



Experienced paramedics' navigation of and learning about ethical dilemmas in the field

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Experienced paramedics' navigation of

Experienced paramedics' navigation of and learning about ethical dilemmas in the field

This case study investigated how experienced paramedics learn to navigate ethical decision making in the field. This research is aligned with workplace experiential learning and with evolving international discussions of the changing roles, professional identity, and educational and policy needs of paramedics. Twenty-five experienced paramedics were interviewed, and the data analysis applied situational mapping, thematic and guided framework coding techniques. Findings indicate that during emergent situations paramedics do not rely upon formal educational knowledge to develop judgment in navigating ethical dilemmas beyond applying and honing technical skills. Instead, they rely upon a combination of workplace experiences, self-directed learning including personal reflection, and their immediate environmental context. Participants conveyed the importance of supervisors and trusted partners in maintaining an alternative to consult or debrief during emergent situations or shortly after ethical dilemmas occur. Participants discussed use of integrated principles of empathy, beneficence, and accountability. Those participants who maintained an open awareness related to stress and trauma and towards integrating reflection and intentional practice into their work, exhibited more nuanced expertise in handling of ethical dilemmas and in their commitment to professional growth.

Keywords: paramedic; paramedicine; ethics; professional identity; decision making; experience

Introduction

Paramedicine offers pre-hospital emergency medical services. To the layperson it is often thought of as EMS or paramedics or perhaps as the ambulance and crew that

1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of

2
3 respond to emergency medical situations in everyday life settings. As a fairly new
4
5 profession, national establishment and growth of EMS in the United States occurred
6
7 primarily in the 1970s and 1980s (Braithwaite & Barcinas 2020). According to
8
9 Henderson (2013), in 2011 there were approximately 36 million national medical
10
11 emergency response incidents with 26.6 million people transported to emergency
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13 departments.
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17 In the international context, comprehensive discussions about the evolution of
18
19 paramedic education, professional identity and policy are currently happening in the
20
21 United Kingdom, New Zealand, Australia, and Canada at a faster pace than discussions
22
23 in the United States (Collen 2017; Townsend and Luck 2020; Taveres, et al. 2021).
24
25 Recent changes have broadened the discourse associated with paramedic credentialing,
26
27 policy and performance, to include: increased substantive dialogue about the realities of
28
29 paramedic emergency medical services; theorizing about professional identity, policy
30
31 and its connection to learning and performance; expanded and innovative educational
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33 requirements including continuing medical education; attention to differentiation in
34
35 roles and multiple career pathways; and new, evolving legislation and licensure
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37 expectations.
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43 Much of the available literature on ethics in paramedic care focuses narrowly
44
45 upon the efficacy of clinical practice and treatment protocols, with a gap in
46
47 investigation of subjective paramedic ethical decision-making processes related to
48
49 context or issues of professional judgment (Braithwaite 2014). Ethical decision making
50
51 is a source of workplace stress and having the skills and capacity to navigate complex
52
53 ethical dilemmas is important to everyone, particularly the communities that paramedics
54
55 serve. Paramedics have increasing scope of professional practice, and there is
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1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of
2
3 insufficient empirical knowledge that explains how paramedics learn about and build
4
5 expertise in navigating ethical situations or other situations requiring nuanced judgment.
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8 The purpose of this research study was to learn about paramedic perceptions of
9
10 how they acquire, grow and apply their expertise in encountering and navigating ethical
11
12 dilemmas. To that end, we designed and carried out a qualitative case study
13
14 investigating paramedic experiences with ethical decision making. This research will
15
16 contribute to the larger scholarly and practice discourse about pre-hospital emergency
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18 medical services, and the subjective realities of paramedic learning, professions, and
19
20 education.
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22

23 **Background**

24 ***Paramedics, education and ethics***

25
26 In the United States, the National EMS Education Standards curriculum (NEMSES) for
27
28 Emergency Medical Services (EMS) serves as a baseline for initial training programs.
29
30 Students cannot test for the National Registry (NR) unless that have completed a
31
32 program that is accredited and one of the conditions of accreditation is adherence to
33
34 NEMSES. Nearly, but not all 50 states use NR as the examination process for providers
35
36 to practice. Educational preparation programs are largely nested in community colleges,
37
38 with some universities offering programs. Commission on Accreditation of Allied
39
40 Health Education Programs (CAAHEP) certified credentials currently offered in the
41
42 United States range in decentralized credentials with a culmination of certificates of
43
44 completion (539 programs), associate degrees (381 programs), and baccalaureate
45
46 degrees (13 programs). To a much lesser extent, graduate degrees are offered, although
47
48 they are not designed as entry level preparation into the profession, and instead focus
49
50 upon public safety, leadership, or research, and policy. Continuing Medical Education
51
52 (CME) requirements are variable and decentralized. These requirements are dependent
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1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of

2
3 upon the credentialing and state in which a paramedic practices, with Nationally
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5 Registered Paramedic certification (NRPs) required to complete 60 hours of CME every
6
7 two years. Currently, ethics is not listed as a suggested topic to prepare for in
8
9 anticipation of taking the NR exam. There is also no current CAAHEP-accredited CME
10
11 requirement regarding ethics, although the topic is available ad hoc to those interested.
12
13

14
15 Within paramedic preparation programs, there are several different textbooks
16
17 used. One of the leading texts is *Mosby's Paramedic Textbook, Fifth Edition*, which is
18
19 published by the American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons (Sanders, et al. 2019).
20
21 Within the 2,087 page text, there is one eight page chapter that addresses ethical
22
23 decision making in the field, and an additional three pages which briefly discuss futility
24
25 and paramedic roles and presents a rapid decision making model.
26
27

28
29 With the chapter, a rapid decision making model developed by Dr. Iserson et al
30
31 (Sanders 2019, 153) recommends using a process for navigating ethical dilemmas when
32
33 a systematic lengthier process is not feasible. The model suggests that in emergent
34
35 cases, that paramedics ask themselves a series of questions. The first step is to ask
36
37 oneself about any prior dilemma that allows for an 'experiential rule' that can be
38
39 applied. Next, consider alternatives that buy time for deliberation, providing there is not
40
41 undue risk to a patient in delaying. If there is time, the model then suggests
42
43 communication or consult with others, assuming, for instance, a Medical Director.
44
45 Finally, the last steps are prompts regarding impartiality, universalizability and
46
47 interpersonal justifiability. In lay terms, a paramedic would ask: Would I be willing to
48
49 have this action performed if it was myself or a loved one? Is this what I would do in a
50
51 similar situation? Can I explain or justify my choices to others? (Iserson 1995, 45).
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55
56 Paramedics do have formal exposure to accepted professional norms and ethical
57
58 decision making. NAEMT, the National Association of Emergency Medical
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1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of

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3 Technicians, adopted a code of ethics in 1978 and revised in 2013, serving as a set of
4
5 guiding principles. While the specific list of guidelines is fairly lengthy, stating that
6
7 EMT practitioners should do no harm, provide services based on human need (implying
8
9 race, status or personal views should not disrupt care), to be responsible in the use of
10
11 social media, to maintain ongoing competence, and so on – there is an abbreviated
12
13 version referred to as “The EMT Oath” (EMT 2021) and the extent of discussions of
14
15 how to interpret or reflect upon the deeper meaning of the principles are not formalized.
16
17

18 ***Paramedic ethical decision making in the empirical literature***

19
20 There is relatively scant literature addressing paramedic subjectivities in emergent
21
22 situations. Iserson's recent work further explains why he advocates buying time as an
23
24 essential element of his proposed decision-making model for situations fraught with
25
26 chaos, urgent time constraints and competing interests – he argues that while ideally one
27
28 could identify probative information to guide decision making, “withholding treatment
29
30 is often irreversible, and any treatment instituted can later be withdrawn” (Iserson 2018,
31
32 141). This later work acknowledges the untenable situations that arise, and that in front
33
34 line emerging situations, ‘do no harm’ may be defined quite differently, and in the eye
35
36 of the beholder. Ezio Di Nucci (2018) frames health professions bioethical issues as
37
38 ones of ‘praise and blame’ (p 137) saying that there are obvious and then less obvious
39
40 ways that we determine who is responsible for what and how, and that we cannot
41
42 understand responsibility without also analysing the role of mistakes, and what
43
44 conditions are at play and who determines responsibility or justifications.
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50
51 Using a different frame, Henderson's research on paramedics' rule abidance and
52
53 deviation suggests that when deviations from protocol occur they are related to
54
55 protecting patient need, for example when there is a contradiction between a protocol
56
57 and the situation -- whether it be a protocol that isn't matching situational cues, setting
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1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of

2
3 up potential errors, or perception that the protocol may cause undue suffering, as is
4
5 often the case in futile cases or in the confusion between legal paperwork and patient
6
7 and family communication and agreement on the patient's wishes (Henderson 2013).
8
9 Other research suggests that predominant paramedic values of clinical objectivity and
10
11 compassion are most prevalent, and Henderson laments the idea that there is a '*cultural*
12
13 *bias to do something*' (Sine & Northcutt as cited in Henderson 2012, 804), and
14
15 emphasizes the importance of not overlooking what he describes as the powerful
16
17 influence of street level bureaucracy and emotion in paramedic front line decision
18
19 making. In scholarly investigations on paramedic decision making in cases involving
20
21 elderly falls, the researchers found that paramedics made decisions relative to their role
22
23 perceptions and perceived cultural norms surrounding elderly falls as low acuity (not as
24
25 important or serious) as other types of emergencies, which shaped their judgment,
26
27 especially on whether to transport. They also found that paramedics in subordinate
28
29 positions tended to go with keeping more senior partner preferences (Simpson, et al.
30
31 2017). Additionally, they argued that paramedic culture is not geared towards meta-
32
33 cognition, and that future training focused upon building capacity to critically reflect
34
35 upon their underlying dispositions are recommended.
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42 This resonates with findings by Eaton (2019) who specifically researched the
43
44 practicum phase of paramedic education and findings indicated EMS students are able
45
46 to differentiate between text and theoretical learning and practical or experiential
47
48 learning about ethics, and they are strongly oriented towards practical learning (post-
49
50 graduation) as the mechanism that works for them in honing decision making skills. In a
51
52 different approach encouraging connection to community members, a recent
53
54 experimental program positioned paramedics as community health advocates, balancing
55
56 the intentional building of trusted community rapport with maintenance of a role as
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1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of

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3 emergency services providers (Brydges, et al. 2016). All of this raises an interesting
4
5 question – whether and how we teach or prepare someone embedded in defined
6
7 professional paramedic cultures to effectively disengage from human anguish in
8
9 emergency situations and to balance integrated prehospital care standards with
10
11 autonomy, compassion, and meta-cognitive reflection? Henderson (2012, 800) raises
12
13 this issue, pointing to Mastracci, Guy and Newman's (2012) research on EMT coping
14
15 with emotional intensity. In considering paramedic subjectivities and how they shape
16
17 judgment, researchers indicated that emergency medical responders “may be treating
18
19 minority patients differently” (Foden-Vencil 2019, 1), with Black patients 40% less
20
21 likely to receive pain medication than White patients. Similarly, another national study
22
23 found after reviewing 59,915 records that Black patients were significantly less likely to
24
25 receive any pain analgesia compared to Caucasians, even when adjusted for injury,
26
27 gender, and age (Lord & Kalsa, 2019).
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33 In Iran, research on the barriers to ethical decision making in pre-hospital care
34
35 services report paramedics' navigation of ethics is situational, and findings indicated
36
37 that paramedics balance input and output knowledge such as the expectations and
38
39 awareness of patients and families; the role of futile care, and their decision making
40
41 relates strongly back to these conditions. Their evidence suggests that if a paramedic
42
43 has low trust in the quality of hospital care, it influences their decision process. In other
44
45 words, if paramedics are not confident in the care that a patient may receive upon
46
47 entering the healthcare or community systems, they are more likely to deviate from
48
49 protocols to problem solve independently in response to the ideal of putting patient
50
51 well-being first (Torabi, et al. 2019).
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55 Patient illness information and other information such as Do Not Resuscitate
56
57 orders (DNR) were crucial factors in decision making, according to focus group
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1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of
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3 research in the United Kingdom (Brandling, et al. 2017). Quantitative survey research in
4
5 Ireland also suggests that paramedics reported that, in their experience, beneficence,
6
7 non-maleficence, and respect for autonomy were crucial to paramedics' decisions
8
9 process. Similar to other studies, they also strongly relied on evolving practical or
10
11 applied workplace knowledge (Bury, et al. 2019).
12
13

14 Townsend and Luck's (2020) work in Australia and New Zealand argues that a
15
16 strong sense of professional identity, recognized internal and external to the profession,
17
18 offers a necessary foundation for paramedics to make difficult ethical decisions based
19
20 upon the strength of their professional standards rather than any employer-driven
21
22 factors. In the United States, our previous research on ethics (Braithwaite & Barcinas
23
24 2020) investigated paramedic use of preparatory and CME learning and whether and
25
26 how there was any intentional applied use of an EMS ethics models in their practice.
27
28 Our previous findings, consistent with existing literature (Braithwaite 2014; Braithwaite
29
30 & Barcinas, 2020; Collen 2017; Bury, et al. 2019), indicate that EMS study participants
31
32 did not overtly apply formal learning; rather, they relied upon evolving self-directed and
33
34 experiential learning. Other findings were that paramedics articulate and value a sense
35
36 of community service and responsibility, and a general commitment to patient
37
38 beneficence and accountability (with variable definitions) as important elements of their
39
40 decision-making processes.
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46 ***Relevant literature on learning, experience and expertise***

47
48 Developing occupational expertise and judgment via everyday work activities and
49
50 interactions is well studied. Ericsson et al. (2018) theorize that expertise is a dynamic
51
52 that is a reflection of knowledge of what is accepted or 'known' within a given field or
53
54 occupation, combined with a continual cycle of reflection and refinement. Ericsson
55
56 (2018) further argues that expert knowledge is uniquely integrated with environmentally
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1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of

2
3 situated factors, rather than boiler plate driven. There are some accepted empirical
4
5 truisms that scholars who study expertise and workplace learning agree upon. For
6
7 instance, experts are consistently able to “impose meaning on ambiguous stimuli”
8
9 (Ericsson 2018, 5). Researchers studying expertise acquired through dynamic practice
10
11 in ‘real life’ often rely upon naturalistic decision making (NDM) as a way of
12
13 understanding learning and performance in moving situations (Mosier et al. 2018).
14
15 NDM does not solely rely upon replication based on consistency combined with narrow
16
17 tracking and measurement of decision pathways. Instead, it reframes the process by
18
19 engaging in analysis of situational dynamics, complexity, and the appropriateness of a
20
21 given course of action (Mosier et al. 2018, 454). Taking into account the variable level
22
23 of expectations for education and credentialing and the high stakes, emergent
24
25 environment, NDM aligns well with the study of how paramedics nurture expertise
26
27 while making decisions in emergent conditions. Academic studies in NDM include
28
29 focal points such as expertise acquired through establishing and using routines and
30
31 refinement cycles, the use of deliberative practice, and managing uncertainty. The
32
33 integration of NDM approaches for self-directed and guided learning are relevant to the
34
35 study and application of paramedic expertise in ethical decision making, in that
36
37 professionals may be entering and growing within the field with vastly different levels
38
39 of educational, credentialing and organizational support.
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47 When considering CME design, factors of expertise reversal effect in relation to
48
49 cognitive load suggest that understanding how paramedics become experts and the
50
51 nuances of that journey requires intentionality and care in designing and facilitation of
52
53 CME (Kalyuga and Sweller 2018). For instance, those learners without executive,
54
55 accumulated knowledge may substitute external instruction while scaffolding new
56
57 information, and intermediate and expert level learners may require different learning
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1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of
2
3 and facilitation experiences to support their accumulation of self-directed professional
4
5 growth. This general attribution of scholar practitioner integration has been a central
6
7 idea in the adult and continuing professional and medical education literature since the
8
9 early 1990s, with Cervero (1992) making the argument that a model of learning 'from
10
11 practice' should be an integral part of continuing professional education.
12
13

14 Many of the mastery learning models used in emergency medicine formal and
15
16 continuing education events rely upon intentional capacity building of all learners to an
17
18 expert level, rather than aiming for a bell or distributed curve in learning and
19
20 performance. To illustrate, recent best practices in mastery learning offer emergency
21
22 clinical care learning that includes deliberate practice with targeted feedback, rapid
23
24 cycle deliberate practice (RCDP) and use of meta-cognition is considered highly
25
26 effective for emergent care health settings (Issa, Salzman and Adler 2020). It integrates
27
28 initial learning, experience, and reoccurring or layering of distributed learning. This
29
30 approach makes sense as a tool for teaching specific use of medical protocols,
31
32 technology, or treatment protocols. Arguably, we need individuals' margin for error or
33
34 professional judgment to be far above the average expectations. In that sense, we (as a
35
36 society) expect, or at least hope, for our emergency medical personnel *to be that good*.
37
38 This makes understanding how paramedics informally engage in expertise development
39
40 and its potential relationship with future aligned CME an important strategy.
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46 **Research Design**

47
48 This qualitative research investigates how experienced paramedics perceive and
49
50 articulate their navigation of emergent ethical dilemmas in the field. Sub-questions
51
52 include intentional exploration of the paramedic informal experiential learning and
53
54 reflective practices that support the understanding of paramedic development of
55
56 expertise in ethical decision making.
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1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of
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3 ***Qualitative Case Study Method*** 4

5 Qualitative case study is conducive to exploration, analysis and description with various
6 units of analyses and boundaries (Yin 2009). Case study method lends strength to
7 analysis of daily experience, taking into account the situational context. The study
8 design is focused upon *how* and *why* paramedics navigate emergent ethical decision
9 making situations in the ways that they do, and to investigate these perspectives within
10 context. The choice of case study method design allows for analysis of complex
11 experiences and the relationship of those experiences to paramedic learning, and
12 professional identity. While we are spotlighting individual actors (in this case
13 paramedics), the dynamic larger context and the role (of paramedics) acquiring
14 experience, learning and acting, is the unit of analysis.
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28 ***Data Collection and Analysis*** 29

30 Participants for this IRB-approved study were drawn from a sampling method as
31 defined by Saldaña & Omasta (2018), where participant presence was intentionally
32 spread across multiple locations, units, or organizations. Inclusion in the study was
33 based upon two criteria. Participants were currently practicing, licensed paramedics
34 with at least three years of experience. This experience allows for an adequate time
35 period of professional practice, and time for participants to have developed awareness
36 of connections between education, context, learning and experience. Second,
37 paramedics were licensed and practicing within one large Southern state, thus sharing
38 common licensure, foundational and/or continuing professional education standards,
39 while still allowing for contextual variations.
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53 Via Zoom, we conducted 25 semi-structured individual participant interviews of
54 45 to 120 minutes in length, with interviews averaging 75 minutes long. The interview
55 framework included specific topical areas on ethics, decision making, experiential and
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1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of

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3 expertise learning, and navigation of emergent environments. Participants were asked to
4
5 share general information about their reasons for becoming paramedics, and about their
6
7 educational journey to date. They discussed responses to the context, pressures and
8
9 rewards of their work. Next, participants were asked to share in-depth examples of
10
11 ethical dilemmas that they had faced, including exploration of how they defined or
12
13 framed a situation as an 'ethical dilemma or situation'. Moments of framing, ambiguity,
14
15 stress, and indecision were explored. Interview prompts included discussions around
16
17 whether and how they consulted with others, accessed resources, drew upon previous
18
19 learning (experience and education), the role of repetition and practice, the influence of
20
21 situational variables, their personal and organizational sense of accountability, and
22
23 descriptions of the nuances of personal, organizational and professional expectations
24
25 and processes. Further, participants were asked to discuss whether and/or how they
26
27 utilized any reflective or meta-cognitive learning or communicative approaches to make
28
29 sense of or cope with stress related to experiences with ethical dilemmas.
30
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34

35 The videos of interviews were viewed multiple times by both researchers, and
36
37 coding was conducted via (1) *in vivo* open coding, allowing for participants' data to
38
39 generate naturally (as an example, *participant* definition of ethics, ethical dilemmas),
40
41 (2) by the use of Clarke, Friese and Washburn's (2018) situational mapping diagrams to
42
43 better examine situational dynamics and categories developed via supporting empirical
44
45 literature on subjective paramedics' ethical decision making. We fluidly cross-
46
47 referenced the zoom generated transcripts with the video transcripts for analysis
48
49 purposes. We used the software generated transcripts 'as is' and did not edit them to
50
51 eliminate or refine pauses, repetitions or distractions that are typically part of a
52
53 generated transcript, in keeping with Evers (2011) definition of *gisted transcripts*.
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3 Finally, the data was analysed with descriptive and then analytic thematic
4 coding concepts. The researchers repeated cycles of independent coding, alternating
5 with four structured discussions to clarify, align and reliably arrive at shared
6 understanding and agreement of codes.
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11 ***Data expression***

12 The data set is of a sensitive nature, and the researchers made an intentional decision to
13 judiciously use quotations or specific situational narratives in order to avoid inadvertent
14 disclosure or identifiers.
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21 **Findings**

22 Participant definitions of ethical dilemmas were organized around participant
23 patterns of response. Participants reported that they did not explicitly define ethical
24 dilemmas as a matter of learning or reflection. Implicitly, their definitional responses
25 fell along into categories: 1) No clear or obvious choice about what to do, or 'all the
26 alternatives are bad'; 2) A heavy situation that 'stays' with you for a long time, if not
27 permanently; 3) It could have turned out differently – did I have the right knowledge,
28 judgment, timing, situation? 4) Protocols, resources or training don't adequately address
29 what to do; and 5) Confusion or conflict about who is really the patient – the patient, the
30 family, or others?
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44 ***Participant perceptions of 'being on your own' and 'being together' makes a 45 difference***

46 Participants in this study discussed their feeling of 'being on their own' literally,
47 concretely, or subjectively - and an assessment of this condition during emergent
48 situations. Participants discussed their awareness as tied to whether they were in a rural
49 isolated area, which made the response time intervals such as transport, time to transport
50 or quality of transfer facility a challenge influencing decision making and treatment.
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1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of

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3 Paramedics responding to a call in an area with uneven or poor cell phone reception
4 described a heightened feeling of having to solve an issue 'on their own' or in certain
5 ways. Those who worked in an urban context also reported confounding situations such
6 as availability of advanced treatment facilities, heavy traffic, lack of ease in parking in
7 relation to the site, high crime areas and personal safety influencing their response
8 choices. Paramedics, rural and urban, described how not always having all of their
9 gear/equipment available or perhaps not being comfortable with the specific truck, room
10 or gear bag/equipment was an important factor in their decision making. These
11 constraints influenced how they approached, framed and responded to certain types of
12 calls. Participants also discussed their hesitations if they did not have a sense of
13 confidence in the treatment that a patient might receive, and how that posed a unique
14 situation and influenced choices about treatment or transport. This underlying
15 awareness of situational constraints was something that they carried into all situations,
16 and it shifted them from 'auto pilot' or universal approaches. As ethical dilemmas
17 emerged, it specifically influenced participant responses.

18
19 When faced with difficult situations, participants discussed how critical the role
20 of supervisors served as a potential positive resource in their situational decision
21 making. They described how that their relationship with a supervisor and ability to
22 candidly discuss an emergent situation was an important, at times critical resource,
23 especially an option to talk through ethical situations *while they were emergent or very*
24 *soon thereafter*. For many, they discussed how they may not have chosen to make the
25 call, but knowing it was available offered an undercurrent of confidence, support as they
26 proceeded independently. For others, the ability to make that call allowed the
27 participant to think through alternatives and resolve uncertainty. On the other hand,
28 paramedics also discussed how their decision-making capacity was at times impeded or

1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of

2
3 constricted, due to a perceived defensive posture in terms of ability to communicate
4
5 with a supervisor about their course of action during or after ethical dilemmas.
6

7
8 Describing asking about availability of a night shift consult:
9

10 *"We felt you could figure this out on your own"*

11
12 *"When asked about calling for a consult: "Fool, you could have figured this out...why
13 did you wake me at 2 a.m.?"*
14

15 Describing choosing not to consult:
16

17 *"I think autonomy is one of the things that drives a lot of us to do this profession over
18 nursing."*
19

20 Describing response to calling for a day shift consult:
21

22 *"Why did you call me?"*
23
24

25 Reflecting on consults:
26

27 *"You do not feel comfortable reaching out for somebody else to help, you make it, you
28 are the one that is expected to make it."*
29

30 *"I would not mind consulting with other people it is just I know at the end of the day,
31 I'm always going to be the one that answers for it anyway."*
32

33 *"I have a good education and had good preceptors, when I deviate from protocol my
34 medical director and supervisors know it was in the best interest of the patient. They
35 support me and let me make decisions."*
36

37 *"When I am told, "We wish you would have thought about this before you thought of
38 that...it makes me feel like I killed somebody."*
39

40 *"Most of us are in this line of work to help people...as to when they ask us what
41 [happened]. Did you do this? It's like an ambush."*
42
43

44 *"I have been called on the carpet. It was immediate. I think agencies use it as a tactic to
45 get rid of you. You are upset, tired and haven't had a chance to think."*
46

47 *"EMS called to a scene with a behavioural health crisis patient. The patient was a
48 danger to himself and crew. They called a patient family member and waited 30 minutes
49 until the family member arrived and was willing to assume responsibility. We know that
50 the ER is the last place that we need to take behavioural health patients. It is just a 72
51 hour hold with paper scrubs and Turkey sandwich and that's not what people need and
52 we knew that, and the patient knew that. So, we know that doing our job is not going to
53 benefit the patient in any capacity. We documented it as a 'patient assist'... but, it was
54 best for the patient. It was really an ethical problem. We wound up explaining it to the
55 Medical Director because the patient was agitated, and we could not approach to get a
56 refusal."
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Experienced paramedics' navigation of

Similarly, paramedics are sensitive to the degree of rapport and trust with their partners and this was frequently explored and discussed as an element of their decision making or reflective learning process. The data indicated that there is a degree of salience— having a feeling of ‘being together’ rather than alone meant that paramedics were more generally confident during an emergent event, fully considering alternatives and cues in the environment. At times, a decision about how to handle a tough call rested with an assessment of whether their actions would align with their partner’s perspective. The ability to do this without direct observation of patients or their families was offered as an example of ‘meta’ communication – an ability to communicate through a glance, a ‘feeling’ or understanding, especially because stepping aside for private conversation was not always feasible. When a partner was present, one member of the team could also consult resources to double check their planned course of action without patient or others’ observation. Participants reported that their later reflections of what occurred and consideration of how they might approach similar future situations were more exploratory and nuanced if they believed they had shared understanding with a fellow professional – a mentor, a peer, or their partner or supervisor and could choose their own time and place for initiating discussions about their experiences.

“I have been lucky to have fixed partners where you get to build a relationship. Learn and grow from each other.”

“We hash things out, good and bad... {and} decide if we would do anything differently.”

Discussing a 70-year-old local resident (inebriated), described as a cry wolf situation:

“She called frequently and was fine. Once she called and had aspirated and could barely breathe- but refused car.” [The crew tried to convince her to go. They called family, no one would help. The crew waited for her to pass out, so they would have implied consent.] Partner discussion “we cannot leave her, but we cannot take her either, so we left. We cannot make her go.” I told my partner, “you know she will be dead in the morning.” “We got off at 7 am. The tones went off and it was for a fall at the house. I said by God ...dammit, she’s dead, because we knew!” “I wish had followed back up. If I could do it over.... Call has always stuck with me.... It was horrible.”

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3 *"We try to immediately debrief about bad calls. Personally, I try to work my shift, go home, and*
4 *be off. Do the things I want to do."*
5

6 Describing a call where a parent survived, and two children drowned in vehicle, they were
7 swept away in swift water:
8

9 *"After the call with the kids drowning. I remember one of the medics that transported the parent*
10 *also had to transport a deceased child. I reached out to him to make sure he was ok."*
11

12 Participant reflections indicated a strong belief that when it is right and well
13
14 timed, supervisor or partner rapport, trust, and ability to consult made a positive
15
16 difference and they wished that was the case more often than it is. The analysis revealed
17
18 many participants worked hard to leverage their experience, and explicitly wanted to
19
20 maintain autonomy due to the emergent nature of their work, yet wished for
21
22 improvements and consults in the area of trusted support.
23
24

25 ***Role of foundational education and CME remains as untapped potential***

26
27 None of the participants reported or stated that there was little to no point of specific
28
29 recall or connection back to their foundational education or licensure regarding ethics.
30
31 Most participants stated that the general culture of their profession did not currently
32
33 support openly questioning ethical decision pathways beyond discussion of technical
34
35 protocols.
36
37
38
39

40 Nearly all participants stated that they saw a real value in developing and
41
42 sustaining high levels of excellence/competence in treatment protocols as a necessary
43
44 step towards excellent ethical judgment. One could not happen without the other. They
45
46 spoke in detail about their general use of learning tools and aides and memorized
47
48 questions or steps in a protocol to engage in treatments through 'auto pilot' or rehearsed
49
50 models. This meant having a highly skilled (even under pressure) ability to act -- totally
51
52 ready to go -- once a difficult ethical decision was made. Paramedics felt that their
53
54 decision-making skills needed to be supported in a continuous manner -- via a
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1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of

2
3 supportive, well-resourced work environment, their work experience, self-directed
4
5 learning, and CME opportunities.
6

7 ***Participant Discussion of Individual Guiding Principles***

8
9
10 There was rich discussion during interviews about ethical guiding principles that
11
12 were important or relevant to them as individuals. The areas that cued difficult
13
14 dilemmas for participants were questions regarding futility of care, administering
15
16 treatments that caused or prolonged suffering, navigation of fuzzy or competing views
17
18 of family members, patients, and medical professionals, underlying trauma associated
19
20 with bearing witness to suffering, anger with participants who caused injury or death, or
21
22 reflecting upon the healing experience of survivors. They often described their
23
24 experience as a source of 'knowledge' and how they know (while patients or families
25
26 may not) what is coming next and they wrestled with whether or how to share that
27
28 detailed, often painful knowledge so that families or patients could factor their
29
30 [paramedic] perspectives into their care decisions. These were the moments when
31
32 'would I want this done to a loved one or to myself, if I were in a similar situation' or
33
34 projections about the recovery process or memories that surviving loved ones might
35
36 carry imparted a strong sense of responsibility and empathy, and a sense of holding
37
38 back out of respect for patients' (or families) right to decide.
39
40
41
42
43
44

45 *"If I had just been in an accident and I am being rushed around and talked down to... treated*
46 *like a number. I would wonder about my value as a patient. I have to remind myself. 'Whoa-*
47 *slow your roll there ten-speed. At the end of the day it is not just numbers, it is a patient'."*

48 *"The things we are doing to people, I don't ever want that done to me"*

49
50
51 *"Participant [crying] describing a multiple casualty incident, "How do you go to someone else,*
52 *you just to figure out, you are playing God. You are in charge. The dilemma is how you*
53 *effectively treat the most people you can treat without being hyper focused on one."*

54
55 *"I had a pediatric abuse victim. We responded to a home with 2 young children, a 2 year old*
56 *and an 18-month old. The 2 year old was critical...rushed her to the unit and began transport.*
57 *She was taken to the nearest ER because the crew couldn't secure an airway and needed the ER*
58 *doc...the patient was taken to a trauma center where she spent 8 months...Later, it was*
59 *determined that the grandmother (babysitting) had beaten her for crying with a table leg. The*
60

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child is mentally challenged with seizures. My partner still keeps up with the family, this was 8 to 10 years ago. Powerful call. Something wasn't right there. I still feel bad that I was so focused on the child that I didn't realize the 18-month old was also abused."

Describing a case with a pediatric gun-shot victim. It was very hard for first responders who wanted to take the child to the hospital:

"Preteen shot his younger sibling in the chest. Nothing can be done- point blank range with high caliber gun. "We had to put our foot down and say 'no'. It was heart breaking for my partner. The patient is now the family and the youngster that shot his sibling...[long pause]... We took the child and mother."

Responses to pandemic related dilemmas:

"Telling a patient 'No' they cannot go to the hospital". "Every hospital was full. No one taking COVID. Staff was low. "That really hurt. We are the help, we show up and we cannot help. We wanted to take them. They called 911- they didn't understand." The patient as grey, pale, cool and clammy- the family pleads, "Please, you gotta do something" "I cannot take him." "We treated him at home for nausea and dehydration and left him. It hurt my soul."

"I called the hospital to beg them to take the patient and they said, 'what do you want us to do?" and I yelled, 'I want you to take the patient!' ...leaving patients at home that are bad off and explaining, 'I can't take you, we'd just wind up driving around for hours.' ...This isn't like anything we've been taught or ever done in EMS"

Surprisingly, few participants were comfortable with the use of the term, *empathy*, or with describing themselves as an empathetic person. We found ample evidence of expressions and reflections of empathy as an element of decision making, yet there was consistent discomfort with open acknowledgement of deep emotion. The significance of this pause appeared to be mixed – for some participants they valued an appearance and practice of objectivity or a need to compartmentalize in order to treat. For others, their reactions during interviews appeared almost jarred/surprised by their own empathy juxtaposed with a self-concept of holding themselves distinctly apart from others.

The participant reflections, more often than not, blurred accountability, beneficence and empathy in ways that made it difficult discussing them as separate ideas, even when prompted. Instead, the discussions reflected a sense of self-described heaviness and stress regarding ethical situations that were *all as one* for participants.

Perceptions of the role of repetition, practice, reflection and experience in learning

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3 *"If you can do the most mundane things by rote- do them. When things get bad, you'll have*
4 *them. When you are stressed you make automatic decisions. That's what training is for. When*
5 *you make bad decisions under stress, they are usually very bad decisions- some career ending."*
6

7 It is not possible to overstate the participants' attribution of experience and workplace
8 learning 'on the job' to their ethical decision making and growth in this domain.
9

10 Situational mapping helped us to describe a concept of experience connected with
11 learning and performance, interwoven with glimpses of the changing professional
12 awareness and professional identity.
13
14
15
16
17

18 Reflecting upon when they were students preparing for their roles in contrast to
19 being in the field, participants discussed how they were forming professional identities
20 in relation to their role as a paramedic. Many described a transition in their first job to a
21 realization that they were a paramedic professional, yes, but the decision making at the
22 end of the day resided within them as individuals.
23
24
25
26
27
28

29 *"If you give me time to think... I can include what I saw. The patient AND the environment. I*
30 *can approach the whole call and explain myself. I write it all down. What was I thinking?"*
31
32

33 *"The greatest teacher is experience"*
34

35 *"The hardest thing I ever did was transition from student to professional practitioner."*
36
37

38 This early professional transition was often described as associated with stress,
39 fear of harming others or not knowing what to do, having no choice but 'to do it' and a
40 focus on independent skill building by applying knowledge previously learned within an
41 environment with a 'safety net'. Early on, the role of repetition and practice were to
42 perform – to pass an exam, licensing, or the scrutiny of a supervising clinician, and then
43 to have a (sigh of relief) good outcome on a call. Later, it became a part of a lifelong
44 professional learning process.
45
46
47
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52

53 Over time, identity shifted and for many, aligned with the specific employer or
54 organization. This was explained as important because the context, not the paramedic,
55 dictated the rules, the resources, and the 'feel' of the environment. In the analysis there
56
57
58
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1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of

2
3 were distinct mid-career pathways – some focused upon the organization as a source of
4
5 identity, and others upon their individual professionalism.
6

7
8 Incrementally, the role of repetition shifted and became one of focused,
9
10 intentional practice and refinement – as cognitive margin and load was reduced,
11
12 participants described easing into a process where they could seek out feedback,
13
14 information, and reflect and adapt. For example, participants discussed how learning
15
16 from discussions and observing health professionals in other specialties (physicians,
17
18 nurses, other hospital professionals) was very useful to them not only in technique and
19
20 new knowledge, but in thinking through ‘the other side’ of dilemmas in care that they
21
22 consider prior to or after transporting a patient. In the words of one participant:
23
24

25
26 *“One person, one truck. It is a big echo chamber. It is easy to tell yourself you are doing the*
27
28 *right thing when you are the only one talking.*

29
30 Another type of learning experience (which didn't appear to emerge until
31
32 paramedics acquired significant experience) was deep reflection about poverty,
33
34 criminality, drug use, race/gender dynamics and how they might need to personally
35
36 acknowledge or reconcile these issues in order to navigate situations.
37

38
39 The participants in this study who showed an open stance to self-directed
40
41 learning, who explicitly acknowledged the stresses and mistakes of the job, appeared to
42
43 also have more comfort in reflecting upon ethical situations. They described the
44
45 process as instances of lifelong or continual learning. Those who adopted a ‘closed’
46
47 stance towards the heaviness and related stress of the job tended to be less intentional in
48
49 building their informal learning, and less focused on seeking out learning opportunities
50
51 specifically related to ethics. Further, those participants that analysed and discussed the
52
53 dynamics of their environment appeared to demonstrate a stronger and more nuanced
54
55 sense of professional identity.
56
57

58 **Concluding Discussion**

59
60

1 Experienced paramedics' navigation of

2
3 Paramedicine in the United States is an evolving profession and there is scant empirical
4
5 research that connects the subjective, front-line decision making to learning and to the
6
7 evolving professional developments in the paramedic profession. The findings present
8
9 evidence that informal workplace experience served as a primary mechanism for
10
11 developing ethics decision making capacity in the field, and this suggests that
12
13 supporting ethics CME needs to be carefully timed to align with paramedic workplace
14
15 experience, environmental, and professional identity benchmarks. While the principles
16
17 of beneficence, empathy, and accountability were evident, they were not necessarily
18
19 articulated by participants as specific or distinct principles that they used during
20
21 emergent situations. Participants who were aware of the progression of their own
22
23 experiences and the intensity of job-related stress appeared more likely to seek out the
24
25 kind of self-directed and meta-cognitive knowledge and learning that would move them
26
27 towards more nuanced ethics and generalized professional expertise.
28
29
30
31

32
33 The complexity of this research topic necessitates multiple future lines of
34
35 inquiry to deepen and broaden scholarly inquiry. It was our research goal to contribute
36
37 findings that contributed to the understanding of paramedic realities of practice and to
38
39 the opening of informed lines of questioning for others, and finally, to continue our own
40
41 future research about paramedics' learning and subjective knowledge and decision
42
43 making.
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47

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52

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