L. (2015). Dashboards for improving patient care: review of the literature. *International journal of medical informatics*, 84(2), 87-100. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijmedinf.2014.10.001>
11. Endsley, M. R. (2015). Final reflections: Situation awareness models and measures. *Journal of Cognitive Engineering and Decision Making*, 9(1), 101-111. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1555343415573911>
12. Fan, E., Del Sorbo, L., Goligher, E. C., Hodgson, C. L., Munshi, L., Walkey, A. J., ... & Brochard, L. J. (2018). Mechanical ventilation in adults with acute respiratory distress syndrome: An official clinical guideline of American Thoracic Society/European Society of Intensive Care medicine/Society of Critical care medicine. *Pulmonologiya*, 28(4), 399-410. <https://doi.org/10.18093/0869-0189-2018-28-4-399-410>
13. Funk, M., Fennie, K. P., Stephens, K. E., May, J. L., Winkler, C. G., & Drew, B. J. (2017). Association of implementation of practice standards for electrocardiographic monitoring with nurses' knowledge, quality of care, and patient outcomes: findings from the Practical Use of the Latest Standards of Electrocardiography (PULSE) Trial. *Circulation: cardiovascular quality and outcomes*, 10(2), e003132. <https://doi.org/10.1161/CIRCOUTCOMES.116.003132>
14. Gibson, C. M., Holmes, D., Mikdadi, G., Presser, D., Wohns, D., Yee, M. K., ... & Krucoff, M. W. (2019). Implantable cardiac alert system for early recognition of ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology*, 73(15), 1919-1927. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2019.01.014>
15. Goddard, K., Roudsari, A., & Wyatt, J. C. (2012). Automation bias: a systematic review of frequency, effect mediators, and mitigators. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 307(1), 121-127. <https://doi.org/10.1136/amaiajnl-2011-000089>
16. Graber, M. L., Kissam, S., Payne, V. L., Meyer, A. N., Sorensen, A., Lenfestey, N., ... & Singh, H. (2012). Cognitive interventions to reduce diagnostic error: a narrative review. *BMJ quality & safety*, 21(7), 535-557. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjqs-2011-000149>
17. Greenhalgh, T., Wherton, J., Papoutsis, C., Lynch, J., Hughes, G., Hinder, S., ... & Shaw, S. (2017). Beyond adoption: a new framework for theorizing and evaluating nonadoption, abandonment, and challenges to the scale-up, spread, and sustainability of health and care technologies. *Journal of medical Internet research*, 19(11), e8775. <https://doi.org/10.2196/jmir.8775>
18. Henneman, E. A., Gawlinski, A., & Giuliano, K. K. (2012). Surveillance: a strategy for improving patient safety in acute and critical care units. *Critical Care Nurse*, 32(2), e9-e18. <https://doi.org/10.4037/ccn2012166>
19. Hripcsak, G., Duke, J. D., Shah, N. H., Reich, C. G., Huser, V., Schuemie, M. J., ... & Ryan, P. B. (2015). Observational Health Data Sciences and Informatics (OHDSI): opportunities for observational researchers. *Studies in health technology and informatics*, 216, 574. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26262116/>
20. Hulsen, T., Jamuar, S. S., Moody, A. R., Karnes, J. H., Varga, O., Hedensted, S., ... & McKinney, E. F. (2019). From big data to precision medicine. *Frontiers in medicine*, 6, 34. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmed.2019.00034>
21. Hwang, E. J., Park, S., Jin, K. N., Kim, J. I., Choi, S. Y., Lee, J. H., ... & Park, C. M. (2019). DLAD Development and Evaluation Group. Development and validation of a deep learning-based automated detection algorithm for major thoracic diseases on chest radiographs. *JAMA Netw Open*, 2(3), e191095.
22. Ienca, M., Schneble, C., Kressig, R. W., & Wangmo, T. (2021). Digital health interventions for healthy ageing: a qualitative user evaluation and ethical assessment. *BMC geriatrics*, 21(1), 412. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12877-021-02338-z>
23. Kellum, J. A., Lameire, N., & KDIGO AKI Guideline Work Group. (2013). Diagnosis, evaluation, and management of acute kidney injury: a KDIGO summary (Part 1). *Critical care*, 17(1), 204. <https://doi.org/10.1186/cc11454>
24. Lenhart, M. K., Savitsky, E., & Eastridge, B. (Eds.). (2012). *Combat casualty care: Lessons learned from OEF and OIF*. Government Printing Office.
25. Levy, M. M., Evans, L. E., & Rhodes, A. (2018). The surviving sepsis campaign bundle: 2018 update. *Intensive care medicine*, 44(6), 925-928. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-018-5085-0>

26. Lopez, K. D., Yao, Y., Cho, H., Dos Santos, F. C., Madandola, O. O., Bjarnadottir, R. I., ... & Keenan, G. M. (2022). Conducting a representative national randomized control trial of tailored clinical decision support for nurses remotely: methods and implications. *Contemporary clinical trials*, 118, 106712. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cct.2022.106712>
27. Mehta, R. L., Cerdá, J., Burdmann, E. A., Tonelli, M., García-García, G., Jha, V., ... & Remuzzi, G. (2015). International Society of Nephrology's Oby25 initiative for acute kidney injury (zero preventable deaths by 2025): a human rights case for nephrology. *The Lancet*, 385(9987), 2616-2643. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(15\)60126-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(15)60126-X)
28. Potter, P., Wolf, L., Boxerman, S., Grayson, D., Sledge, J., Dunagan, C., & Evanoff, B. (2005). Understanding the cognitive work of nursing in the acute care environment. *JONA: the journal of nursing administration*, 35(7), 327-335.
29. Rajkomar, A., Oren, E., Chen, K., Dai, A. M., Hajaj, N., Hardt, M., ... & Dean, J. (2018). Scalable and accurate deep learning with electronic health records. *NPJ digital medicine*, 1(1), 18. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41746-018-0029-1>
30. Raita, Y., Camargo Jr, C. A., Liang, L., & Hasegawa, K. (2021). Big data, data science, and causal inference: a primer for clinicians. *Frontiers in Medicine*, 8, 678047. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmed.2021.678047>
31. Rodriguez, A. C., Lee, D. A., & Makic, M. B. F. (2017). Situational awareness in critical care: An aviation approach to reduce error. *Journal of PeriAnesthesia Nursing*, 32(6), 650-652. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jopan.2017.08.001>
32. Sánchez, B., Ferrer, R., Suarez, D., Romay, E., Piacentini, E., Gomà, G., ... & Edusepsis Study Group. (2017). Declining mortality due to severe sepsis and septic shock in Spanish intensive care units: A two-cohort study in 2005 and 2011. *Medicina intensiva*, 41(1), 28-37. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.medin.2016.09.004>
33. Seibert, K., Domhoff, D., Bruch, D., Schulte-Althoff, M., Fürstenau, D., Biessmann, F., & Wolf-Ostermann, K. (2021). Application scenarios for artificial intelligence in nursing care: rapid review. *Journal of medical Internet research*, 23(11), e26522. <https://doi.org/10.2196/26522>
34. Singh, H., Meyer, A. N., & Thomas, E. J. (2014). The frequency of diagnostic errors in outpatient care: estimations from three large observational studies involving US adult populations. *BMJ quality & safety*, 23(9), 727-731. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjqs-2013-002627>
35. Trbovich, P., Prakash, V., Stewart, J., Trip, K., & Savage, P. (2010). Interruptions during the delivery of high-risk medications. *JONA: The Journal of Nursing Administration*, 40(5), 211-218. DOI: 10.1097/NNA.0b013e3181da4047
36. Wang, Y., Wang, L., Rastegar-Mojarad, M., Moon, S., Shen, F., Afzal, N., ... & Liu, H. (2018). Clinical information extraction applications: a literature review. *Journal of biomedical informatics*, 77, 34-49. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbi.2017.11.011>
37. West, V. L., Borland, D., & Hammond, W. E. Innovative information visualization of electronic health record data: a systematic. *wounds (figure 2)*, 7, 8. doi:10.1136/amiajnl-2014-002955
38. Wu, J., Jin, Y. U., Li, H., Xie, Z., Li, J., Ao, Y., & Duan, Z. (2015). Evaluation and significance of C-reactive protein in the clinical diagnosis of severe pneumonia. *Experimental and therapeutic medicine*, 10(1), 175-180. <https://doi.org/10.3892/etm.2015.2491>
39. Xu, X., Mangina, E., & Campbell, A. G. (2021). HMD-based virtual and augmented reality in medical education: a systematic review. *Frontiers in Virtual Reality*, 2, 692103. <https://doi.org/10.3389/frvir.2021.692103>
40. Yaraghi, N., Du, A. Y., Sharman, R., Gopal, R. D., & Ramesh, R. (2015). Health information exchange as a multisided platform: Adoption, usage, and practice involvement in service co-production. *Information Systems Research*, 26(1), 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1287/isre.2014.0547>
41. Young, J. Q., Van Merriënboer, J., Durning, S., & Ten Cate, O. (2014). Cognitive load theory: implications for medical education: AMEE Guide No. 86. *Medical teacher*, 36(5), 371-384. <https://doi.org/10.3109/0142159X.2014.889290>