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Chapter 1 : Research Findings and Policy Recommendations

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Chapter 9 Conclusions and recommendations for future research How well have we achieved our original aim and objectives? The initially stated overarching aim of this research was to identify the contextual factors and mechanisms that are regularly associated with effective and cost-effective public involvement in research. While recognising the limitations of our analysis, we believe we have largely achieved this in our revised theory of public involvement in research set out in Chapter 8. We have developed and tested this theory of public involvement in research in eight diverse case studies; this has highlighted important contextual factors, in particular PI leadership, which had not previously been prominent in the literature. We have identified how this critical contextual factor shapes key mechanisms of public involvement, including the identification of a senior lead for involvement, resource allocation for involvement and facilitation of research partners. These mechanisms then lead to specific outcomes in improving the quality of research, notably recruitment strategies and materials and data collection tools and methods. A key finding is that many research projects undercost public involvement. In our original proposal we emphasised our desire to include case studies involving young people and families with children in the research process. We recognise that in doing this we missed studies involving children and young people aged under 18 years; in principle we would have liked to have included studies involving such children and young people, but, given the resources at our disposal and the additional resource, ethical and governance issues this would have entailed, we regretfully concluded that this would not be feasible for our study. In terms of the initial objectives, we successfully recruited the sample of eight diverse case studies and collected and analysed data from them objective 1. It was more difficult than expected to track the impact of public involvement from project inception through to completion objective 3, as all of our projects turned out to have longer time scales than our own. Even to track involvement over a stage of a case study research project proved difficult, as the research usually did not fall into neatly staged time periods and one study had no involvement activity over the study period. Nevertheless, we were able to track seven of the eight case studies prospectively and in real time over time periods of up to 9 months, giving us an unusual window on involvement processes that have previously mainly been observed retrospectively. We only partly achieved our final objective of undertaking a consensus exercise among stakeholders to assess the merits of the realist evaluation approach and our approach to the measurement and valuation of economic costs of public involvement in research objective 5. A final consensus event was held, where very useful discussion and amendment of our theory of public involvement took place, and the economic approach was discussed and helpfully critiqued by participants. However, as our earlier discussions developed more fully than expected, we decided to let them continue rather than interrupt them in order to run the final exercise to assess the merits of the realist evaluation approach. We did, however, test our analysis with all our case study participants by sending a draft of this final report for comment. We received a number of helpful comments and corrections but no disagreement with our overall analysis. What were the limitations of our study? Realist evaluation is a relatively new approach and we recognise that there were a number of limitations to our study. We sought to follow the approach recommended by Pawson, but we acknowledge that we were not always able to do so. In particular, our theory of public involvement in research evolved over time and initially was not as tightly framed in terms of a testable hypothesis as Pawson recommends. In his latest book Pawson strongly recommends that outcomes should be measured with quantitative data, 17 but we did not do so; we were not aware of the existence of quantitative data or tools that would enable us to collect such data to answer our research questions. Even in terms of qualitative data, we did not capture as much information on outcomes as we initially envisaged. There were several reasons for this. The most important was that capturing outcomes in public involvement is easier the more operational the focus of involvement, and more difficult the more

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strategic the involvement. Thus, it was relatively easy to see the impact of a patient panel on the redesign of a recruitment leaflet but harder to capture the impact of research partners in a multidisciplinary team discussion of research design. We also found it was sometimes more difficult to engage research partners as participants in our research than researchers or research managers. On reflection this is not surprising. Research partners are generally motivated to take part in research relevant to their lived experience of a health condition or situation, whereas our research was quite detached from their lived experience; in addition people had many constraints on their time, so getting involved in our research as well as their own was likely to be a burden too far for some. Researchers clearly also face significant time pressures but they had a more direct interest in our research, as they are obliged to engage with public involvement to satisfy research funders such as the NIHR. Moreover, researchers were being paid by their employers for their time during interviews with us, while research partners were not paid by us and usually not paid by their research teams. Such a bias could have implications for our findings; for example payment might have been a more important motivating factor for less engaged advisory group members. There were a number of practical difficulties we encountered. One challenge was when to recruit the case studies. We recruited four of our eight case studies prior to the full application, but this was more than 1 year before our project started and 15 months or more before data collection began. In this intervening period, we found that the time scales of some of the case studies were no longer ideal for our project and we faced the choice of whether to continue with them, although this timing was not ideal, or seek at a late moment to recruit alternative ones. One of our case studies ultimately undertook no involvement activity over the study period, so we obtained fewer data from it, and it contributed relatively little to our analysis. Similarly, one of the four case studies we recruited later experienced some delays itself in beginning and so we had a more limited period for data collection than initially envisaged. Research governance approvals took much longer than expected, particularly as we had to take three of our research partners, who were going to collect data within NHS projects, through the research passport process, which essentially truncated our data collection period from 1 year to 9 months. Even if we had had the full year initially envisaged for data collection, our conclusion with hindsight was that this was insufficiently long. To compare initial plans and intentions for involvement with the reality of what actually happened required a longer time period than a year for most of our case studies. In the light of the importance we have placed on the commitment of PIs, there is an issue of potential selection bias in the recruitment of our sample. As our sampling strategy explicitly involved a networking approach to PIs of projects where we thought some significant public involvement was taking place, we were likely as we did to recruit enthusiasts and, at worst, those non-committed who were at least open to the potential value of public involvement. There were, unsurprisingly, no highly sceptical PIs in our sample. We have no data therefore on how public involvement may work in research where the PI is sceptical but may feel compelled to undertake involvement because of funder requirements or other factors. What would we do differently next time? If we were to design this study again, there are a number of changes we would make. Most importantly we would go for a longer time period to be able to capture involvement through the whole research process from initial design through to dissemination. We would seek to recruit far more potential case studies in principle, so that we had greater choice of which to proceed with once our study began in earnest. We would include case studies from the application stage to capture the important early involvement of research partners in the initial design period. It might be preferable to research a smaller number of case studies, allowing a more in-depth ethnographic approach. Although challenging, it would be very informative to seek to sample sceptical PIs. This might require a brief screening exercise of a larger group of PIs on their attitudes to and experience of public involvement. The economic evaluation was challenging in a number of ways, particularly in seeking to obtain completed resource logs from case study research partners. Having a 2-week data collection period was also problematic in a field such as public involvement, where activity may be very episodic and infrequent. Thus, collecting economic data alongside other case study data in a more integrated way, and particularly with interviews and more ethnographic observation of case study activities, might be advantageous. Even though

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we included substantial resources for research partner involvement in all aspects of our study, we underestimated how time-consuming such full involvement would be. We were perhaps overambitious in trying to ensure such full involvement with the number of research partners and the number and complexity of the case studies. We were also perhaps naive in expecting all the research partners to play the same role in the team; different research partners came with different experiences and skills, and, like most of our case studies, we might have been better to be less prescriptive and allow the roles to develop more organically within the project. Training is unlikely to be the key mechanism here; senior researchers are much more likely to be influenced by peers or by their personal experience of the benefits of public involvement. Early career researchers may be shaped by training but again peer learning and culture may be more influential. For those researchers sceptical or agnostic about public involvement, the requirement of funders is a key factor that is likely to make them engage with the involvement agenda. Therefore, funders need to scrutinise the track record of research teams on public involvement to ascertain whether there is any evidence of commitment or leadership on involvement. One of the findings of the economic analysis was that PIs have consistently underestimated the costs of public involvement in their grant applications. It was also notable that there was a degree of variation in the real costs of public involvement and that effective involvement is not necessarily costly. Different models of involvement incur different costs and researchers need to be made aware of the costs and benefits of these different options. Particularly for research staff, the questions we asked sometimes made them reflect upon what they were doing and change aspects of their approach to involvement. Thus, the more the NIHR and other funders can build reporting, audit and other forms of evaluation on the impact of public involvement directly into their processes with PIs, the more likely such questioning might stimulate similar reflection. Recommendations for further research There are a number of gaps in our knowledge around public involvement in research that follow from our findings, and would benefit from further research, including realist evaluation to extend and further test the theory we have developed here: In-depth exploration of how PIs become committed to public involvement and how to influence agnostic or sceptical PIs would be very helpful. Further research might compare, for example, training with peer-influencing strategies in engendering PI commitment. Research could explore the leadership role of other research team members, including research partners, and how collective leadership might support effective public involvement. More methodological work is needed on how to robustly capture the impact and outcomes of public involvement in research building as well on the PiiAF work of Popay et al. Research to develop approaches and carry out a full cost-benefit analysis of public involvement in research would be beneficial. Although methodologically challenging, it would be very useful to conduct some longer-term studies which sought to quantify the impact of public involvement on such key indicators as participant recruitment and retention in clinical trials. It would also be helpful to capture qualitatively the experiences and perspectives of research partners who have had mixed or negative experiences, since they may be less likely than enthusiasts to volunteer to participate in studies of involvement in research such as ours. Similarly, further research might explore the relatively rare experiences of marginalised and seldom-heard groups involved in research. Payment for public involvement in research remains a contested issue with strongly held positions for and against; it would be helpful to further explore the value research partners and researchers place on payment and its effectiveness for enhancing involvement in and impact on research. A final relatively narrow but important question that we identified after data collection had finished is: This work was produced by Evans et al. This issue may be freely reproduced for the purposes of private research and study and extracts or indeed, the full report may be included in professional journals provided that suitable acknowledgement is made and the reproduction is not associated with any form of advertising. Applications for commercial reproduction should be addressed to:

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Chapter 2 : Meaning Use for Nurses: Implications and Recommendations Research Paper

Recommendations for future research. The findings and issues raised by the current study indicate several possible avenues for future research. The first and most important priority is to develop and test a series of indicators for safe and appropriate prescribing, suitable for integration within clinical IT systems in prison.

Translate this page from English Print Page Change Text Size: T T T Research Findings and Policy Recommendations Study of 38 Public Universities and 28 Private Universities To Determine Faculty Emphasis on Critical Thinking In Instruction The full study is also available Executive Summary On September 29, Governor Wilson signed legislation authored by Senator Leroy Greene SB directing the Commission on Teacher Credentialing to conduct a study of teacher preparation programs to assess the extent to which these programs prepare candidates for teaching credentials to teach critical thinking and problem-solving skills in elementary and secondary schools. During the spring of , Commission staff began to conceptualize a study design that would yield descriptive information on course content and teaching practices being employed by postsecondary faculty to train teacher candidates. With assistance from the Center for Critical Thinking at Sonoma State University, an interview protocol was designed for use in telephone interviews with a cross-section of education and subject matter faculty in both public and private colleges and universities in California. During the study planning process, a decision was made to design respondent selection procedures in such a way as to assure that information collected would be generalizable to all faculty preparing teachers across the state. To accomplish this objective, two statewide probability samples were designed: There were three major objectives in this study. The first was to assess current teaching practices and knowledge of critical thinking among faculty teaching in teacher preparation programs in California. The second was to identify exemplary teaching practices that enhance critical thinking. The third was to develop policy recommendations based on the results of the study. The study included 38 public colleges and universities and 28 private ones. This minimalist concept of critical thinking is embedded not only in a core body of research over the last 30 to 50 years but also derived from roots in ancient Greek. Etymologically, then, the word implies the development of "discerning judgment based on standards. The tradition of research into critical thinking reflects the common perception that human thinking left to itself often gravitates toward prejudice, over-generalization, common fallacies, self-deception, rigidity, and narrowness. The critical thinking tradition seeks ways of understanding the mind and then training the intellect so that such "errors", "blunders", and "distortions" of thought are minimized. It assumes that the capacity of humans for good reasoning can be nurtured and developed by an educational process aimed directly at that end. It assumes that sound critical thinking maximizes our ability to solve problems of importance to us by helping us both to avoid common mistakes and to proceed in the most rational and logical fashion. For example, those who think critically typically engage in intellectual practices of the following sort: In monitoring, reviewing and assessing these intellectual constructs, those who think critically characteristically strive for such intellectual ends as clarity, precision, accuracy, relevance, depth, breadth, and logicalness. Each of these modes of thinking help us to accomplish the ends for which we are thinking and hence to solve the problems inherent in pursuing those ends. Questions were designed to shed light on the extent to which students in teacher preparation programs in California are being taught in ways that facilitate skill in critical thinking and the ability to teach it to others. There were three goals of this component of the study. The first was to ensure that any faculty who had a developed notion of critical thinking of any kind would have a full opportunity and much encouragement to spell out that notion. We wanted to make sure that everyone interviewed was encouraged to express their actual views and to express them in detail. The second goal was to examine the views expressed to see: The third goal was to determine the extent to which the views expressed demonstrated an internalization of traditional "minimalist" elements of critical thinking. We sought to determine, in other words, how much of the common core of meaning now attached to the traditional concept by those working in

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the field of critical thinking research and reflected in its semantics and history has been internalized by faculty teaching in teacher preparation programs. Data collection included both closed-ended and open-ended questions. In addition, the coders of responses made judgments about some important global features of the responses made using minimalist components of critical thinking as criteria. The open-ended questions, and the follow-up questions, were designed, as indicated above, to provide maximum opportunity for individuals to articulate virtually any concept of critical thinking that they favored. Since the interviews lasted 45 minutes on average, the interviewees had ample opportunity to express their views. The same interview protocol was utilized for both education faculty and subject matter faculty. Since the samples were constructed so as to be representative in a statistical sense of all faculty involved in teacher preparation in California, the results can in fact be generalized to teacher preparation faculty in the state as a whole. The results of the analysis were as follows: The remaining respondents had a limited conception or no conception at all of how to do this. Not a single respondent elaborated on the issue. Some differences were also observed between Education and Arts and Sciences faculty. These differences do not alter the overall findings but do suggest relative strengths and weaknesses for each group. The comparative results were as follows: Analysis of open-ended responses provided not only confirmation of the quantitative data, but also powerful support for significant qualitative generalizations. What is more, a close look at individual cases reveals that there is significant contrast between those faculty members who have a developed concept of critical thinking and those who do not. Profiles of individual faculty responses are presented in the full report to illustrate clearly the kind of differences which existed between those who were articulate in explaining how they approach critical thinking and those who were not. Most faculty answered open-ended questions with vague answers, rather than clear and precise answers. In many of their answers there were internal "tensions" and in some cases outright contradictions. The most common confusion, perhaps, was a confusion between what is necessary for critical thinking and what is sufficient for it. For example, active engagement is necessary to critical thinking, but one can be actively engaged and not think critically. Virtually all of those interviewed identified critical thinking and the learning of intellectual standards as primary objectives in instruction, yet few could give a clear explanation of what their concept of either was. Virtually all said that students lacked intellectual standards when they entered their classes, yet implied, at the same time, that they left with those intellectual standards in place. They also overwhelmingly stated or implied that their students left them with a good level of critical thinking as well as a good level of ability to foster critical thinking in their future students. By direct statement or by implication, most claimed that they permeated their instruction with an emphasis on critical thinking and that the students internalized the concepts in their courses as a result. Yet, only the rare interviewee mentioned the importance of students thinking clearly, accurately, precisely, relevantly, or logically. Very few mentioned any of the basic skills of thought such as the ability to clarify questions; gather relevant data; reason to logical or valid conclusions; identify key assumptions; trace significant implications; or enter without distortion into alternative points of view. Intellectual traits of mind, such as intellectual humility, intellectual perseverance, and intellectual responsibility, are virtually unheard of by the interviewees. Careful analysis of the interviews indicates that, irrespective of the diversity of language used, the central problem is that most faculty have not carefully thought through any concept of critical thinking, have no sense of intellectual standards they can put into words, and are, therefore, by any reasonable interpretation, in no position to foster critical thinking in their own students or to help them to foster it in their future students—except to inculcate into their students the same vague views that they have. Interpreting Responses to Open-ended Questions A close look at the open-ended responses obtained in the interviews provides a realistic sense of the empirical foundation for generalizations that go beyond purely quantitative data. Many of the samples from the interviews are vivid and deeply revealing. A full airing of these samples, with commentary, is contained in Appendix A. The data collected enabled us to present illustrative profiles of faculty who had a vague and or internally incoherent conception of critical thinking in contrast to those who had a developed notion of critical thinking irrespective of their orientation toward it. In other words, we were able to get a strong sense of how many faculty had

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seriously thought through the concept of critical thinking--irrespective of how they defined it, and then, we were able to separate out those whose views were not only highly elaborated but coherent. From delving into the rich details of the open-ended responses, one finds not only confirmation of the quantitative data, but also powerful support for significant qualitative generalizations. The profiles of individual faculty that are summarized below illustrate clearly the kind of differences which existed between those who were articulate in explaining how they approach critical thinking and those who were not. It also confirmed what the quantitative data showed, namely, that many faculty, without knowing it, are confused about the basic concepts and skills of critical thinking. Let us now look at some illustrative faculty profiles from the study. Each profile represents one person from the study. Each profile is anonymous--in keeping with the commitment made to all of those who agreed to be interviewed. Interpreting Responses to Open-ended Questions", "author": To illustrate, many gang members are actively engaged in gang activities, but that does not make them critical thinkers. Yet only the rare interviewee mentioned the importance of students thinking clearly, accurately, precisely, relevantly, or logically, etc. Very few mentioned any of the basic skills of thought such as the ability to clarify questions; gather relevant data; reason to logical or valid conclusions; identify key assumptions; trace significant implications, or enter without distortion into alternative points of view. Intellectual traits of mind, such as intellectual humility, intellectual perseverance, intellectual responsibility, etc. After listening to the interviews it becomes obvious that irrespective of the diversity of language used, the central problem is that most faculty have not carefully thought through any concept of critical thinking, have no sense of intellectual standards they can put into words, and are, therefore, by any reasonable interpretation, in no position to foster critical thinking in their own students or to help them to foster it in their future students--except to inculcate into their students the same vague views that they have.

Chapter 3 : Limitations, Recommendations, Implications and Summary

Recommendations for Further Research Much of the qualitative material extrapolated in this study should be focused upon in a more quantitative fashion. A study might be undertaken in which a post hoc analysis of the severity of medical condition based on medical records is correlated with many of the research outcomes addressed in this study.

Conclusions and Implications The results of the survey indicated some surprising conclusions. Although the literature points to the necessity for psychological, especially neuropsychological, testing after TBI, many individuals are not receiving it. When looking at the results of the study in terms of who has not recommended such testing, doctors and schools certainly stand out. Both doctors and schools are ostensibly in the business of assessing cognitive abilities, albeit for different reasons and from different perspectives. It is suggested that they both routinely and consistently recommend neuropsychological evaluations after TBI. The study results concurred with earlier studies which have reported higher frequencies of problems after TBI in the areas of memory, concentration and word-finding or talking. Also, some symptoms cited as PostConcussional in other studies were reported, not just by PostConcussional or mild or moderate TBI patients, but by participants with more severe head trauma. PostConcussional trauma has been placed in a separate category from severe head injury trauma in some psychological and medical studies. The recovery period from PostConcussional trauma had also been arbitrarily set at 6 months in some sources and 1 year in others. This study showed that some individuals with mild or PostConcussional injury reported longer time frames of symptomatology. This study also showed that the symptoms between various degrees of brain trauma are often similar. The study showed that the symptoms reported by mild, moderate and severe head trauma survivors included those reported under PostConcussional studies. PostConcussional and mild injury survivors should be told that symptoms can and do last longer than arbitrary 6 month or 1 year time frames. Moderate and severe injury survivors may be counseled that measurable improvements in symptom severity in some categories are reported post-two-years TBI by this and other newer studies. Eighty percent felt changed by their TBI. This change in self-image can be very upsetting for the survivor. The survivor and his personal network of family, friends, coworkers, etc. There was no surprise in the finding that most of the survivors reported challenging emotional reactions such as sadness, confusion, anger, fear, shame and guilt to the TBI event itself. The detachment or elation reaction is a potential mechanism for coping, too. However, individuals emitting this reaction may also have undergone a severe emotional trauma from the TBI event. Others should be counseled that an attitude of complacency or elation on the part of the survivor may in fact mask brain injury, or more frightening emotional reactions going on internally or unconsciously for the survivor. The emotional response to the trauma may ultimately surface in other ways. The survivor himself, his loved ones, and other interested parties may not connect the TBI trauma and the subsequent unusual behaviors the survivor may manifest, such as withdrawal, anger, sadness, etc. Therefore, counselors should address these issues with the survivor, his or her family, and other interested parties. There was a large array of both positive and negative responses to emotionally cope with the post-TBI period. People, including survivors, are different. Some respond more positively. Some respond more negatively. Everything must be done to identify those who continue to suffer because of negative coping skills. Sometimes profoundly disabled TBI survivors have happier, more optimistic outlooks on life than relatively more mildly disabled survivors who are completely emotionally immobilized because of TBI. This is why it is important for TBI survivors to be advised of the numerous sources of emotional support available. It should be standard procedure that hospitals, rehabilitation centers, doctors, teachers, counselors, psychologists and schools advise survivors as to sources of emotional support. Sources of emotional support. This study indicated that, as expected, the family was a great source of emotional support for many of the survivors. People with spiritual conviction were blessed to also know that God or other Higher Power provided emotional support. Support groups were helpful to a majority. Unfortunately, the medical community, doctors, hospitals, schools, and teachers rated much lower in the area of emotional support.

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However there were some all the support needed ratings, which presumably reflected that there were some teachers and doctors who were kind, sympathetic, caring individuals. This study found that several theoretically very good sources of treatment and information were not getting high ratings. Institutions such as hospitals, schools, and special education classes did not rate as highly as families, counselors, psychologists, and support groups. Doctors and teachers, paid for their expertise, also rated lower. Books and magazines rated very low. An alternative explanation for low ratings is that many of these sources, for example, books and magazines, are being underemployed by the TBI survivor community. Reading difficulties may prevent many survivors of TBI from utilizing books and magazines. Survivors should be informed of and given useful publications. Alternative sources such as audio and visual materials should be produced and provided to survivors of TBI. Doctors, hospitals, support groups, and teachers should be informed and informative as to materials produced about TBI for the survivor and his or her family. Teacher and schools need further training on TBI so they can pass along helpful data to survivors and their families. A noticeable minority reported no cooperation between school and hospital or between school and rehabilitation center. This finding is new. It is imperative that professionals improve the coordination and cooperation efforts for the well-being of the survivors. Not all who needed school accommodations received them. In fairness to the school system, some of the individuals making these assessments of the school system were in school years ago. They reported an uncaring school system which was uninformed as to TBI. One individual described a school district that had no adaptive PE. The survivor and his family fought this decision and he was allowed to graduate. The system that made such rigidity in thinking possible no longer exists. Schools are now making accommodations and modifications as a routine matter. Once schools are informed as to TBI-engendered deficits, they often make many attempts to accommodate survivors. The key point is that schools need to be knowledgeable as to TBI-engendered deficits so that the correct curriculum and other modifications may be implemented for the survivor. On the other hand, sometimes the survivor or his family or doctor will know exactly what limitations there are. When limitations are reported to the school, modifications should be made. The survivors reported utilizing many helpful devices such as diaries, memory systems, palmtop computers, and memory logs. The devices used are the same types of devices any organized, efficient individual would use to stay on top of things. Therefore, it might be of benefit to analyze what successful workers, executives, professionals, etc. This information could then be converted into structures, strategies, procedures, and habits that survivors of TBI could emulate. Recommendations Much information regarding TBI has come to light in recent years. However, there are countless individuals who sustained TBI years ago sequestered away in nursing homes and group homes. There are injured adult survivors living at home with their aging parents. Survivors and families that have given up hope or just choose to accept the limitations of years ago may not know of the inroads that are being made into the rehabilitation from TBI. Efforts should be made by survivor support groups and concerned professionals and other individuals to reach out to these forgotten survivors of TBI. These individuals and their families should be welcomed to support groups. Support groups should make sure that someone in the group is responsible for communicating the latest medical, technological, educational, and rehabilitative advances to them. More support groups need to be formed. Survivors and their families, teachers, and other concerned individuals should be encouraged to access the myriad of books and magazines available on the subject of TBI. Professionals, such as doctors, psychologist, counselors, and teachers, need to be informed and to share new developments and resources with their clients. Professionals should prepare and maintain resource lists of information and support that they hand out to any survivor with whom they interact. It may not have occurred to the survivor or to his or her family that support groups or materials exist. Therefore, professionals need to be proactive by providing this information whether asked for it or not. A time may come when the survivor is ready to attend support group meetings or read magazines about TBI. Recommendations Regarding the School System and TBI In the average metropolitan school district, 90 to students a year will suffer significant traumatic brain injuries Kalsbeeck, Prior to the IDEA Act of , students with TBI were given labels of other handicapping conditions and often placed in categories not well suited to

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their rapidly changing needs. However, placement of the TBI survivor varies. For example, Donders studied the academic placement of 87 6-to year olds who had sustained brain injuries with documented loss of consciousness. Transition planning from hospital, rehabilitation center, and home to school requires coordination between all involved professionals and the family of the survivor. A designee from the school should coordinate all communications. Therapies initiated in the rehabilitation network should be continued in the school system as much as possible. Community professionals who may evaluate the student include the neurologist, neuropsychologist, physical and occupational therapist, audiologist, and ophthalmologist. The school diagnostic team includes the school psychologist, administrator, special education teacher, resource teacher, school nurse, and general education teacher. Based on various assessments, a student study team will determine the special needs of the student. Making the transition back into school can be facilitated by preparing the survivor, the family, the school, the class, and the teachers for reentry. The family and school personnel expected to interact with the student should be educated about TBI. Educators who knew the student before must be advised of how the student will now be different. If necessary, an individualized education plan IEP will be proposed and implemented for the student. Recovery may be rapid, so IEP goals and objectives will need to be revised more often than is the norm in other special education programs. Their recommendations as to what the student should be capable of doing prior to reentering the school included the following: Ideally, the home-school teacher should be knowledgeable about TBI and able to adjust materials to fit the unique needs of the student with TBI. The student may be encouraged to make trips to visit school prior to return to the classroom. Teachers should keep a watchful eye out for TBI.

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Chapter 4 : Drawing Conclusions and Implications | GSE

The key difference between implications and recommendations in research is that implications discuss how the findings of the study may be important while recommendations endorse specific actions that need to be taken with regard to policy, practice, theory, or subsequent research.

In defense of this study, there are far too many researchers who are consistent with one another concerning the theory that the effects are due to a wider audience. Dollieslager et al all agreed: At last students could see a final product for all their efforts. They understood that writing was not just an exercise; it produced a tangible and valuable product. Recommendations for Future Research This study only begins to reveal the educational potential--and pitfalls--of research and publishing on the World Wide Web. Some unanswered questions have been exposed in this endeavor such as the connection between cooperation between students and the process of publishing their work. It is reasonable to infer that students would wish their work to be presentable with good content, spelling and grammar if it is to be read by a vast audience; however, what causes students to work cooperatively? This was the first year that the researcher required students to have a science mentor to help guide them through their research, and it has become evident to the researcher that science mentoring is essential to the success of the student in science fair competition. Most students enjoyed searching the Internet for sources of information and images to be used for their literature review. They also enjoyed conducting their experiments, using email and creating Web pages. The least enjoyed activity was writing the literature review. Writing a good literature review is essential if a student wishes to advance to regional and state science fairs, yet the students found writing a technical literature review arduous--if not painful! At the same time, students found using computers to be extremely frustrating when they were not set up correctly thereby impeding their progress. Any teacher who wishes to use computers for publishing--or any educational project--must be certain that there is adequate equipment, that it is working properly and that they are very familiar with all of the software which the students will be using. At the onset of this study, a majority of the students were completely against the idea of doing science research and competing in science fair. Most of the students noted in their journals that they thought it was a waste of time and that they did not see the connection between science fair and the physics course. The reluctance to do science research and compete in science fair is peculiar to older students in high school while the researcher has experienced that most middle school students look forward to science fair. The more I look back, the more my attitude improves about the whole thing. The end result that was the finished project proved to be well worth the incredible amount of effort I put in. There is a need for interested educators to become involved in sponsoring activities such as a virtual science fair. At the time of this writing, there were fewer than a handful in existence. Educators who wish to sponsor a virtual science fair or any competition where students can publish their work, must advertise their competitions using the United States Mail Service as well as email. They must solicit and work cooperatively with schools and each other to pool their resources and share their expertise. This all begins by searching the Internet for educators who are doing similar projects and collaborating with them. Summary Thirty-two junior and senior high school students conducted independent science research for the purpose of competing in local, regional and state science fairs. These students used the Internet to search for sources and to communicate with science mentors, and to publish their completed science fair projects on the World Wide Web. The students kept journals, answered questionnaires, were observed and interviewed to determine if their awareness of a wider audience motivated them to excellence. The study concluded that students who participated in the Virtual Science Fair exhibited more effort, engaged in a greater degree of voluntary cooperative work, spent more time on their projects, and produced projects of higher quality than students engaged in the traditional science fair. The study recommended that teachers build upon this research to explore the potential for cooperative interactions between students in the classroom. Furthermore, there is a void of educators who are willing--or have the expertise--to sponsor virtual competitions in all disciplines. The

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experience of guiding students through the research process and giving them the tools to share the fruits of their labor is rewarding. Andrew Of course I wanted to work harder because I knew more that just my teachers were going to see [my research]. Therefore, I was far more meticulous in my work. I think that the motivation was greater because I was going to publish my work. This would be a good way to get other students in the future to work harder on the science fair. Just scare them a little by telling them that thousands of people will be watching!

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Chapter 5 : Implications and Recommendations for Research, Policy and Practice Research Paper

Download file to see previous pages This research paper explores the implication and recommendations for research, policy, and practice. The researcher focuses on the discussing of how findings of recommendations made for research impact his role as an educator.

Adapted from National Research Council c, p. Second, the committee urges individuals in multiple communities, from research through practice and policy, to consider the conceptual scheme and language used in this report as a guide for stimulating further thinking and discussion about the many issues associated with the productive use of assessments in education. The assessment triangle set forth in Chapter 2 and summarized in Box 8â€™1 provides a conceptual framework for principled thinking about the assumptions and foundations underlying an assessment. In the next section of this chapter we consider some of the implications of our conceptual scheme for research that can contribute to the advancement of both theory and practice. Before discussing specific implications for research and practice and presenting our recommendations in each of these areas, we would be remiss if we did not note our concern about continuing with the present system of educational assessment, including the pattern of increasing investment in large-scale assessment designs and practices that have serious limi- Page Share Cite Suggested Citation: Knowing What Students Know: The Science and Design of Educational Assessment. The National Academies Press. As shown below, the corners of the triangle represent three key elements that underlie any assessment: These three elements form the foundations on which every assessment rests. The three elements are represented as corners of a triangle because each is connected to and dependent on the others. To have an effective assessment, all three should be explicitly coordinated as part of the design. A major tenet of this report is that most assessments in current use are based on outmoded conceptions of cognition and learning and on impoverished observation and interpretation methods, as compared with what could be the case given modern scientific knowledge of cognition and measurement. Page Share Cite Suggested Citation: This concern underlines the importance of seizing the opportunity that now exists to reshape the assessment landscape while simultaneously reinforcing many of the social and political reasons for investing in high-quality educational assessment materials, designs, and practices. That opportunity should not be lost just because every theoretical and operational detail has yet to be established for the design and implementation of assessments based on a merger of the cognitive and measurement sciences. There is much that can be done in the near term to improve assessment design and use on the basis of existing knowledge, while an investment is being made in the research and development needed to build assessments appropriate for the educational systems of the 21st century. For all the research recommendations presented below, we advocate a general approach to research and development that differs from conventional practices. In the traditional view of research, development, and implementation, scientists begin with basic research that involves gathering fundamental knowledge and developing theories about an area of inquiry. Other scientists and practitioners use this basic research, together with their experience, to design prototypes that apply the knowledge in practical settings. Still others then design ways to implement the prototypes on a larger scale. The committee believes that, in the case of the assessments we envision, research should focus on design and implementation. The committee takes this position for two reasons. The first is strategic. As described throughout this report, some promising prototype assessments based on modern cognitive theory and measurement principles have already been developed. While the prototypes have been used effectively in selected classrooms and educational settings, there is generally limited experience with their application outside of relatively controlled settings or in large-scale contexts. In part this is because the new forms of assessment are often complex and have not been tailored for widespread practical use. In addition, there are issues involved in large-scale assessment that designers of classroom-based tools Page Share Cite Suggested Citation: The committee takes the position that practical implementation should be studied to raise questions about fundamental science. In many instances, research aimed at solving practical

problems can test the validity and generality of fundamental principles and knowledge. Similarly, Hargreaves argues that research results cannot be applied directly to classroom practice, but must be transformed by practitioners; that is, teachers need to participate in creating new knowledge. Commitment to the improvement of complex systems. Co-development by researchers and practitioners, with recognition of differences in expertise and authority. Long-term engagement that involves continual refinement. Commitment to theory and explanation. To permit wider adoption, the research would have to generate principles to ensure that others would not simply replicate the surface features of an innovation. Also required would be consideration of tools that could help others apply the innovation faithfully, as well as people familiar with the design who could help others implement it. The committee is sympathetic to this argument and believes research that addresses ways to design assessments for use in either classrooms or large-scale settings can simultaneously enhance understanding of the design principles inherent in such assessments and improve basic knowledge about cognition and measurement. We advocate that the research recommended below be funded by federal agencies and private foundations that currently support research on teaching and learning, as well as private-sector entities involved in commerce. Page Share Cite Suggested Citation: The research agenda is expansive in both scope and likely duration. It would be sensible for the funding of such work to be coordinated across agencies and, in many instances, pursued cooperatively with foundations and the private sector. Synthesis of Existing Knowledge Recommendation 1: Accumulated knowledge and ongoing advances from the merger of the cognitive and measurement sciences should be synthesized and made available in usable forms to multiple educational constituencies. These constituencies include educational researchers, test developers, curriculum specialists, teachers, and policy makers. As discussed throughout this report, a great deal of the foundational research needed to move the science of assessment forward has already been conducted; however, it is not widely available or usable in synthetic form. This report is an initial attempt at such a synthesis, but the committee recognized from the start of its work that a comprehensive critique, synthesis, and extrapolation of all that is known was beyond the scope of a study such as this and remains a target for the future. Furthermore, there is an ongoing need to accumulate, synthesize, and disseminate existing knowledge—that is, to construct the cumulative knowledge base on assessment design and use that lies at the center of Figure 8—1. Expanding the Knowledge Base Recommendation 2: Funding should be provided for a major program of research, guided by a synthesis of cognitive and measurement principles, focused on the design of assessments that yield more valid and fair inferences about student achievement. This research should be conducted collaboratively by multidisciplinary teams comprising both researchers and practitioners. A priority should be the development of cognitive models of learning that can serve as the basis for assessment design for all areas of the school curriculum. Research on how students learn subject matter should be conducted in actual educational settings and with groups of learners representative of the diversity of the student population to be assessed. Work should be undertaken to better understand the fit between various types of cognitive theories and measurement models to determine which combinations work best together. This research should encompass careful examination of the possible consequences of such adaptations in high-stakes assessment contexts. One priority for research is the development of cognitive models of learning for areas of the school curriculum. As noted in Chapter 3, researchers have developed sophisticated models of student cognition in various areas of the curriculum, such as algebra and physics. However, an understanding of how people learn remains limited for many other areas. Moreover, even in subject domains for which characteristics of expertise have been identified, a detailed understanding of patterns of growth that would enable one to identify landmarks on the way to competence is often lacking. Such landmarks are essential for effective assessment design and implementation. The development of models of learning should not be done exclusively by scientists in laboratory settings. As argued earlier, it would be more fruitful if such investigations were conducted, at least in part, in actual educational contexts by collaborative teams of researchers and practitioners. Such collaborations would help enhance both the quality and utility of the knowledge produced by the research. To develop assessments that are fair—that are comparably valid across different groups of

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students—it is crucial that patterns of learning for different populations of students are studied. Much of the development of cognitive theories has been conducted with a restricted group of students. In many cases it is not clear whether current theories of learning apply equally well with diverse populations of students, including those who have been poorly served in the educational system, underrepresented minority students, English-language learners, and students with disabilities. There are typical learning pathways, but not a single pathway to competence. Furthermore, students will not necessarily respond in similar ways to assessment probes designed to diagnose knowledge and understanding. Sophisticated models of learning by themselves do not produce high-quality assessment information. Also needed are methods and tools both for eliciting appropriate and relevant data from students and for interpreting the data collected about student performance. As described in Chapter 4, the measurement methods now available enable a much broader range of inferences to be drawn about student competence than many people realize. But research is needed to investigate the relative utility of existing and future statistical models for capturing critical aspects of learning specified in cognitive theories. Most of the new measurement models have been applied only on a limited scale. Thus, there is a need to explore the utility and feasibility of the new models for a wider range of assessment applications and contexts. Within such a line of inquiry, a number of issues will need to be understood in more depth, including the level of detail at which models of student learning must be specified for implementing various types of classroom or large-scale assessments. Furthermore, there is a vital need for research on ways to make a broader range of measurement models usable by practitioners, rather than exclusively by measurement specialists. Many of the currently available measurement methods require complex statistical modeling that only people with highly specialized technical skills can use to advantage. If these tools are to be applied more widely, understandable interfaces will need to be built that rise above statistical complexity to enable widespread use, just as users of accounting and management programs need not understand all the calculations that go into each element of the software. Another priority for assessment design is the exploration of new ways to address persisting issues of fairness and equity in testing. People often view fairness in testing in terms of ensuring that students are placed in test situations that are as similar or standardized as possible. Ways of drawing such conditional inferences have been tried mainly on a small scale but hold promise for tackling persisting issues of equity in assessment. Research should be conducted to explore how new forms of assessment can be made practical for use in classroom and large-scale contexts and how various new forms of assessment affect student learning, teacher practice, and educational decision making. Research should explore ways in which teachers can be assisted in integrating new forms of assessment into their in-

Page Share Cite Suggested Citation: It is particularly important that such work be done in close collaboration with practicing teachers who have varying backgrounds and levels of teaching experience. Also to be studied are ways in which school structures e. The committee firmly believes that the kinds of examples described in this report—all of which are currently being used in classrooms or large-scale contexts—represent positive steps toward the development of assessments that can not only inform but also improve learning. However, for these kinds of innovations to gain more widespread adoption, work is needed to make them practical for use in classroom and large-scale contexts, and evidence of their impact on student learning is needed. Furthermore, the power offered by assessments to enhance learning in large numbers of classrooms depends on changes in the relationship between teacher and student, the types of lessons teachers use, the pace and structure of instruction, and many other factors. To take advantage of the new tools, many teachers will have to change their conception of their role in the classroom. In the process, teachers must guide their students to be more engaged actively in monitoring and managing their own learning—to assume the role of student as self-directed learner. The power of new assessments depends on substantial changes not only in classroom practice, but also in the broader educational context in which assessments are conducted. For assessment to serve the goals of learning, there must be alignment among curriculum, instruction, and assessment. Furthermore, the existing structure and organization of schools may not easily accommodate the type of instruction users of the new assessments will need to employ. For instance, if teachers are going to

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gather more assessment information during the course of instruction, they will need time to assimilate that information. If these kinds of systemic and structural issues are not addressed, new forms of assessment will not live up to their full potential. This is a common fate for educational innovations. Many new techniques and procedures have failed to affect teaching and learning on a large scale because the innovators did not address all the factors that affect Page Share Cite Suggested Citation: Thus, if assessments based on the foundations of cognitive and measurement science are to be implemented on a broad scale, changes in school structures and practices will likely be needed. However, the precise nature of such changes is uncertain. As new assessments are implemented, researchers will need to examine the effects of such factors as class size and the length of the school day on the power of assessments to inform teachers and administrators about student learning.

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Chapter 6 : In research, what is the difference between implication and recommendation? | Editage Insights

The implications of a research set the work in context, and reveal its scope. Recommendations are suggestions for future action, or change. Recommendations can be outlines for future research on the same topic, extending it, or taking up a related strand.

Our review of the survey research suggests opinions differ on what college readiness and career readiness mean. Most managers, for example, do not feel college graduates are career-ready, and in focus groups we heard that employers have difficulties finding employees with the necessary skills. Meanwhile, many college and high school students feel college-ready, yet many college students need developmental education. These stakeholders may not be seeing eye to eye on what college readiness and career readiness mean. Few publicly communicated surveys give voice to the perspectives of high school students. Learn from teachers and administrators how to integrate communication skills into curriculum. Although technical skills, STEM and soft skills are important to employers, the necessity of communication should not be underestimated. Employers in focus groups spoke of struggling to find employees with basic communication skills. Other research has found that nearly half of managers believe college graduates lack writing proficiency and public speaking skills. STEM education and technical skills need not come at the expense of other priorities. Investigate how employers see their roles in education and find ways to support those who want to get more involved. At the programmatic level, connecting employers with one another and with schools can be a step toward more effective partnerships among employers, as well as between employers and schools. In focus groups, employers often said college is not for everyone and some students should be prepared to enter the workforce directly. It would be worthwhile to investigate how widespread this view is among employers and whether it is shared by other stakeholders, such as high school students, teachers and counselors; college students, administrators and advisers; and policymakers. Lines of inquiry could include the following: Have stakeholders considered the implications of a two-tiered system for equity and socioeconomic mobility? How would it be determined which students should enter each pathway? How would employers view graduates from vocational programs in comparison with those who hold college degrees? Do people believe less jobs should require college degrees? While the Common Core is designed to help students develop some interpersonal skills, such as critical thinking, it is worth investigating what else can be done. Many focus group participants indicated interpersonal skills should be developed at a young age, and that parents, extracurricular activities and academic coursework can all help students develop these skills. Weigh a variety of approaches to helping high school students learn about careers and career paths. Surveys of students have found they often graduate without knowing their career paths. In focus groups, employers stated it would be helpful for students to be exposed to many careers so they understand their options. Schools, employers and other institutions in communities could explore a variety of ways to provide students with meaningful opportunities to explore careers and experience workplaces firsthand. These could include allowing students to shadow or intern at local businesses or bringing employers into schools to speak about their professions. Schools and employers that want to do more to help students learn about careers could be connected with each other to share best practices and resources. However, this type of training can take many different forms, including dedicated courses or integration of technical skills or career-readiness training into academic courses or assignments. Employers in our focus groups placed a premium on qualities such as common sense, accountability and teachability. These may not fall under the traditional rubric of career readiness, so it would be particularly beneficial to know what employers think career-readiness training should encompass. Consider holding community events or convene gatherings that bring together teachers, administrators, parents and local employers. The negative views about parents and students that were heard from employers in our focus groups may be easy to dismiss as uninformed and irrelevant. Yet these narratives may be barriers to getting employers more involved in mentoring students, hiring young workers and supporting their local schools.

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Identifying ways to counter these narratives and to bridge gaps between employers and young people can help both students and employers succeed. Help educators, administrators, policymakers and other leaders understand that education is more than academic success and college preparation. Most federal and state policies focus on academic success and college preparation. Many Americans feel, however, that public education should be about more than academics. Many believe the public schools should offer career training, help develop interpersonal skills and prepare students to be good citizens. We need your support to keep things moving!

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Chapter 7 : Implication | Definition of Implication by Merriam-Webster

Research implications basically refer to impact that your research might have on future research or policy decision or the relevant field of interest of your study. 'How will your research affect the targeted community or subject field' is the question that implications will answer.

Contact Us Conclusions and Implications The most important parts of a research report are the descriptions, analyses, and interpretations of the data. What you do with the findings, i. The research needs to identify for the reader why and how the analyses and interpretations were made and the way key concepts in the analyses evolved. In addition, the researcher needs to "inform the reader of any unexpected findings or patterns that emerged from the data and report a range of evidence to support assertions or interpretations presented. Showing, not telling about your findings, is the best way to let your reader know what you discovered. Quotes, vignettes, field notes, work samples and other data can be used to support interpretations and assertions. If it was a moment of vivid insight for you, it may well be a breakthrough for your audience. A conclusion section refocuses the purpose of the research, revealing a synopsis of what was found and leads into the implications of the findings. A conclusion may also include limitations of the study and future research needs. Implications for Practice The meanings you construct from your data help give you ideas about how to teach in a particular way. The statements you make about how you might teach are the implications for future teaching. Is Teacher Research Valid and Reliable? That is a question that has been asked many times by both traditional educational researchers and teacher-researchers. Validity in research is the degree to which a study is honest and true to its intent, its context, and its reporting. It is the result of your integrity as a teacher and as a researcher. It poses the question, "Does your data say what you say it says? Each school is different and the conditions are never the same from one class to the next. Teacher research derives its reliability from providing enough information to be able to make reasonable "comparisons" to other situations and contexts. Teacher researchers do not try to recreate the context of a study, but rather consider asking questions such as these: How does the context affect the findings in the study? What different variables are in the context? If the multicultural mix of students was substituted for a more homogeneous one, how would that affect the findings? MacLean and Mohr outline a number of steps teacher-researchers can take to achieve validity in research. Chief among them are: Make revisions of your research questions to ensure a focus on your current teaching and what your students are learning. Frequent, consistent writing of your own observations will help you to discover what you think and to record what happens over a period of time. Collect a broad database of information to provide grounding for the interpretations that emerge from the data. Have other teacher-researchers examine and challenge your work. Read literature from theoretical and methodological frameworks to seek different theories and methods that challenge and deepen your own. Stainback and Stainback state that "qualitative researchers seldom claim that their reports are totally unbiased. National Writing Project, p. Power, Brenda Miller Improving Your Observational Notetaking. Stainback, Susan and William Council for Exceptional Children.

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Chapter 8 : Conclusions, Implications, Recommendations and Further Research

Conclusions and Recommendations Paper Masters discusses how to properly write conclusions and recommendations for research papers. In the Conclusions and Recommendations section (typically Chapter V of a thesis), you present your interpretation of the results given in Results Section (Usually Chapter IV).

Implications for practice The relationship between rates of mental illness and rates of psychotropic prescribing is, undoubtedly, complex. This, together with the lack of up-to-date data on the prevalence of mental illness in prisons, limits the extent to which we can draw any firm conclusions regarding whether or not the prescribing of psychotropic medicines is wholly appropriate and proportionate to the level of need. Nonetheless, what is clear from our study is that psychotropic medicines were prescribed frequently in prisons, and for a wider range of indications than those for which they are currently recommended. Set in the context of the wider evidence base in this area, this suggests that prisons may lack the precision and range of responses required when distinguishing between and responding to mental illness, challenging behaviours and distress. Greater access to psychological therapies, non-health activities and support for vulnerable individuals in custody could be possible ways to reduce reliance on psychotropic medication. We found evidence that psychotropic medicines were used in prisons to treat a broad range of illnesses and symptoms, not all of which have an established evidence base. Where medicines are prescribed for unlicensed uses, it is important for prescribers to justify their use and document this clearly. In particular, it would appear that doctors in prison are continuing to prescribe drugs for personality disorder, against the recommendations of NICE. This phenomenon might not be unique to prisons; indeed, personality is a contested and complex area. However, in the absence of an established evidence base, there remains a need to review such practices and, where possible, identify alternative treatment options. The current study indicated there were discernible differences in drug choice between prisons and the community. In particular, certain antidepressant and antipsychotic medicines with propensity for sedation and weight gain were more likely to be prescribed in prison. There are a number of reasons why sedative effects may be viewed as desirable among prisoners, thereby increasing pressure on prescribers. Nonetheless, while patient preferences should be taken into account, the increased risk of adverse effects on physical health associated with these drugs cannot be overlooked. Given these risks, prisons should ensure that there are robust and integrated systems in place to monitor and manage the physical health of prisoners receiving such treatment. This is especially important among prisoners who commonly have multiple health problems and medications, adding to the complexity of care. While we did not formally investigate this as part of the current study, anecdotally there appeared to be variation between prisons in terms of frequency of monitoring, the measures used and how the workload was distributed. It may, thus, be beneficial for prisons to consider offering medicines use reviews to provide advice on medicines, optimise medicines use and help to identify drug-drug interactions. During the process of conducting this research, we noticed that some prisons were still not using electronic clinical record systems for issuing prescriptions. We consider this an unnecessary hindrance to information sharing between prescribers and other health-care professionals in prison. If prescribers cannot easily access up-to-date and accurate information on prescriptions, this increases the risk of polypharmacy, hazardous drug-drug interactions and iatrogenic effects. Therefore, using electronic prescribing when it is available, would improve transparency, patient safety and to provide effective and integrated health care. There may be a need to provide training to enable individuals to competently use these new systems.

Recommendations for future research The findings and issues raised by the current study indicate several possible avenues for future research. The first and most important priority is to develop and test a series of indicators for safe and appropriate prescribing, suitable for integration within clinical IT systems in prison. The current study used a combination of methods to extract the relevant demographic and prescribing data from each prison and convert them into meaningful information, requiring considerable time, effort and skill. If an automated system could be integrated within

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clinical IT systems capable of summarising prescribing activity, this would facilitate regular self-monitoring, review and benchmarking of a crucial area of practice. Harnessed correctly, data held in clinical IT systems in prisons could also be used, either alone or in combination with other data sets, in epidemiological studies to determine associations between psychotropic drug treatment in prison and a range of outcomes relating to mental and physical health, reoffending and social outcomes, both in custody and post release. Another worthwhile direction for future research would be to determine the frequency and type of treatment responses including prescriptions for psychotropic medicines and alternatives among prisoners presenting with common mental health problems. This could be conducted alongside clinical trials to measure the impact of introducing alternative interventions e. It would also be important to include a health economics component to understand the relative costs of psychotropic prescribing versus other interventions. Research in this area could also consider whether or not the use of more costly formulations of medicines in prison e. The evidence from this study showed that doctors in prison are continuing to prescribe drugs for personality disorder. While this practice may be against national clinical guidance, there is arguably a need for research to explore the reasons and circumstances in which drugs are prescribed for personality disorder, not only in prison but in the wider community. A qualitative, exploratory approach may be an appropriate starting point for this type of study. Finally, this study revealed important differences in prescribing patterns among demographic subgroups, in particular women and BME groups. Yet from the limited data we collected in the current study, it is unclear why exactly these differences were observed. For example, do the higher rates of psychotropic drug treatment among women in prison represent overprescribing or an appropriate response to increased clinical need? Are the lower rates of psychotropic prescribing among BME groups evidence of undertreatment of mental illness? Furthermore, we did not have the opportunity to explore in detail psychotropic prescribing among older prisoners, who are an important and rapidly growing group with complex health and medication needs. Further research in these areas would answer such questions and help to inform the future planning and commissioning of services for important demographic groups. This work was produced by Hassan et al. This issue may be freely reproduced for the purposes of private research and study and extracts or indeed, the full report may be included in professional journals provided that suitable acknowledgement is made and the reproduction is not associated with any form of advertising. Applications for commercial reproduction should be addressed to:

Chapter 9 : What is the difference between research implication and recommendation? | Editage Insights

Implications for Future Research Introduction In our original review of the current state-of-the art, and in the Summary Review of the Literature, we presented four recommendations for future research.