

**This is an electronic reprint of the original article.
This reprint *may differ* from the original in pagination and typographic detail.**

Author(s): Reijula, Jori; Nevala, Nina; Lahtinen, Marjaana; Ruohomäki, Virpi; Reijula, Kari

Title: Lean design improves both health-care facilities and processes: a literature review

Year: 2014

Version:

Please cite the original version:

Reijula, J., Nevala, N., Lahtinen, M., Ruohomäki, V., & Reijula, K. (2014). Lean design improves both health-care facilities and processes: a literature review. *Intelligent Buildings International*, 6(3), 170-185.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/17508975.2014.901904>

All material supplied via JYX is protected by copyright and other intellectual property rights, and duplication or sale of all or part of any of the repository collections is not permitted, except that material may be duplicated by you for your research use or educational purposes in electronic or print form. You must obtain permission for any other use. Electronic or print copies may not be offered, whether for sale or otherwise to anyone who is not an authorised user.

Lean design improves both healthcare facilities and processes: a literature review.

Journal:	<i>Intelligent Buildings International</i>
Manuscript ID:	13-IB113-RV
Manuscript Type:	Review Article
Keywords:	Healthcare Design, Users- Needs, User Experience Design, Holistic Thinking

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

Review Only

1
2
3 **ABSTRACT-** This article presents a literature review of the possibilities and challenges of Lean
4 design in modern healthcare facilities. Many of today's healthcare facilities are in dire need of
5 renovation since limited financial resources among healthcare demand improved work process
6 efficiency, safety and employee well-being. Lean philosophy has been successfully implemented
7 into hospitals with up-and-running hospital processes, but has not been thoroughly tested as a
8 design methodology. The principles of Lean do not contradict with user-centric, participatory or
9 ergonomic design approaches, and thus the possibilities of using Lean as a complementary design
10 methodology to the aforementioned approaches are discussed in this paper. Lean fundamentals
11 are also useful when dealing with change management issues. Furthermore, the idea of using
12 simulations alongside Lean to enhance healthcare design is briefly discussed. Lean offers a
13 fundamentally solid ideology and a wide range of tools – many of which seem fitting to solve
14 several urgent design problems in today's healthcare design.
15
16
17

18
19 **Keywords-** Lean, healthcare, user-centric design, participative design, ergonomics, simulations

20 21 *Background*

22
23 Healthcare practitioners' work is physically and psychologically intense. Due to an aging population
24 structure in the developed countries, it is important to ensure healthcare workers maintain good
25 physical and mental health. This can be accomplished by creating a good work environment that
26 promotes wellness, improves coping with stress and maintains one's ability to work (Smith and
27 Sainfort 1989; Ulrich 1991). On the other hand, poorly designed and crowded hospital work spaces
28 are common and may cause fatigue, stress, burnout, and compromise patient safety by disrupting
29 the staff's work performance, quality of care and lead to an increased number of medication errors
30 (Gluck 2007; Chaudhury *et al.* 2009; Aiken *et al.* 2011; Mahmood *et al.* 2011). With the financial
31 constraints among today's healthcare, improved cost efficiency is demanded. Many healthcare
32 facilities are outdated and require major renovations because they have a tendency to create delays
33 that may negatively impact patient safety and work efficiency (Mullaney 2010). Furthermore,
34 healthcare processes are changing, which also creates need for new facility design.
35
36
37

38
39 By improving physical environmental dimensions of a healthcare facility (air quality, acoustics,
40 lighting, seating arrangements, etc.), significant effects on staff health and work efficiency could be
41 gained (Ulrich *et al.* 2004; Ayas *et al.* 2008; Salonen *et al.* 2013). A well-designed hospital increases
42 patient and staff well-being, satisfaction, patient safety, expedites patient recovery rates (Ulrich
43 1999; Gesler *et al.* 2004; Gluck 2007; Haron *et al.* 2012), while reducing medical errors, hospital
44 acquired infections, staff stress and injuries (Ulrich *et al.* 2008). Although the importance of
45 designing safe and efficient healthcare work environments has been acknowledged worldwide,
46 plenty of room for improvement still exists (Gluck 2007). Regrettably, today's healthcare design still
47 tends to ignore the aspect of user-centricity (Reiling 2007). Designers with poor insight into
48 healthcare processes are being hired to plan and scheme hospitals. New hospitals are being built,
49 after which the staff is asked to adjust their work processes to fit in with the new facilities. This
50 leaves the novel facilities unsuitable for their purpose and the work environments limiting work
51 processes instead of enhancing them. Doctors and nurses have to walk excessive distances to fetch
52 medical supplies, patients have to travel back and forth between treatment rooms or travel
53 excessive distances inside the hospital, and staff performs administration and medication errors
54 (Hughes and Ortiz 2005). Design modifications at later stages of a hospital building's lifecycle are
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 expensive and sometimes difficult to achieve due to the multidisciplinary nature of design decision-
4 making (Mourshed and Zhao 2012).
5

6 An understanding of hospital users' (employees' and patients') perception of design factors is
7 essential for informed decision-making during early design stages since they have the deepest
8 knowledge of the hospital work processes (Harun and Ibrahim 2008; Mourshed and Zhao 2012).
9 They should therefore also be essentially involved in the design of the facility. Deployment of a
10 multi-professional approach has had notable success in recent years and can thus be recommended
11 for future healthcare design projects. It has shown promising results, but still lacks implementation
12 tools: How can we effectively transfer information of the users' needs on to the designers? Even if
13 this is accomplished, designers, architects, administrators and hospital staff may all have different
14 views and opinions on how the hospital should be designed (Bromley 2012).
15
16
17

18 User-centric and participatory design approaches have been popular among healthcare design (Seim
19 and Broberg 2010). They attempt to create an environment that enhances hospital users' well-being,
20 coping with work, and work processes. However, healthcare design still seems to be missing a key
21 piece in optimizing work processes for the newly built facilities. Lean philosophy has exhibited
22 potential in improving the efficiency and quality of healthcare environments and processes. It has
23 been implemented successfully into a growing number of healthcare facilities worldwide (Jones and
24 Mitchell 2006; Ben-Tovim *et al.* 2007; Nelson-Peterson and Leppa 2007). Lean attempts to create
25 more value (e.g. direct care) for the customer (patient) by removing waste (everything besides
26 value-creating activity/non-value-adding activity) in the work process. Lean principles can have a
27 dramatic effect on improving processes and outcomes, reducing cost and cycle times, and increasing
28 patient and staff satisfaction (Mullaney 2010). It has often been implemented into a facility that has
29 already been built and optimized for "old" work processes, which makes work process adjustments
30 very challenging. However, if user-centric and participatory design approaches were complemented
31 with Lean fundamentals, methods and tools already in the design phase, could this improve work
32 processes and spatial solutions as well?
33
34
35
36

37 This paper is a literature review of over 100 research papers conducted regarding Lean and
38 healthcare facility design. The aim of this paper is to review the current state of user-centric and
39 participatory design approach in healthcare facilities and the associated needs and shortcomings.
40 Then some basic fundamentals of Lean philosophy are discussed along with its implementation
41 potential in healthcare design projects. This paper considers whether Lean, a management
42 philosophy, can be effectively utilized in the design phase of the healthcare facility design. Also, the
43 possibility of successfully integrating Lean approach with change management, simulations and user-
44 centric, participatory, and ergonomic design approaches is discussed in this paper.
45
46
47

48 ***User-centric and participatory design of health facilities***

49
50 Hospital designs are complex and possess an abundance of interrelated functions that must
51 accommodate the constant movement of people, equipment and supplies throughout its structure
52 (Haron *et al.* 2012). A well-designed, user-centric healthcare design that focuses on spatial layouts,
53 accessibility, workflow and people behavior provides several benefits: It improves the users'
54 understanding, well-being, and satisfaction, and renders the usage of the space safe, efficient,
55 effective, productive, user friendly and comfortable (Gesler *et al.* 2004; Poldma 2009; Rechel *et al.*
56
57
58
59
60

2009; Haron *et al.* 2012; Mourshed and Zhao 2012). There is an urgent need for creating new, user-centric healthcare facilities (Crow *et al.* 2002; Dinç 2009). Sometimes this may mean questioning some of the dominant, unwieldy solutions used nowadays. Optimization of an already constructed healthcare facility may prove difficult, frustrating and expensive as well as time consuming, and to top it off, the outcome may still be sub-par. Post occupancy evaluation techniques help assess the users' satisfaction and experiences (e.g. "RUKA 1", (Samah *et al.* 2012)), but the main focus should be shifted towards pre-emptive design techniques. It may thus be wise and cost-efficient to rebuild an entirely new facility by utilizing up-to-date knowledge on user-centric hospital design. The new healthcare facility may even become cheaper in the long run than upkeep of an outdated one due to i.e. new HVAC systems, which significantly improve energy savings (Bizzarri and Morini 2006; Vanhoudt *et al.* 2011; Ascione *et al.* 2013; Reijula *et al.* 2013). Investment in new, patient-centered healthcare design has been seen to improve provider-patient communications and relationships, involve patients more thoroughly in medical decision-making, empower the patients, and enable the physicians to better fulfill the patients' wants, needs and preferences (Bensing *et al.* 2000; Berwick 2009; Mayes 2009; Bromley 2012).

User-centric way of thinking has only relatively recently begun to gain momentum in healthcare facility planning, but has gathered worldwide support (Laine and Davidoff 1996; Duggan *et al.* 2009). Basic starting points in user-centric facility design are considering the goals of the organization and the requirements of the work processes which are systematically analyzed. The goal is to find ways to ensure that the facilities meet the users' (employees' and patients') needs and support well-being and productivity (Rechel *et al.* 2009). User-centric design doesn't necessarily have to mean participatory design. User-centric design may be based on the evidence based research data or knowledge which a researcher collects from the users for example using questionnaires and checklists (Becker and Parsons 2007). The user could be quite passive without any actual participatory action in the design process (Sanders and Stappers 2008). Instead, participatory design is a process, where different stakeholders are involved in the design process in order to improve the design process itself or the outcome of the design process (Granath *et al.* 1996). Participatory design appears in different versions and with different implications. The degree of participation in the process may vary. User involvement could be representative or direct and it could relate to the whole design process or only to a certain part of it. In participatory design, organization members are brought together to analyze problems in the organization, describe their situation, redesign the work organization, and learn from each other. Methods to facilitate participation include e.g. project teams, workshops and conferences which search for common grounds and improvement ideas (Gustavsen 1992).

In the deepest meaning of participation, user involvement could be called "collective design" or "co-design". In a collective design process the different actors' expertise, knowledge and values formulate the design result in a collective way (Granath *et al.* 1996). The users are regarded as experts of their own work and their participation is based on their relevant knowledge (Granath *et al.* 1996). In hospitals, healthcare providers constitute the most frequent facility user group who spend most of their working time in hospital indoor environments, and are thus familiar with the physical aspects of their environment and with the requirements of their own work (Mourshed and Zhao 2012). Hence, their opinion on the design of a hospital provides invaluable information and expertise to hospital designers. They play a significant role in knowledge development, idea generation and concept development as well (Sanders and Stappers 2008). The focus in the facility

1
2
3 design process is multidimensional: Spatial, technical and organizational issues are discussed. The
4 common knowledge and the objectives are questioned and developed and the participants have a
5 genuine possibility to contribute to the goal setting and solutions (Granath *et al.* 1996). At its best,
6 the collective design process is a multidisciplinary learning dialogue between the different users of
7 the facility (Adler *et al.* 1995). All upcoming employee groups should be represented in the design
8 phase: Architects, interior designers, engineers, ergonomists, facility management, local
9 authorization, medical planners, healthcare professionals and patients should all share their
10 knowledge in the pursuit of optimizing facility design for work processes (Clements-Croome 2004;
11 Seim and Broberg 2010; Haron *et al.* 2012). This way everyone has a say in the new hospital design,
12 which may be seen as a positive thing in several ways: Some fundamental flaws in the design phase
13 may be avoided, employees feel that all opinions are heard, which may instill a feeling of belonging
14 and togetherness, resources can be saved, job satisfaction can be improved, the patients viewpoints
15 will be better accounted for, and benefits in participatory leadership can be established (Wilson and
16 Haines 1997; Sanoff 2008).

17
18
19
20
21 However, this idea has proven to be difficult to realize: Due to patients' and clinicians' lack of
22 knowledge about the design process, their input might have limited benefit in the design process
23 (Hignett and Lu 2009). Furthermore, healthcare professionals and architects may perceive they have
24 insufficient knowledge of hospital work processes as a whole – spanning from the arrival of patient
25 until the moment of his/her departure from the facility – for planning a patient-focused hospital
26 (Jensø and Haugen 2005). They may also possess insufficient abilities to take the patients'
27 perspective in patient-centered hospital planning (Jensø and Haugen 2005). Even if they do, they
28 may be unable to convey this information to the rest of the design team. Furthermore, architects
29 seldom have knowledge on the work clinicians perform and vice versa. This calls out for ergonomists
30 to facilitate the involvement of clinicians and patients to engage with future designs of healthcare
31 environments (Hignett and Lu 2009). Increased monitoring of the healthcare personnel,
32 communication gap, coupled with lack of trust between the design team and the various user groups
33 are still some of the major challenges in participatory design and have led to a stifling effect on
34 healthcare design (Sanders and Stappers 2008; Hignett and Lu 2009). Thus, there is a need for
35 methods for design and communication that bridges over differences in language among the
36 participants.
37
38
39
40
41

42 ***Lean fundamentals***

43
44 Implementation of Lean may provide useful insights into user-centric and participatory facility
45 design. Some see it merely as a tool-box for quick fixes, but contrary to these beliefs it is actually a
46 comprehensive management philosophy. It should be utilized throughout the entire organization;
47 knowledge rippling from senior executives to all workers in different levels of the hospital. This, top-
48 down topology has worked well in many Lean implementation projects among healthcare thus far
49 (Womack and Miller 2005) and the results have been promising in cases wherein Lean has been
50 implemented comprehensively and systematically and into the hospital (Radnor *et al.* 2012).
51 Basically, Lean seeks to provide maximal value (high quality treatment) to the patient with the given
52 effort. This is carried out by eliminating as many excess steps (waste) from the work process as
53 possible. Lean practitioners have identified eight forms of waste: (i) defects (e.g. lost laboratory
54 specimens), (ii) overproduction (e.g. too large batches of medication), (iii) transportation (e.g.
55 moving materials, patients or information files), (iv) waiting (e.g. patients waiting for their
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 appointment), (v) excess inventory (e.g. expired supplies), (vi) unnecessary motion (e.g. excess
4 walking by the staff or patients), and (vii) excess processing (e.g. re-writing paper-based patient
5 forms) and (viii) the failure to develop human potential (e.g. physicians preparing patients for
6 surgery) (Ohno 1988; Womack and Jones 2003; Chalice 2005).
7

8
9 Lean offers a plethora of tools for work process optimization, such as the Value Stream Map (VSM),
10 5S, JIT and Zero-Quality Control. Elimination of waste is a never-ending journey, as the whole
11 company learns to understand the philosophy of continuous improvement (Reijula and Tommelein
12 2012). The performance effects of Lean increase along with higher levels of environmental
13 complexity (leading to higher levels of waste) (Azedegean *et al.* 2013). More information on the basics
14 of Lean philosophy can be found from following references (Liker and Meier 2006; Reijula and
15 Tommelein 2012).
16

17
18 Toyota, the company mainly responsible for the development of Lean has defined five core values
19 for “Lean thinking”: Teamwork, Respect, Kaizen, Genchi Genbutsu and Challenge (Liker 2003). These
20 can be seen as fundamental cornerstones of Lean as well and are thus worth explaining to give the
21 reader a deeper understanding of the Lean ideology.
22
23

24 In order to create a mutual understanding and a sense of togetherness, Lean emphasizes **Teamwork**
25 and **Respect** among all employees. It is important to listen to employees from different areas of
26 work when carrying out user-centric design, especially in a patient-centered field of expertise such
27 as healthcare. All employees should be encouraged to speak out and point out flaws in the work
28 processes instead of hiding the process shortcomings (Dekker 2007). This doesn’t just happen by
29 ordering everyone to speak out. Lean focuses on changing the culture and atmosphere of the
30 workplace so that these new improvement ideas will be listened to and that the foremen will
31 respect the workers for speaking out. Even in today’s work culture, healthcare professionals are
32 reluctant to inform their foremen of process flaws and present improvement ideas due to fear of
33 malpractice and litigation concerns (Donchin 1995). Some even fear we are shifting towards a blame
34 culture (Hignett and Lu 2009). Lean sees work processes as always being imperfect and incomplete;
35 improving them will ultimately decrease the chance of human error. Moreover, one should not be
36 afraid to admit and point out mistakes because they can be an invaluable source of information for
37 the rest of the company. Togetherness, loyalty and respect among co-workers, business partners
38 and also the community are emphasized, and only an atmosphere of trust can guarantee positive
39 results. Everyone – not only the management – is held accountable for the results and is taught to
40 work together towards a common goal. Lean focuses on teams and also rewards them instead of
41 individuals. This is seen as a much more effective means to gain positive results than individual
42 punishment. Lean believes this will lead to users’ improved motivation and commitment to
43 continuous improvement (“Kaizen”).
44
45
46
47
48

49
50 **Kaizen** is a Japanese word meaning continuous improvement. As no process can ever be declared
51 perfect, there is always room for improvement. The process of Kaizen can be separated into four
52 steps: creating stability, flowing work, standardization and incremental leveling (Liker and Meier
53 2006; Reijula and Tommelein 2012). This is a never-ending loop that starts over from the beginning
54 once completed. There are several Lean tools for continuous improvement. Visualization is a basic
55 fundamental of Lean and provides an effective way for all healthcare professionals to learn and store
56 information. Value Stream Map is a useful Lean visualization tool for healthcare professionals for not
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 only understanding their own work processes but also those of co-workers. It helps avoid waste
4 such as back and forth (and other excess) movement for both people and inventory and optimize the
5 logistics inside the healthcare facility.
6

7
8 **Genchi Genbutsu** means going to the source of information to find the relevant facts and to make
9 correct decisions. This is a key concept in Lean and in short it means finding the source of error and
10 fixing it; it can be work processes or anything that interferes with efficient work. It is crucial to locate
11 and identify the problem in person in order to correctly deal with the issue. Relying on hear-say can
12 lead to poor error descriptions leading to wrong solutions and costly mistakes. Genchi Genbutsu
13 helps doing things right the first time; even if this means extra effort and slightly decreased work
14 performance from the staff in the initial stages of Lean transformation.
15

16
17 **Challenge** has been defined to maintaining a long-term vision and meeting all challenges with the
18 courage and creativity needed to realize that vision. This is prominent considering many of today's
19 healthcare design projects with sub-par execution and final results: Healthcare facilities are being
20 designed with a short-sighted vision of what the building costs are and when the facility is going to
21 produce income. This may mean investing less initially to ensure budget margins stay positive
22 throughout the entire project, which leads to an initial compromise and a visibly less-than-optimal
23 outcome. Lean thinkers must be persistent from start to finish and willing to invest thoroughly in
24 order to gain profits in the long run. Higher design costs and lower profits during the first few years
25 of operating must not be seen as a threat, but rather as a long-term path towards higher rewards.
26 Toyota has used this mindset with outstanding financial success, being the industry benchmark of
27 automakers (Bergenwall *et al.* 2012).
28
29
30

31 ***Change management***

32
33
34 When changing from an old way of hospital design towards a user-centric and participatory facility
35 design, the users of the facility become the center of attention. Resistance to change among
36 employees drastically reduces the success of any venture (Mana Gonçalves and Pereira da Silva
37 Gonçalves 2012). Thus change management must be thoroughly understood and is one of the first
38 challenges to conquer for the hospital management. A vast amount of literature exists on the
39 difficulties of change management (Carignani 2000; de Oliveira and Serra Pinheiro 2009; McDeavitt
40 *et al.* 2012). In order to improve work processes, new, right patterns of work must be developed,
41 and the reasons behind the change understood. What can be accomplished, what will be the
42 demands and costs, and what will be the short and long-term effects of the change? Change
43 management is difficult – especially for managers (Plenert 2007). Most organizations tend towards
44 bureaucracy, which suppresses change (Plenert 2007). People may be resistant towards change;
45 especially so if the goals of the organization and the motivations behind the (Lean) transformation
46 are not comprehended by the staff (Plenert 2007; Buesa 2009). People may become uncertain,
47 insecure, anxious and even depressed due to fear of losing privacy, own personal territory and even
48 jobs (Greenglass and Burke 2001; Buesa 2009). Employees may worry about constant disturbances
49 and interruptions that may follow a more hectic work pace. Especially those accustomed to old work
50 routines and patterns in the company are often against change. There may also be pessimistic
51 people, those dissatisfied with the old work processes, but also skeptic about the change and future
52 work processes. There is always resistance, but with conscious, determined effort to inform and
53 enlighten employees and increase their knowledge about the changes by opening and maintaining
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 clear channels of communication this opposition can be minimized (Mana Gonçalves and Pereira da
4 Silva Gonçalves 2012). Motivating the personnel by stimulating their innovation and creativity is
5 beneficial (Plenert 2007). Directness, openness, honesty, commitment to the success of others and
6 willingness to acknowledge problems and errors have been seen as behavioral keys to successful
7 change management (Howard 1990). Emphasizing diversity in the workforce, recognition of
8 individuals, ethical management practices and worker empowerment have been seen as keys to
9 success by the business visionary Levi Strauss (Howard 1990). On the other hand, it is good to
10 remember that resistance can also be seen as a warning signal which draws attention to aspects of
11 change that may be poorly thought and which need alternative action models or solutions (Waddell
12 and Sohal 1998).

13
14
15
16 Lean workshops (also called Kaizen Blitz) have been found to be an efficient way of informing staff of
17 the upcoming change in work processes. The workshops aim at teaching the staff the basic
18 fundamentals of Lean. Unless the employees understand the main reasons behind the change, they
19 will not likely buy into the idea, which may ultimately lead to failure in the Lean implementation
20 project. Lean workshops have also instilled a sense of togetherness and increased social interaction
21 and networking among the employees in previous Lean implementation projects (Liker and Meier
22 2006). Co-operation is a necessity for flowing Lean work processes. Finally, the employees must
23 understand the concept of continuous improvement. It is not enough to just develop new processes;
24 they must also be continuously improved to maintain a steady incline in work efficiency.

25
26
27
28 Educating the staff on their future work processes and goals helps establish belief in the new facility
29 design and changed work processes. This relieves much of the resistance towards change. Instilling
30 values of togetherness and teamwork into the staff builds trust and mutual understanding between
31 the workers, which helps coordination of teamwork when the new facility is put into operation. The
32 goal of user-centric and participatory design is not just delivering facilities to the users. Rather, it
33 should also be to inform the staff how to work in the facility, how to take advantage of new
34 innovations, and most importantly, how to develop as a user of the space within time. Optimization
35 of work processes takes time, while requiring perseverance, longevity and ability to perform various
36 adjustments at a short notice. The quest for improvement is never over and a Lean thinker must be
37 ready to overcome new challenges each day.

41 ***Ergonomic healthcare design to promote well-being***

42
43
44 It is common that work environments are designed without specific user and task requirements in
45 mind, which leads to costly problems that need to be corrected afterwards (Bergman *et al.* 2013;
46 Bäckstrand *et al.* 2013). Lean strives in making work processes and environments productive, safe
47 and suitable for workers in order to avoid unnecessary rework and other forms of waste. The Toyota
48 Production System even has a principle, "Right first time" (Liker 2003). Much alike, ergonomic design
49 aims at doing things effectively and right the first time and sparing the extra effort, time and cost of
50 fixing mistakes that were made in the design phase. Proactive ergonomic considerations in
51 healthcare design can also help reduce physical demands of the staff (Mehta *et al.* 2011).
52 Ergonomics has great potential to contribute to the design of work systems with people. Ergonomics
53 takes a systems approach, is design driven and focuses on outcomes, i.e. performance and well-
54 being (Dul *et al.* 2012). As mentioned earlier in this paper, several health outcomes are indeed linked
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 with a hospital's physical environment. Therefore both Lean and ergonomics can be seen to
4 complement one another.
5

6 Information on ergonomics is already needed in the healthcare facility design phase. Seeking to
7 promote well-being in a hospital; what are the main ergonomic design factors to improve the
8 physical space? Some research results among this field have pointed out to the importance of
9 designing safe, comfortable, functional, error-free, easily controllable and private healthcare
10 environments (Huisman *et al.* 2012). Others emphasize good indoor environment qualities such as
11 acoustics, heating, ventilation and air-conditioning systems, the visual environment and furniture
12 (Fransson *et al.* 2007; Frontczak and Wargocki 2011; Salonen *et al.* 2013). In addition, several studies
13 concern user-centered design of workstations and work tools in healthcare (Nevala and Ketola 2012;
14 Nevala *et al.* 2013; Sormunen and Nevala 2013). According to Ulrich, the work environment should
15 be relaxing, rejuvenating, healing, and able to reduce stress, fatigue and enhance employees'
16 creativity (Ulrich 1991; Ulrich *et al.* 2004). Good hospital design can also enhance hospital
17 ergonomics by making the facility more affective and appealing to patients and other visitors (Ayas
18 *et al.* 2008). For instance, making sure hospital users' have enough privacy, colors, child play-areas
19 and green plants in hospital waiting areas has been shown to instill a feeling of calmness among
20 them (Ayas *et al.* 2008).
21
22
23
24

25 Hignett and Lu (2009) have identified a need for ergonomic designers to produce evidence to
26 support safer working practices relating to spatial requirements. It was suggested that by using a set
27 of generic room sizes for future guidance, desperately needed standardization in healthcare
28 ergonomic design might be achieved (Hignett and Lu 2009). This type of guidance has a good chance
29 of yielding design creativity. Bromley (2012) has researched patient-centered design solutions to
30 alter the image of a traditional hospital. Some interesting solutions include i.e. treating patient as
31 more of a customer than a patient – in short, meaning improved patient service – and ensuring that
32 patients and visitors rarely see technical devices and applications as well as excessive hospital
33 equipment (Bromley 2012). In fact, the hospitals may even be transformed to look like a luxury yacht
34 club, giving patients and visitors a “Disney”-like wow-feeling instead of the cold, sterile and
35 mechanized life-enhancing facility that most of us think a hospital looks like (Bromley 2012).
36
37
38
39

40 Poorly designed work environments lead to injuries and difficulties to perform tasks (Bäckstrand *et al.*
41 2013). For instance, numerous manual patient handling tasks lead to high physical demands and
42 have a statistically significant correlation with the development of low back disorders and pain
43 (Mehta *et al.* 2011). Bergman *et al.* (2013) have developed a design support tool named
44 “Workstation Design Navigator” to assist workstation designers in avoiding aforementioned
45 problems. The Workstation Design Navigator is supposed to help create more efficient and
46 ergonomic workstations and a more efficient design process. The Workstation Design Navigator
47 should help the designer ask right questions, gather useful information, define requirements, assist
48 in decision-making and support evaluation of goal fulfillment (Bergman *et al.* 2013). Thus Bäckstrand
49 *et al.* (2013) recommend taking a proactive, problem preventing approach rather than a reactive,
50 problem solving approach in ergonomic workstation design.
51
52
53
54

55 From an ergonomic perspective, work processes should always include a certain amount of
56 variation. If not, the work may become in repetitive. Automatized and mechanical work processes
57 may lead to repetitive work tasks, which may cause significant strains or injuries (Gilad 1995). This, in
58
59
60

1
2
3 turn, is costly for the hospital management as it amounts to sick-leave days. Doctors' and nurses'
4 daily routines include non-value-adding activities such as walking, changing equipment and
5 preparing a patient for surgery. These activities create variation for the physicians work routines. If
6 Lean is implemented, a significant portion of these non-value-adding activities are eliminated and as
7 a result the physicians may ultimately have less variation in their work routines (Reijula and
8 Tommelein 2012). If these new, Lean work processes are not designed with ergonomic
9 considerations in mind, a risk of strain or injury may occur. However, if healthcare facilities and
10 processes are designed ergonomically, implementation of Lean and one piece flow may in fact lead
11 to an increase in variation among the physicians' daily tasks.
12
13

14 ***Simulations as a tool for user-centric design***

15
16
17 Simulations are the most commonly used tools to introduce and teach basic concepts of Lean
18 (Mehta and Monroe 2006). Various applications and programs for virtual modeling of hospitals have
19 been developed (Märkle *et al.* 2005; Trebble *et al.* 2012). For instance, Peck and Kim (2010) have
20 successfully used hospital simulations to test and validate the use of an axiomatic design approach
21 to improve patient flow through emergency department fast tracks. In another example, Arnolds
22 and Nickel (2013) have developed mathematical models to generate ward layouts according to the
23 varying demand for different-sized bed rooms in multiple periods. Furthermore, Robinson *et al.*
24 (2012) have utilized discrete-event simulation (DES) as a complementary methodology in
25 implementation of Lean in healthcare. As a result, they have created an approach named "SimLean",
26 a combination of DES and Lean that aims to address a demanding healthcare issue; stakeholder
27 engagement with simulations.
28
29
30

31
32 The goal of these simulations is to create a three dimensional virtual environment that enables users
33 to virtually move within the space and inspect certain parameters of the building and the spaces (i.e.
34 functionality, feasibility, accessibility, ergonomics) before they are being constructed. The
35 applications usually feature a realistic 1:1 aspect ratio and allow the users to freely move inside the
36 building and present feedback and design solutions. Below, a picture of a lately developed, user-
37 centric and evidence-based hospital simulation method named VALO is presented.
38
39

40 *Figure 1*

41
42 Figure 1 - In the Finnish VALO method, a realistic 3D-simulation of a hospital is projected on the wall.
43 The user wears 3D-glasses and is able to explore the hospital environment by navigating inside the
44 hospital using i.e. a mouse controller.
45

46
47 Simulations offer several advantages compared to traditional user-centric and participatory design
48 methods. Simulations enable learning complex tasks and the study of phenomena that are not easily
49 observable in real space (Park *et al.* 2009). Simulations can be performed from virtually anywhere in
50 the world. They can be carried out quickly, anonymously, and users can work in either groups or
51 single-handedly. This would allow experts and specialists from all over the world to co-operatively
52 design user-centric healthcare facilities. For instance, a group of Lean, healthcare, accessibility and
53 ergonomics specialists along with architects and designers from all over the world could
54 simultaneously commence a virtual "Gemba walk": This means going to see the actual hospital
55 processes and learn the work being performed, ask questions, share ideas and figure out ways to
56 optimize the work environment and its processes before it the facility has been constructed. It
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 would also enable future users of the space to distribute significant input on the design of the facility
4 or even design their own work environments. Furthermore, simulations could provide a method to
5 convey the users' needs to the architects and engineers: The users could wander virtually inside the
6 hospital and make change suggestions by simply clicking a mouse button on a target they wish to
7 alter. This information could be immediately accessed by architects and designers, who could use
8 this information to improve the hospital design. The users would also get hands-on experience in the
9 hospital's work processes before the facility has even been constructed. By incorporating hospital
10 simulations into workshops (Kaizen Blitz), the users could be efficiently instructed on Lean work
11 processes and tools.
12
13

14
15 Another aspect for creating virtual environments is creating dynamic simulation settings (Gorini *et*
16 *al.* 2011; Villani *et al.* 2012). This means creating dynamic virtual models of hospital staff and
17 patients. These models would move in real-time, and realistically perform hospital processes. This
18 would enable calculation of the duration, speed and efficiency of hospital processes, as well as
19 realistic evaluation of the facility design. Hospital professionals could move inside the virtual
20 environment observing and evaluating these processes. This would hugely benefit both the hospital
21 management and designers in making initial decisions for the upcoming healthcare facility, but also
22 in finding and eliminating waste inside the work processes, when the facility is completed and
23 running. The Lean toolbox includes an effective but a rather unorthodox method named "Hula-
24 hoop" for eliminating waste and optimizing work processes. This means Lean employees have to
25 observe their work from a circle, a hula-hoop drawn near their work spot and think of ways to
26 improve this work process. Unfortunately, workers have experienced standing in a circle for a long
27 time interval (between 0,5 and 4 hours) frustrating and some have even found it demeaning. Thus
28 simulation of the workplace offers a very alluring alternative for easy and effortless observation of
29 work processes.
30
31
32
33

34 The simulations can also enhance accessibility design. Some researchers have developed and used
35 "age simulation" outfits to simulate movement as an elderly person in healthcare settings (Trust
36 2012). This means a heavy and usually uncomfortable outfit that makes movement slower, more
37 clumsy and difficult. By using these outfits – and possibly also a walker or a wheelchair alongside –
38 designers, accessibility and ergonomics specialists are able to simulate movement of a disabled
39 person in the virtual space and develop accessible and ergonomic solutions. This way both
40 accessibility and ergonomic factors could be taken into consideration early in the design phase.
41
42
43

44 ***Benefits and Challenges of Lean healthcare design***

45
46 The goal of today's designers and architects is to create a space that enhances employees' flow of
47 work as well as their perception of physical and psychological well-being (Reijula *et al.* 2011). User-
48 centric and participatory approaches have exhibited vast potential in creating these spaces, but they
49 are still lacking a **common framework** as well as tools and methods for their implementation. Lean
50 philosophy could offer the necessary context for these two approaches and can be seen suitable for
51 hospital design from several aspects.
52
53

54 Lean, user-centric and participatory design approaches are all **fundamentally very similar**. The
55 primary objective for a Lean, participatory and user-centric approach is improvement of
56 organizational effectiveness and employee well-being (Ruohomäki 2002). Lean, participatory and
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 user-centric healthcare projects have all demonstrated multi-professional collaboration,
4 participatory planning, learning, problem-solving, flexibility and teamwork (Ruohomäki 2002; Liker
5 and Meier 2006). A significant factor for these results has been utilization of project teams,
6 workshops (i.e. Kaizen Blitz) and conferences (Ruohomäki 2002). They have provided a great
7 platform for socialization, togetherness and creating improvement ideas. A major challenge for Lean
8 remains, whether it can fill the communication gaps and improve the issue of distrust between
9 different user groups in multi-professional design and co-operation.
10
11

12 A need for **standardization** has been identified in hospital design (Hignett and Lu 2009). Some basic
13 Lean, ergonomic, user-centric and participative principles may be used during the design process,
14 but not in a structured way (Bäckstrand *et al.* 2013). This may lead to designers using their own
15 processes parallel to the design process the company uses (Bäckstrand *et al.* 2013). Also, when Lean
16 is discussed and/or implemented, “what” needs to be done may be discussed but “when” and “how”
17 are often omitted (Bäckstrand *et al.* 2013). A major, well-acknowledged challenge for hospitals is to
18 respond to the vastly varying demand of hospital capacity (Carey 1998). This creates costs due to
19 hospitals having to maintain costly but rarely used standby capacity in order to be prepared to meet
20 peak demand at all times (Gaynor and Anderson 1995; Lynk 1995). By standardizing work processes
21 Lean enables a steady and predictable work process delivery flow, which leads to more efficient
22 hospital space usage. Decreased hospital demand variability, in turn, decreases hospital capacity
23 requirements, operating expenditures, and therefore also hospital costs, making operation of the
24 hospital more cost-efficient (Baker 2004). Although there are some who are skeptical about Lean
25 healthcare (Waring and Bishop 2010), it does offer an efficient and easily comprehensible
26 methodology and tools for any institution willing to thoroughly invest in it.
27
28
29
30
31

32 A growing concern among healthcare is a need for elimination of medical errors and rapid
33 improvement of patient safety in hospitals (Grout 2007). Misdiagnoses and treatment errors
34 performed by hospital physicians are alarmingly common (Aronson 2008; Font Noguera *et al.* 2008).
35 Making matters even worse, some of them are fatal (Dettmeyer *et al.* 2001; Tournel *et al.* 2006). In
36 order to improve patient safety in hospitals, a new design approach is needed (Grout 2007; Grout
37 and Toussaint 2010). Lean offers pre-emptive tools (e.g. “Jidoka” and “poka-yoke” (Liker and Meier
38 2006)) that are designed to **mistake-proof hospital processes** and enhance patient safety. By
39 utilizing these tools already in the design phase, the hospital processes, facilities, furniture and space
40 solutions can be effectively “mistake-proofed” from the get-go. This will likely be more efficient than
41 applying them afterwards. By decreasing the number of medical errors, significant cost reductions
42 can be achieved alongside improved patient safety (Grout and Toussaint 2010).
43
44
45

46 Hospitals are often complicated places, in which **navigation** is a frequent problem for patients,
47 visitors, suppliers and the hospital staff (Huelat 2007; Mollerup 2009). In fact, healthcare design
48 presents a complex challenge due to several factors, including the large amount of uncoordinated
49 regulation and guidance (Hignett and Lu 2009). Due to poor architecture and hospital design
50 patients and physicians have gotten lost in the complex hospital facilities or otherwise been
51 confused with whom the next appointment will be with and where to proceed within the hospital
52 (Mollerup 2009). Frankly, today’s hospitals often provide either too much information at
53 inappropriate places, confusing information, or insufficient amount of information for the user
54 (Huelat 2007).
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 The problem is further emphasized on patients with sensory deficits such as impaired sight, hearing,
4 mobility, increased anxiety and reduced mental capacities. Thus making a hospital accessible for
5 everyone is a major aim (Lid 2013). Hospitals also have a need for increased **accessibility** since the
6 amount of appliances and insufficient space too often results in an unnerving mess of appliances,
7 cables and tubes (Garde and Van Der Voort 2008). The resulting blinking lights and alarm beeps only
8 make the situation worse (Garde and Van Der Voort 2008). The technical and confusing appearance
9 of this jumble complicates the work of nurses and doctors and may even strike fear into patients and
10 visitors (Garde and Van Der Voort 2008).
11
12

13
14 A cornerstone for Lean is making the workplace as **visual** as possible. This does not only mean
15 simple, clear, visible and audible navigation paths but also work processes that are clearly and visibly
16 illustrated. Lean tools such as the 5S (standardizing and organizing the workplace) may help alleviate
17 this problem. In addition, innovative, wireless solutions – which can be seen more and more in
18 among today's hospital design – have become invaluable.
19

20
21 In order to accomplish a Lean hospital design, requirements of the work processes must be charted
22 by using experts such as consultants, who play a key role. In Lean they are called "**Lean Champions**"
23 and their goal is to create an understanding of what the goals of the organization will be and how
24 these can be accomplished by using Lean methods. In Lean, but also in user-centric and participatory
25 design approach, the role of these Champions or consultants is to function as an expert and/or a
26 facilitator (Ruohomäki 2002).
27
28

29
30 Lean is beneficial when focusing on **long term change philosophy** for organizational development.
31 The focus is not on the low-hanging fruit but on the continuous improvement ideal (Ruohomäki
32 2002). The hospital managers must thus be prepared to invest enough money and be prepared for
33 negative budget balances for the first few years, until investment in Lean begins to pay dividends.
34 Even though Lean requires patience and commitment to the Lean methodology, it has no "magic
35 tricks" or instant "fix-it-all" solutions. The methods use can be comprehended using common sense
36 and the main idea is to crop out everything that does not add value to the customer. Thus for
37 designers, the design process becomes increasingly linear and goal-oriented.
38
39

40 **Conclusions**

41
42 In order to improve crucial factors such as efficiency, safety and well-being in modern healthcare
43 buildings, new innovations are desperately sought after from healthcare designers. Lean has shown
44 great promise in enhancing work process efficiency in healthcare implementation projects but has
45 not yet been validated as a complementary healthcare facility design tool. Although Lean does not
46 offer instant solutions, it may offer significant advantages and benefits in work facility, process and
47 environment optimization compared to most traditional methods of healthcare facility design.
48
49

50
51 User-centric and participatory methods have shown to be promising amongst healthcare design.
52 Lean has very similar principles than the two aforementioned ones. This significantly eases the work
53 of user-centric and participatory designers as they attempt to design a Lean healthcare facility. Lean
54 fundamentals can be easily comprehended and they do not exhibit radically differing methods
55 compared to ones used before. User-centric healthcare design will benefit from Lean-ideology and it
56 should thus be implemented. However, also Lean may benefit from the soft and "humane"
57 participatory and user-centric design methods for work processes.
58
59
60

1
2
3 Lean provides a fundamentally solid ideology that may prove to be handy in helping leaders of the
4 healthcare facility cope with change management: Directness, openness, honesty, commitment to
5 the success of others and willingness to acknowledge problems and errors are key features of Lean
6 that most likely will appeal to the staff in adopting new facilities and work processes. Lean does not
7 seek instant results; the results of Lean implementation projects can usually be seen within a few
8 years. Thus perseverance is required from those trying to establish a Lean hospital. A semi-
9 committed Lean implementation project is almost always doomed to fail. However, with adequate
10 effort and sustainability, Lean has shown to deliver outstanding results.
11
12

13
14 Simulations offer a fascinating tool for modern hospital design. They can be quickly and efficiently
15 used to create and simulate a dynamic hospital environment and processes in order to implement
16 Lean methods and tools beforehand into the upcoming hospital. This way costly design mistakes can
17 be avoided. With modern technologies and high-bandwidth wireless data transfer rates, simulations
18 can be effortlessly accessed from practically anywhere around the world in real-time.
19

20
21 Ergonomic and accessibility factors must be taken into consideration when designing new healthcare
22 facilities. With relatively cheap, minor ergonomic and accessibility investments in the design phase,
23 major results in user well-being and also work efficiency can be achieved. This issue is further
24 emphasized with the aging population structure, especially in the developed countries. Reactive
25 approach should thus be replaced with a proactive one; preventing problems as early as possible.
26 Hence, when looking at the optimal place to start a Lean transformation, why not focus on the work
27 environment design phase?
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

References

- Adler, N., J. Å. Granath and G. A. Lindahl. 1995. *Organizational learning supported by collective design of production systems and products*. Univ. Twente, Netherlands, School of Management Studies.
- Aiken, L. H., D. M. Sloane, S. Clarke, L. Poghosyan, E. Cho, L. You, et al. 2011. "Importance of work environments on hospital outcomes in nine countries." *International Journal for Quality in Health Care* **23**: 357-364.
- Arnolds, I. V. and S. Nickel. 2013. "Multi-period layout planning for hospital wards." *Socio-Economic Planning Services*: 1-18.
- Aronson, J. K. 2008. "50 Medication errors." *Side Effects of Drugs Annual* **30**: 576-581.
- Ascione, F., N. Bianco, R. F. De Masi and G. P. Vanoli. 2013. "Rehabilitation of the building envelope of hospitals: Achievable energy savings and microclimatic control on varying the HVAC systems in Mediterranean climates." *Energy and Buildings* **60**: 125-138.
- Ayas, E., J. Eklund and S. Ishihara. 2008. "Affective design of waiting areas in primary healthcare." *The TQM Journal* **20**(4): 389-408.
- Azedegan, A., P. C. Patel, A. Zangouinezhad and K. Linderman. 2013. "The effect of environmental complexity and environmental dynamism on lean practices." *Journal of Operations Management* **31**(4): 193-212.
- Baker, L. C. 2004. "Within-year variation in hospital utilization and its implications for hospital costs." *Journal of Health Economics* **23**: 191-211.
- Becker, F. and K. S. Parsons. 2007. "Hospital facilities and the role of evidence-based design." *Journal of Facilities Management* **5**(4): 263-274.
- Ben-Tovim, D. I., J. E. Bassham, D. Bolch, M. A. Martin, M. Dougherty and M. Szwarcbord. 2007. "Lean thinking across a hospital: redesigning care at the: Flinders Medical Centre." *Australian Health Review* **31**(1): 10-15.
- Bensing, J. M., P. F. Verhaak, A. M. van Dulmen and A. P. Visser. 2000. "Communication: the royal pathway to patient-centered medicine." *Patient Education and Counseling* **39**: 1-3.
- Bergenwall, A. L., C. Chen and R. E. White. 2012. "TPS's process design in American automotive plants and its effects on the triple bottom line and sustainability." *International Journal of Production Economics* **140**(1): 374-384.

- 1
2
3
4 Bergman, C., G. Bäckstrand, D. Högberg and L. Moestam. 2013. "A tool to assist and evaluate
5 workstation design". NES 2013 - Ergonomics for Equality, Reykjavik, Iceland.
6
7
- 8 Berwick, D. M. 2009. "What 'patient-centered' should mean: confessions of an extremist." *Health*
9 *Affairs* **28**: w555-w565.
10
11
- 12 Bizzarri, G. and G. L. Morini. 2006. "New Technologies for an effective energy retrofit of hospitals."
13 *Applied Thermal Engineering* **26**(2-3): 161-169.
14
15
- 16 Bromley, E. 2012. "Building patient-centeredness: Hospital design as an interpretive act." *Social*
17 *Science & Medicine* **75**: 1057-1066.
18
19
- 20 Buesa, R. J. 2009. "Adapting lean to histology laboratories." *Annals of Diagnostic Pathology* **13**: 322-
21 333.
22
23
- 24 Bäckstrand, G., C. Bergman, D. Högberg and L. Moestam. 2013. "Lean and its impact on workplace
25 design". NES 2013 - Ergonomics for Equality, Reykjavik, Iceland.
26
27
- 28 Carey, K. 1998. "Stochastic demand for hospitals and optimizing 'excess' bed capacity." *Journal of*
29 *Regulatory Economics* **14**(2): 165-187.
30
31
- 32 Carignani, V. 2000. "Management of change in health care organisations and human resource role."
33 *European Journal of Radiology* **33**(1): 8-13.
34
35
- 36 Chalice, R. W. 2005. *Stop rising healthcare costs using Toyota Lean production methods – 38 steps*
37 *for improvement*. Milwaukee, WI, Quality Press.
38
39
- 40 Chaudhury, H., A. Mahmood and M. Valente. 2009. "The effect of environmental design on reducing
41 nursing errors and increasing efficiency in acute care settings: A Review and Analysis of the
42 Literature." *Environment and Behavior* **41**: 755-786.
43
44
- 45 Clements-Croome, D. 2004. *Intelligent buildings: design, management and operation*. London,
46 Thomas Telford Publishing.
47
48
- 49 Crow, R., H. Gage, S. Hampson, J. Hart, A. Kimber, L. Storey, et al. 2002. "The measurement of
50 satisfaction with healthcare: Implications for practise from a systematic review of the literature."
51 *Health Technology Assessment* **6**: 1-244.
52
53
- 54 de Oliveira, O. J. and C. R. M. Serra Pinheiro. 2009. "Best practices for the implantation of ISO 14001
55 norms: a study of change management in two industrial companies in the Midwest region of the
56 state of São Paulo – Brazil." *Journal of Cleaner Production* **17**(9): 883-885.
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 Dekker, S. 2007. *Just culture: balancing safety and accountability*. Abingdon, Oxon, Ashgate Publishing
5 Group.
6

7
8 Dettmeyer, R., F. Driever, A. Becker, O. D. Wiestler and B. Madea. 2001. "Fatal myeloencephalopathy
9 due to accidental intrathecal vincristin administration: a report of two cases." *Forensic Sciences*
10 *International* **122**(1): 60-64.
11

12
13 Dinç, P. 2009. "Gender (in)difference in private offices: A holistic approach for assessing satisfaction
14 and personalization." *Journal of Environmental Psychology* **29**: 53-62.
15

16
17 Donchin, Y. 1995. "A look into the nature and causes of human errors in the intensive care unit."
18 *Critical Care Medicine* **23**(2): 294-300.
19

20
21 Duggan, P. S., G. Geller, L. A. Cooper and M. C. Beach. 2009. "Reconsidering the team concept:
22 educational implications for patient-centered cancer care. Patient Education and Counseling."
23 *Patient Education and Counseling* **62**: 271-276.
24

25
26 Dul, J., R. Bruder, P. Buckle, P. Carayon, P. Falzon, W. S. Marras, et al. 2012. "A strategy for human
27 factors/ergonomics: developing the discipline and profession." *Ergonomics* **55**(4): 377-395.
28

29
30 Font Noguera, I., C. Climent and J. L. Poveda Andrés. 2008. "Quality of Drug Treatment Process
31 Through Medication Errors in a Tertiary Hospital." *Farmacia Hospitalaria (English Edition)* **32**(5): 274-
32 279.
33

34
35 Fransson, N., D. Västfjäll and J. Skoog. 2007. "In search of the comfortable indoor environment: A
36 comparison of the utility of objective and subjective indicators of indoor comfort." *Building and*
37 *Environment* **42**: 1886-1890.
38

39
40 Frontczak, M. and P. Wargocki. 2011. "Literature survey on how different factors influence human
41 comfort in indoor environments." *Building and Environment* **46**(4): 922-937.
42

43
44 Garde, J. and M. Van Der Voort. 2008. "The Design of a new NICU Patient Area: Combining Design for
45 Usability and Design for Emotion". Design Research Society Conference 2008, Sheffield, UK.
46

47
48 Gaynor, M. and G. F. Anderson. 1995. "Uncertain demand, the structure of hospital costs, and the
49 cost of empty hospital beds." *Journal of Health Economics* **14**(3): 291-317.
50

51
52 Gesler, W., M. Bell, S. Curtis, P. Hubbard and S. Francis. 2004. "Therapy by design: Evaluating the UK
53 hospital building program." *Health & Place* **10**: 117-128.
54

55
56 Gilad, I. 1995. "A methodology for functional ergonomics in repetitive work." *International Journal of*
57 *Industrial Ergonomics* **15**: 91-101.
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 Gluck, P. A. 2007. "Patient safety in women's health care: a framework for progress." *Best Practise &*
5 *Research Clinical Obstetrics & Gynaecology* **21**(4): 525-536.

6
7
8 Gorini, A., C. S. Capideville, G. De Leo, F. Mantovani and G. Riva. 2011. "The role of immersion and
9 narrative in mediated presence. the virtual hospital experience." *Cyberpsychology* **14**: 99-105.

10
11
12 Granath, J., G. Lindahl and S. Rehal. 1996. "From empowerment to enablement. An evolution of new
13 dimensions in participatory design." *Logistik und Arbeit*. Retrieved 6.9.2013, 2013, from
14 [http://www.design4change.com/LinkedDocuments/From%20Empowerment%20to%20Enablement.](http://www.design4change.com/LinkedDocuments/From%20Empowerment%20to%20Enablement.pdf)
15 [pdf](http://www.design4change.com/LinkedDocuments/From%20Empowerment%20to%20Enablement.pdf).

16
17
18 Greenglass, E. R. and R. J. Burke. 2001. "Application of an Impact of Restructuring Scale to the
19 Healthcare." *Healthcare Management Forum* **14**(4): 1-9.

20
21
22 Grout, J. R. 2007. "Mistake-proofing the design of healthcare processes". AHRQ Publication No. 07-
23 0020., Rockville, MD, Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality.

24
25
26 Grout, J. R. and J. S. Toussaint. 2010. "Mistake-proofing healthcare: Why stopping processes may be
27 a good start." *Business Horizons* **53**: 149-156.

28
29
30 Gustavsen, B. 1992. *Dialogue and Development: Theory of communication, action research and*
31 *restructuring of working life*. Maastrich, Van Gorcum B.V.

32
33
34 Haron, S. N., M. Y. Hamid and A. Talib. 2012. "Towards Healthcare Service Quality: An Understanding
35 of the Usability Concept in Healthcare Design." *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences* **42**: 63-73.

36
37
38 Harun, W. M. W. and F. Ibrahim. 2008. "Human-Environment Relationship Study Of Waiting Areas in
39 Hospitals.". 1st. International Conference On Built Environment In Developing Countries (ICBED
40 2008), Pulau Pinang.

41
42
43 Hignett, S. and J. Lu. 2009. "An investigation of the use of health building notes by UK healthcare
44 building designers." *Applied Ergonomics* **40**: 608-616.

45
46
47 Howard, R. 1990. "Values Make the Company: An Interview with Rober Haas." *Harvard Business*
48 *Review* **September-October**: 133-144.

49
50
51 Huelat, B. J. 2007. "Wayfinding: Design For Understanding." *A Position Paper for the Environmental*
52 *Standards Council of The Center for Health Design*. Retrieved 6.9.2013, 2013, from
53 <http://www.healthdesign.org/chd/research/wayfinding-design-understanding>.

54
55
56 Hughes, R. G. and E. Ortiz. 2005. "Medication errors: Why they happen and how they can be
57 prevented." *American Journal of Nursing* **105**: 14-24.

1
2
3
4 Huisman, E. R. C. M., E. Morales, J. van Hoof and H. S. M. Kort. 2012. "Healing environment: A review
5 of the impact of physical environmental factors on users." *Building and Environment* **58**: 70-80.
6
7

8 Jensø, M. and T. Haugen. 2005. "Usability of hospital buildings - Is patient focus leading to usability
9 in hospital buildings? ". 11th Joint CIB International Symposium, Usability Of Workplaces: Case
10 Study. Task Group 51., Nord-Trøndelag University College Nylåna, Røstad.
11
12

13 Jones, D. and A. Mitchell. 2006. "Lean thinking for the NHS", London, UK, NHS Confederation.
14
15

16 Laine, C. and F. Davidoff. 1996. "Patient-centered medicine: a professional evolution." *Journal of the*
17 *Americal Medical Association* **275**: 152-156.
18
19

20 Lid, I. M. 2013. "Developing the theoretical content in Universal Design." *Scandinavian Journal of*
21 *Disability Research* **15**(3): 203-215.
22
23

24 Liker, J. K. 2003. *The Toyota Way: 14 Management Principles from the World's Greatest*
25 *Manufacturer*. New York, NY, McGraw-Hill Press.
26
27

28 Liker, J. K. and D. Meier. 2006. *The Toyota way fieldbook: a practical guide for implementing Toyota's*
29 *4Ps*. New York, NY, McGraw-Hill Press.
30
31

32 Lynk, W. J. 1995. "The creation of economic efficiencies in hospital mergers." *Journal of Health*
33 *Economics* **14**(5): 507-530.
34
35

36 Mahmood, A., H. Chaudhury and M. Valente. 2011. "Nurses' perceptions on how physical
37 environment affects medication errors in acute care settings." *Applied Nursing Research* **24**(4): 229-
38 237.
39
40

41 Mana Gonçalves, J. and R. Pereira da Silva Gonçalves. 2012. "Overcoming resistance to changes in
42 information technology organizations " *Procedia Technology* **5**: 293-201.
43
44

45 Mayes, C. 2009. "Pastoral power and the confessing subject in patient-centered communication."
46 *Bioethical Inquiry* **6**: 483-493.
47
48

49 McDeavitt, J., K. E. Wade, R. E. Smith and G. Worsowicz. 2012. "Understanding Change
50 Management." *PM&R* **4**(2): 141-143.
51
52

53 Mehta, M. and R. Monroe. 2006. "Teaching lean manufacturing on a distance learning platform using
54 virtual simulation". 113th Annual ASEE Conference and Exposition, Chicago, IL; United States, ASEE
55 Annual Conference and Exposition, Conference Proceedings.
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Mehta, R. K., L. M. Horton, M. J. Agnew and M. A. Nussbaum. 2011. "Ergonomic evaluation of
4 hospital bed design features during patient handling tasks." *International Journal of Industrial*
5 *Ergonomics* **41**: 647-652.
6
7
8 Mollerup, P. 2009. "Wayshowing in Hospital." *Australasian Medical Journal* **1**(10): 112-114.
9
10
11 Mourshed, M. and Y. Zhao. 2012. "Healthcare providers' perception of design factors related to
12 physical environments in hospitals." *Journal of Environmental Psychology* **32**: 362-370.
13
14
15 Mullaney, K. 2010. "Improving the Process of Supplying Instruments to the Operating Room Using
16 the Lean Rapid Cycle Improvement Process." *Perioperative Nursing Clinics* **5**(4): 479-487.
17
18
19 Märkle, S., S. Hasait, R. Tschirley and K. Köchy. 2005. "A distributed visualization environment as GUI
20 for a virtual hospital". CARS 2005: Computer Assisted Radiology and Surgery. Proceedings of the
21 19th International Congress and Exhibition, International Congress Series.
22
23
24 Nelson-Peterson, D. I. and C. J. Leppa. 2007. "Creating an environment for caring using Lean
25 principles of the Virginia mason production system." *The Journal of Nursing Administration* **37**(6):
26 287-294.
27
28
29 Nevala, N. and R. Ketola. 2012. "Birthing Support for Midwives and Mothers - Ergonomic Testing
30 and Product Development " *The Ergonomics Open Journal* **5**: 28-34.
31
32
33 Nevala, N., E. Sormunen, J. Remes and K. Suomalainen. 2013. "Evaluation of Ergonomics and Efficacy
34 of Instruments in Dentistry " *The Ergonomics Open Journal* **6**: 6-12.
35
36
37 Ohno, T. 1988. *Toyota production system: beyond large-scale production*. Portland, Oregon,
38 Productivity Press.
39
40
41 Park, S. I., G. Lee and M. Kim. 2009. "Do students benefit equally from interactive computer
42 simulations regardless of prior knowledge levels?" *Computers & Education* **52**(3): 649-655.
43
44
45 Peck, J. S. and S.-G. Kim. 2010. "Improving patient flow through axiomatic design of hospital
46 emergency departments." *CIRP Journal of Manufacturing Science and Technology* **2**: 255-260.
47
48
49 Plenert, G. 2007. *Reinventing Lean: Introducing Lean Management into the Supply Chain*. Burlington,
50 MA, USA, Butterworth-Heinemann Press.
51
52
53 Poldma, T. 2009. "Experiential Knowledge And Rigour In Research.". International Conference 2009
54 Of The DRS Special Interest Group On Experiential Knowledge., London Metropolitan University.
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Radnor, Z. J., M. Holweg and J. Waring. 2012. "Lean in healthcare: The unfilled promise?" *Social*
4 *Science & Medicine* **74**: 364-371.
5
6
7 Rechel, B., J. Buchan and M. McKee. 2009. "The impact of health facilities on healthcare workers'
8 well-being and performance." *International Journal of Nursing Studies* **46**: 1025-1034.
9
10
11 Reijula, J., M. Gröhn, K. Müller and K. Reijula. 2011. "Human well-being and flowing work in an
12 intelligent work environment." *Intelligent Buildings International* **3**(4): 223-237.
13
14
15 Reijula, J., R. Holopainen, E. Kähkönen, K. Reijula and I. D. Tommelein. 2013. "Intelligent HVAC
16 systems in hospitals." *Intelligent Buildings International* **5**(2): 101-119.
17
18
19 Reijula, J. and I. Tommelein. 2012. "Lean hospitals: a new challenge for facility designers." *Intelligent*
20 *Buildings International* **4**(2): 126-143.
21
22
23 Reiling, J. 2007. *Safe By Design: Designing Safety in Health Care Facilities, Processes, and Culture*.
24 Oakbrook Terrace, Illinois, U.S.A., Joint Commission Resources.
25
26
27 Robinson, S., Z. J. Radnor, N. Burgess and C. Worthington. 2012. "SimLean: Utilising simulation in the
28 implementation of lean in healthcare." *European Journal of Operational Research* **219**: 188-197.
29
30
31 Ruohomäki, V. 2002. "Simulation game for organization development. Development, use and
32 evaluation of the Work Flow Game. ." *Industrial Management and Work and Organizational*
33 *Psychology Report. Helsinki University of Technology. Doctoral Dissertation*.
34
35
36 Salonen, H., M. Lahtinen, S. Lappalainen, N. Nevala, L. Knibbs, L. Morawska, et al. 2013. "Physical
37 characteristics of the indoor environment that affect health and wellbeing in healthcare facilities: a
38 review." *Intelligent Buildings International* **5**(1): 3-25.
39
40
41 Samah, Z. A., N. Ibrahim, S. Othman and M. H. A. Wahab. 2012. "Assessing Quality Design of
42 Interiors: A case study of a Hospital Outpatient Unit in Malaysia." *Procedia – Social and Behavioral*
43 *Sciences* **35**: 245-252.
44
45
46 Sanders, E. B.-N. and J. P. Stappers. 2008. "Co-creation and the new landscapes of design. ." *CoDesign: International Journal of CoCreation in Design and the Arts* **4**(1): 5-18.
47
48
49 Sanoff, H. 2008. "Multiple views of participatory design." *International journal of architectural*
50 *research* **2**(1): 57-69.
51
52
53
54 Seim, R. and O. Broberg. 2010. "Participatory workspace design: A new approach for ergonomists?"
55 *International Journal of Industrial Ergonomics* **40**: 25-33.
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Smith, M. J. and P. C. Sainfort. 1989. "A balance theory of job design for stress reduction."
4 *International Journal of Industrial Ergonomics* 4(1): 67-69.

5
6
7 Sormunen, E. and N. Nevala. 2013. "User-oriented evaluation of mechanical single-channel axial
8 pipettes." *Applied Ergonomics* 44: 785-791.

9
10
11 Tournel, G., A. Becart-Robert, P. Courtin, V. Hedouin and D. Gosset. 2006. "Fatal accidental
12 intrathecal injection of vindesine." *Journal of Forensic Sciences* 51(5): 1166-1168.

13
14
15 Trebble, T. M., L. Vokes, C. Stapely, J. Pratt, D. S. Pearl and D. O. O'Leary. 2012. "Managing post-
16 operative intestinal failure through the virtual ward: An assessment of effectiveness and patient
17 attitudes to a new model of care." *e-SPEN Journal* 7(4): e149-e153.

18
19
20 Trust, N. F. 2012. "Age simulation & empathy suit helps nurses walk in the shoes of the elderly."
21 Retrieved 15.8.2013, 2013, from [http://www.heatherwoodandwexham.nhs.uk/news/age-
22 simulation-empathy-suit-helps-nurses-walk-in-the-shoes-of-the-elderly.](http://www.heatherwoodandwexham.nhs.uk/news/age-simulation-empathy-suit-helps-nurses-walk-in-the-shoes-of-the-elderly)

23
24
25 Ulrich, R., C. Zimring, X. Quan, A. Joseph and C. R. 2004. "The role of the physical environment in the
26 hospital of the 21st century: A once-in-a-lifetime opportunity". Report to the Center for Health
27 Design for the Designing the 21st Century Hospital Project.

28
29
30 Ulrich, R. S. 1991. "Effects of interior design on wellness: Theory and recent scientific research."
31 *Journal of Health Care Interior Design* 3(1): 97-109.

32
33
34 Ulrich, R. S. 1991. "Effects of interior design on wellness: theory and recent scientific research."
35 *Journal of Health Care Interior Design* 3: 97-109.

36
37
38 Ulrich, R. S. 1999. *Effects of gardens on health outcomes: Theory and research*. New York, Wiley.

39
40
41 Ulrich, R. S., C. Zimring, X. Zhu, J. DuBose, H. Seo, Y. Coi, et al. 2008. "A review of the research
42 literature on evidence-based healthcare design (part I)." *Health Environments Research and Design*
43 1: 61-125.

44
45
46 Waddell, D. and A. S. Sohal. 1998. "Resistance: a constructive tool for change management."
47 *Management Decision* 36(8): 543-548.

48
49
50 Vanhoudt, D., J. Desmedt, G. Van Bael, N. Robeyn and H. Hoes. 2011. "An aquifer thermal storage
51 system in a Belgian hospital: Long-term experimental evaluation of energy and cost savings." *Energy
52 and Buildings* 43(12): 3657-3665.

53
54
55 Waring, J. T. and S. Bishop. 2010. "Lean healthcare: Rhetoric, ritual and resistance." *Social Science &
56 Medicine* 71: 1332-1340.

1
2
3
4 Villani, D., C. Repetto, P. Cipresso and G. Riva. 2012. "May I experience more presence in doing the
5 same thing in virtual reality than in reality? An answer from a simulated job interview." *Interacting*
6 *with Computers* **24**(4): 265-272.
7

8
9 Wilson, J. R. and H. M. Haines. 1997. *Participatory ergonomics*. New York, NY, Wiley.
10

11
12 Womack, J. P. and D. T. Jones. 2003. *Lean thinking*. New York, NY, Free Press.
13

14
15 Womack, J. P. and D. Miller. 2005. *Going Lean in health care*. Cambridge, MA, Institute for
16 Healthcare Improvement.
17

18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For Review Only

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



148x212mm (72 x 72 DPI)