
Journal of Participatory Medicine

Advancing the understanding and practice of participatory medicine among health care professionals and patients

Volume 16 (2024) ISSN 2152-7202 Editor-in-Chief: Danny Z. Sands, MD, MPH, FACP, FACMI

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Review

Public Involvement and Engagement in Big Data Research: Scoping Review

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Abstract

Background: The success of big data initiatives depends on public support. Public involvement and engagement could be a way of establishing public support for big data research.

Objective: This review aims to synthesize the evidence on public involvement and engagement in big data research.

Methods: This scoping review mapped the current evidence on public involvement and engagement activities in big data research. We searched 5 electronic databases, followed by additional manual searches of Google Scholar and gray literature. In total, 2 public contributors were involved at all stages of the review.

Results: A total of 53 papers were included in the scoping review. The review showed the ways in which the public could be involved and engaged in big data research. The papers discussed a broad range of involvement activities, who could be involved or engaged, and the importance of the context in which public involvement and engagement occur. The findings show how public involvement, engagement, and consultation could be delivered in big data research. Furthermore, the review provides examples of potential outcomes that were produced by involving and engaging the public in big data research.

Conclusions: This review provides an overview of the current evidence on public involvement and engagement in big data research. While the evidence is mostly derived from discussion papers, it is still valuable in illustrating how public involvement and engagement in big data research can be implemented and what outcomes they may yield. Further research and evaluation of public involvement and engagement in big data research are needed to better understand how to effectively involve and engage the public in big data research.

International Registered Report Identifier (IRRID): RR2-<https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2021-050167>

(*J Particip Med* 2024;16:e56673) doi:[10.2196/56673](https://doi.org/10.2196/56673)

KEYWORDS

patient and public involvement; PPI; involvement; engagement; big data; data science; patient engagement; co-design; coproduction

Introduction

Background

The growth of big data allows researchers to use and link large, multisource health data sets for research. Big data is still an

evolving field [1], and disagreements remain on precisely what the term stands for in health research [2]. Other terms used include routinely collected data [3] and data-intensive research [1,4]. For clarity, throughout this paper, we will refer broadly to the term big data as it is used in the literature and easily understood by the public. We follow the definition by Aitken

et al [1], recognizing that the main feature of big data is the ability to link large data sets for analysis. They name sources for such data as patient records, administrative, registry biobanking, social media, and digital application data. Big data research in health can be used for multiple purposes with the aim of improving health care services and reducing health inequalities [5,6]. These include service management, evaluation or audit of services, statistics, and exploring connections between health and non-health-related outcomes [1]. Often, these purposes differ from the original intent of data collection (eg, health care or statistical purposes). In other words, big data is often used for secondary research purposes.

Big data research offers new opportunities for academics. However, reusing big data for research faces ethical challenges [7]. Previous big data initiatives suggest that the public must have confidence that their data will be used in an acceptable way if they are going to be supportive of big data research [8]. This means moving outside what is legally required and establishing a social license for research [9]. Carter et al [9] proposed 3 conditions for establishing a social license for big data research. First, reciprocity is essential, as there is a need for 2-way communication and improving public awareness of big data research as well as improving researchers' understanding of the public's concerns and expectations. A lack of transparency could make it challenging to secure public trust [10], and the public has a right to be informed about the progress of the research [11]. Second, the process should empower, not disempower, the public; in big data research, this could include members of the public involved in the governance of data linkage and the design of big data projects. Third, big data research should benefit the public; thus, researchers need to understand what the public might perceive as public benefit.

Public involvement and engagement could be used to bridge the gap between researchers and the public's understandings of the benefits of big data research [12]. There is evidence in the literature (outside big data) that public involvement can provide legitimacy for research [13]. Public contributors could be a part of the process of creating research norms for big data research [14]. Research norms consist of governance and regulation that could guide research. These might not be popular among some academics, but they could help secure a social license for research [15]. Aitken et al [1], in their consensus statement on public involvement with big data research, go a step further and argue that "the public should not be characterised as a problem to be overcome but a key part of the solution to establish beneficial data-intensive health research for all." There is emerging evidence that public contributors can be meaningfully involved in big data research projects [16-18]. However, there is a need to understand how public involvement and engagement takes place in big data research comprehensively.

Objectives

Previous reviews have examined literature around public trust and attitudes toward big data research [19-22]. Despite public involvement and engagement being seen as one of the ways to improve public trust, as far as we are aware, there have not been any previous reviews exploring public involvement and engagement in big data research and there have not been any

reviews registered on the PROSPERO and Cochrane databases. Therefore, this review aimed to synthesize what is known about public involvement and engagement in big data research. Using scoping review methodology [23-25], we mapped key issues in the research to find evidence of how public involvement and engagement were carried out in big data research. Understanding how to involve and engage the public in big data research could be used to formulate guidance for researchers and policy makers on how to do this effectively, as there are field-related challenges, especially regarding the abstraction and complexity of big data [26].

Methods

Overview

The protocol for this scoping stage review was published previously [27]. The protocol outlines the parameters of the review and provides a justification and explanation of all the methodological steps and decisions taken. To ensure rigor further, we used the PRISMA-ScR (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Reviews) checklist [28] and reported it as [Multimedia Appendix 1](#).

Defining Public Involvement

In the literature, the terms involvement, engagement, and participation are used interchangeably, but these do not always have the same meaning [29,30]. This makes research and discussion about public involvement challenging, as it can be difficult to identify papers for review [31-33]. Hence, there is growing recognition that more consistent terminology is needed [13]. The diversity of types of involvement can be seen in the ladder by Arnstein [34] that determines types of involvement by constructing a typology based on the amount of power given to the public. It identifies from the bottom (lowest extent of people's influence) to the top (highest extent of people's influence) the following steps: therapy manipulation, nonparticipation, informing, consultation, placation, partnership, delegation, and full citizen control. The author herself called the ladder "provocative." One of the health-specific definitions of public involvement has been developed by INVOLVE [35]. It has been used broadly by funders and researchers and embedded in the public involvement reporting checklist [33]. It offers a nuanced perspective on 3 types of activities: involvement, engagement, and consultation, which researchers can use when working with members of the public. One is not better than the other, but rather, each offers a different approach. INVOLVE defines involvement as research carried out with or by members of the public rather than to, about, or for them. This recognizes shared ownership of research with members of the public. Engagement is providing information about big data research and disseminating it to the public. Consultation happens when the research is discussed with the public, but there is no shared ownership. Thus, engagement and consultation are "to," "about," or "for" rather than "with" or "by" them. However, these activities can provide an understanding of the public views.

Owing to the diversity of definitions of public involvement and engagement used in the literature, we mapped all included

papers using the INVOLVE definition, identifying whether they were involvement, engagement, or consultation.

Public Involvement in the Review

Public involvement in reviews can improve their quality by contributing to defining the scope, appraising the papers, and interpreting results [36,37]. In total, 2 public contributors (SA and NT) were involved in the review from the initial design stage and contributed at each stage (screening, data extraction, and analysis). They are both experienced public contributors and previously copublished papers around public involvement and engagement in big data research. SA and NT ensured the relevance of review results to the public. This was achieved by relating results to their experience as public contributors in other research projects. The details of the involvement process and what was put in place to support them (eg, training) are reported elsewhere.

Searches

Following the search strategy developed with the support of a university librarian, the CINAHL, Health Research Premium Collection, PubMed, Scopus, and Web of Science databases were searched for papers in September 2021. The search strategy, as published in the protocol paper, is included in [Multimedia Appendix 2](#). The search covered papers published after 2010 until the search completion in September 2021. Additional manual searches were conducted. These included the screening of the first 100 results from a Google Scholar search, journals that aim to publish public involvement research (*BMC Research Involvement and Engagement* and *Health Expectations*) or had special editions on public involvement in big data (*International Journal of Population Data Science*), and gray literature (the first 100 results from the Patient Outcome Research Institute database were screened). A call for potential papers to be included was posted on X (previously known as Twitter) to reach experts in the field.

Inclusion Criteria

The review included papers that met the following criteria: (1) discussed public involvement or engagement in big data research (those that appeared more as consultations were not excluded, but a note was taken of this), (2) focused on patient- or health-related research, and (3) were published in English. All study designs and nonempirical discussion papers were included.

Screening and Study Selection

PT took the lead by screening all papers. SA, NT, and EJ jointly screened at least a random 20% of papers at each stage (title, abstract, and full paper). Any discrepancies were discussed by the research team. The reasons for exclusions at a full paper stage were recorded and reported in the PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) checklist.

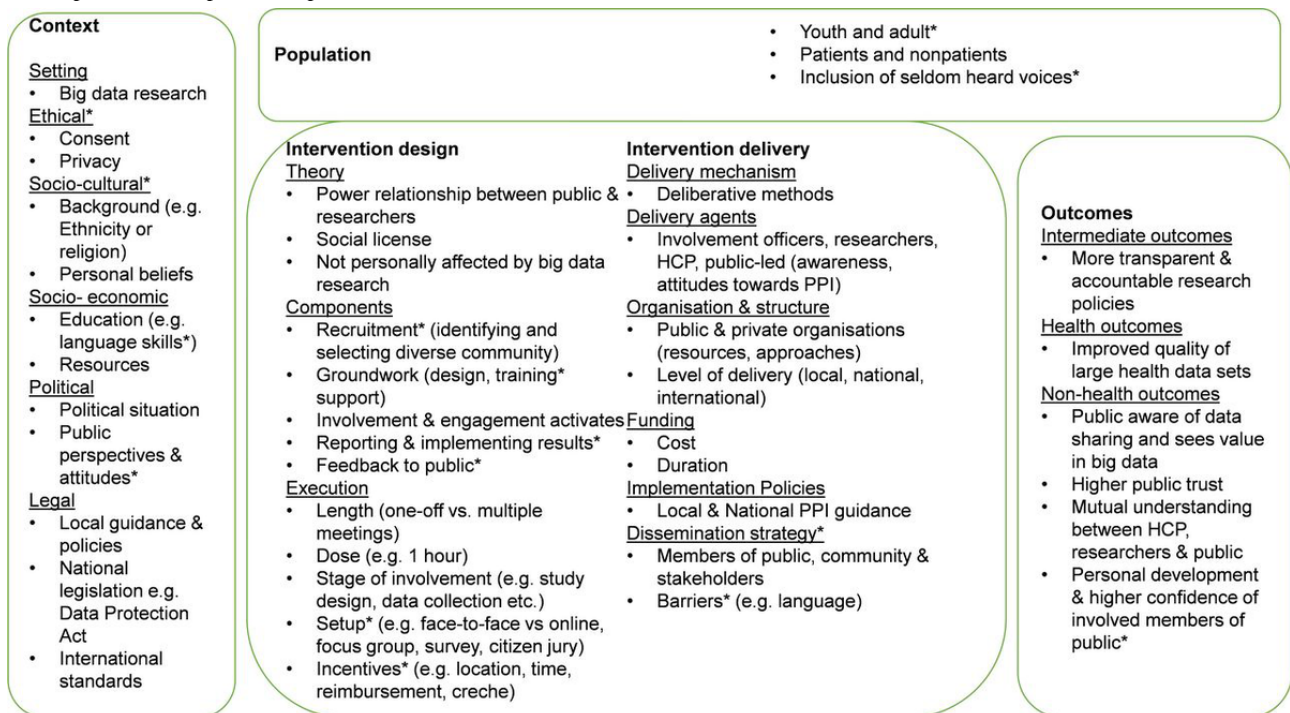
Data Extraction

The data extraction form development was iterative and tested by the whole research team. The final data extraction form is available in [Multimedia Appendix 3](#). PT extracted data from all papers in the first instance. Then, all extraction was double checked by the rest of the research team, thus ensuring each paper was considered by 2 researchers. The research team met regularly to discuss any discrepancies and discuss initial findings. PT organized the extracted data in a descriptive and narrative way under key headings based on the data extraction form. This was discussed with the research team.

Analysis

The analysis was supported by a prior system logic model that we published in the protocol paper ([Figure 1 \[27\]](#)). It was initially developed by a preliminary scoping of the literature, research team discussion, and input from the public contributors. The logic model assisted us in identifying relevant elements of public involvement and engagement in big data research. We mapped our findings under the model and present them using headings from the logic model.

Figure 1. System logic model of public involvement and engagement in big data research (reproduced from the study by Teodorowski et al). HCP: health care provider; PPI: public and patient involvement.



Results

Overview

The database searches produced 4054 papers. Additional manual searches added a further 11 papers. After the removal of duplicates, 3540 articles were screened for inclusion in the

review. A total of 3342 papers were excluded based on the title and abstract. The full-text screen took place for 198 papers, and 53 were included in the review. [Figure 2 \[38,39\]](#) shows the PRISMA flowchart of the screening process. We first discuss the study characteristics and thereafter present findings as mapped under the revised system logic model ([Figure 3 \[27\]](#)).

Figure 2. PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) flowchart. PPIE: patient and public involvement and engagement.

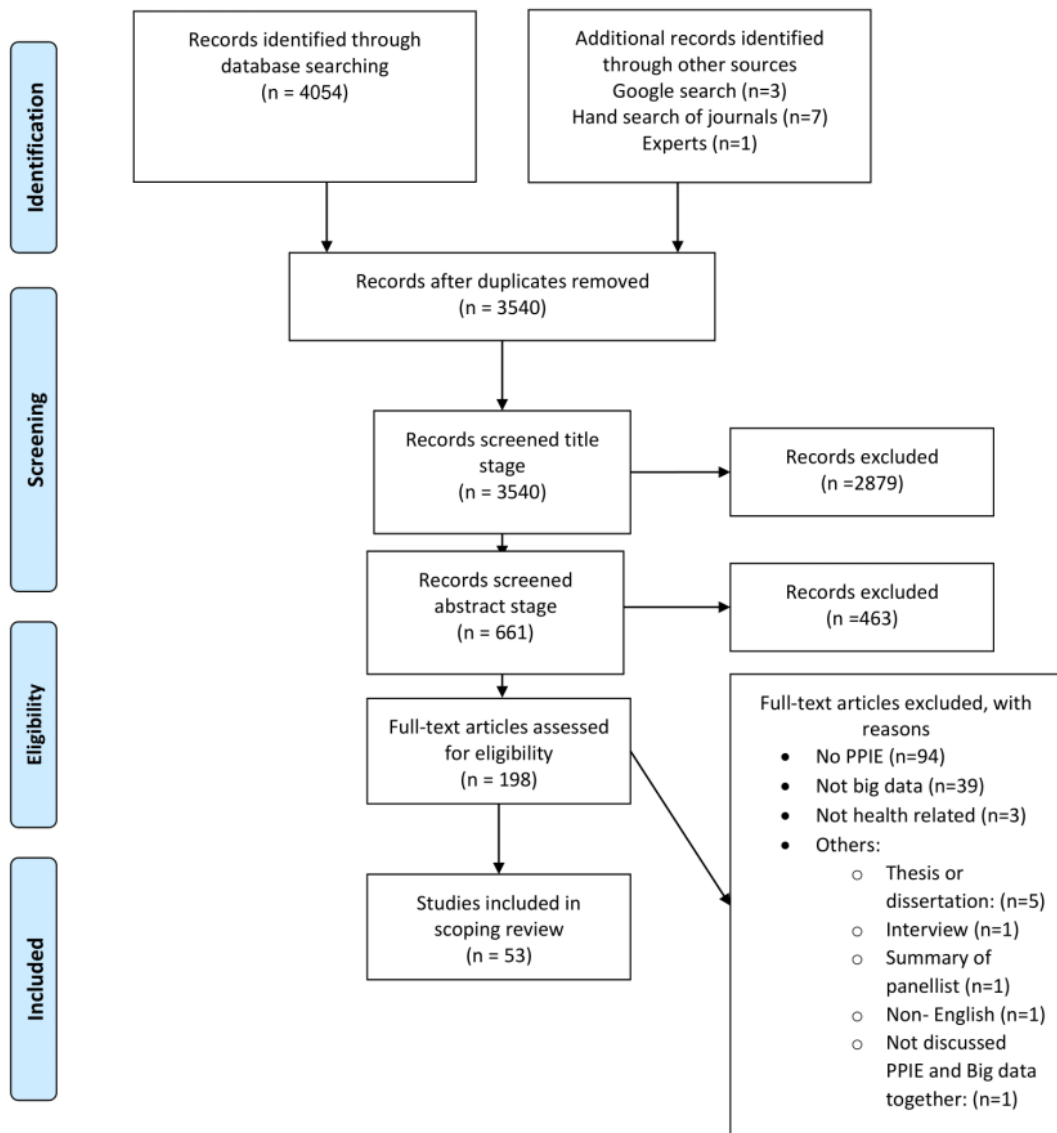
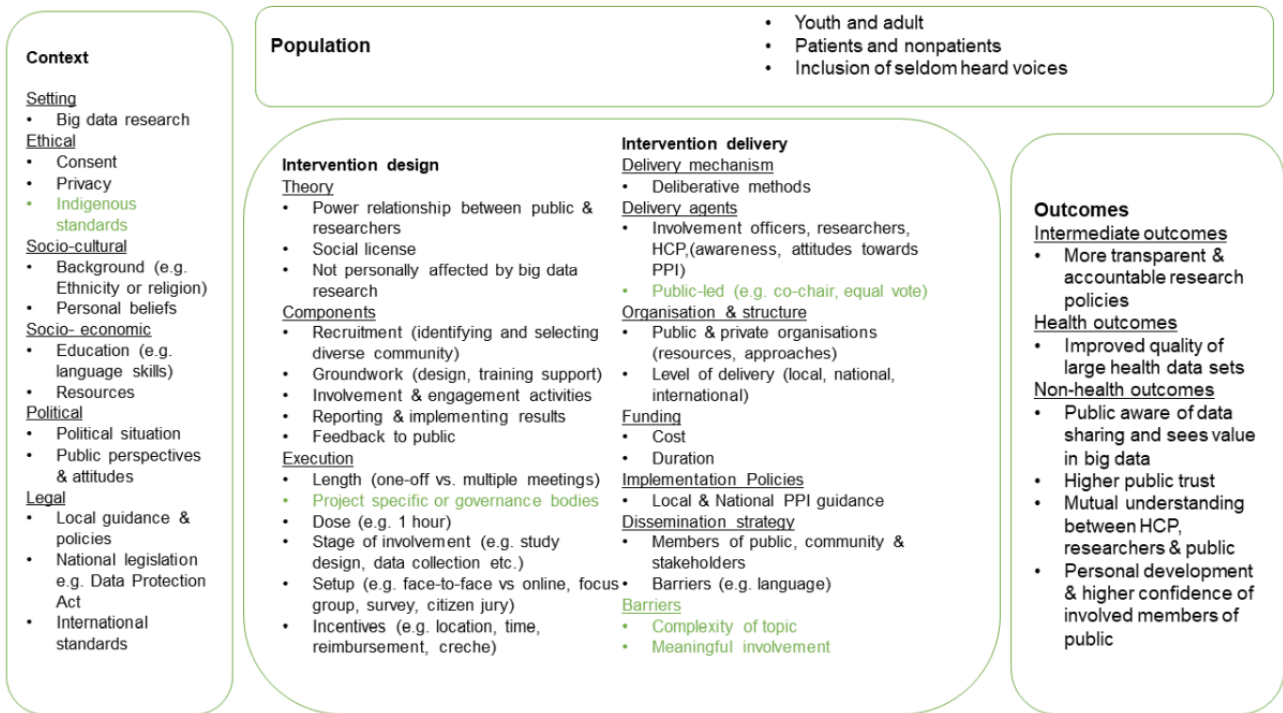


Figure 3. The updated a priori system logic model of public involvement and engagement in big data research (adapted from the study by Teodorowski et al). Green color is used to record new aspects of the model based on the review. HCP: health care provider; PPI: public and patient involvement.



Study Characteristics

The most prevalent type of papers were discussion papers (nonempirical, including conceptual or ethical papers; 28/53, 53%), followed by review papers (5/53, 9%); qualitative study design (5/53, 9%); opinion, letter, commentary, or editorial (4/53, 8%); evaluation (3/53, 6%); protocol (2/53, 4%); ethnographic or descriptive case study (2/53, 4%); public deliberations (1/53, 2%); action research (1/53, 2%); quantitative (1/53, 2%); and mixed methods (1/53, 2%). The papers were from the United Kingdom (19/53, 36%), the United States

(10/53, 19%), Canada (7/53, 13%), New Zealand (3/53, 6%), the Netherlands (1/53, 2%), Portugal (1/53, 2%), France (1/53, 2%), South Africa (1/53, 2%), Australia (1/53, 2%), Germany (1/53, 2%), and Africa (1/53, 2%). In total, 12 papers did not specify a geographical location, and some papers included more than one. The most prevalent type of involvement and engagement activities carried out with the public (following INVOLVE definitions) were involvement (45/53, 85%), followed by engagement (25/53, 47%) and consultation (7/53, 13%). Some papers discussed >1 type of activity. Table 1 presents the characteristics of the included papers.

Table 1. Summary of the included papers in the scoping review.

Study; year	Design	Location	Demographics to involve and engage	Types of activities	Area of interest
Baart and Abma [40], 2010	Action research	Netherlands	Not specified	Involvement and engagement	Involvement in psychiatric genomics research
Ballantyne and Style [41], 2017	Discussion	New Zealand	Lay, gender, and Māori representation	Involvement and engagement	Expert health data research ethics committee
Ballantyne and Stewart [42], 2019	Discussion	United Kingdom	Affected group; priority is given to patient groups considered vulnerable	Involvement and engagement	Public and private sectors collaborate to share, analyze, and use biomedical big data
Beyer et al [43], 2010	Qualitative	United States	Caucasian, Hispanic, Taidam or Lao; represented various education, income, and other characteristics	Involvement and consultation	Geocoded health information and experiential geographical information in a GIS ^a environment
Bharti et al [44], 2021	Discussion	United Kingdom	Not specified	Engagement	Securing public trust and the importance of public engagement
Bot et al [45], 2019	Discussion	United States	Underrepresented populations	Involvement	Decentralization of governance
Coulter [46], 2021	Editorial	United Kingdom	General public	Involvement	National Health Services Digital plans to update its systems from patient data from general practitioner records
Dankar et al [47], 2018	Discussion	N/A ^b	Not specified	Engagement	Data governance in population genome projects
de Freitas et al [48], 2021	Protocol	Portugal	Patients and informal carers	Involvement	Coproduction of a people-centered model for the public in decision-making processes about data reuse
Deverka et al [49], 2019	Public deliberations	United States	Diverse geographic and individuals with chronic illness	Involvement and consultation	Recommendations for medical information commons design and management
Duchange et al [50], 2014	Discussion	France (European Union project)	Representatives of patient organizations	Involvement, engagement, and consultation	Ethics committee
Erikainen et al [51], 2020	Qualitative	United Kingdom	Not specified	Involvement	Governance of population-level biomedical research
Evans et al [52], 2020	Qualitative	United States	Individuals with OUD ^c and their families	Involvement and engagement	Reuse of big data on opioid use
Fernando et al [53], 2019	Letter	South Africa	Traditional community leaders	Involvement and consultation	Data governance model in biobanking and data sharing
Fleurence et al [54], 2014	Discussion	United States	Patients	Involvement	National research network (PCORnet)
Funnell et al [55], 2020	Discussion	Canada	Indigenous communities	Involvement	Community-based participatory research methods in a project using previously collected data to examine end-of-life health care
Gallier et al [56], 2021	Discussion	United Kingdom	Not specified	Involvement and engagement	PIONEER infrastructure and data access processes
Goytia et al [57], 2018	Qualitative	United States	Patients	Involvement and engagement	Views on big data research
Henare et al [58], 2019	Opinion	New Zealand	Indigenous people	Involvement and engagement	Road map for neuroendocrine tumor research to reflect the values of Indigenous people
Hudson et al [59], 2020	Discussion	N/A	Indigenous population	Involvement	Indigenous communities' views on the sharing of genomic data
Hurt et al [60], 2019	Discussion	United Kingdom	Not specified	Involvement and engagement	Design of HealthWise Wales

Study; year	Design	Location	Demographics to involve and engage	Types of activities	Area of interest
Jewell et al [61], 2019	Evaluation	United Kingdom	Service users and carers	Involvement	Advisory group
Jones et al [18], 2013	Evaluation	United Kingdom	Consumers; at least 1 representative from an ethnic minority group	Involvement	Consumer panel
Jones et al [17], 2019	Discussion	United Kingdom	Not specified	Involvement and engagement	SAIL Databank
Jones et al, 2020 [16]	Evaluation	United Kingdom	Inclusive of all ages, ethnic groups, cultures, socioeconomic levels, lifestyles, and other definable interests	Involvement and engagement	SAIL Databank and related population data science initiatives
Kalkman et al [62], 2019	Systematic review	N/A	N/A	Involvement and engagement	Ethical guidelines for principles and norms pertaining to data sharing
Kirkham et al [63], 2021	Qualitative	N/A	People with lived experience of mental illness and experience with data science or research methods	Involvement	Best practice checklist for use in mental health data science
Luna Puerta et al [64], 2020	Scoping review	N/A	N/A	Involvement	Reporting the impact of public involvement in biobanks
Manrique de Lara and Peláez-Ballestas [65], 2020	Narrative review	N/A	N/A	Involvement and engagement	Bioethical perspectives of big data
Milne et al [66], 2021	Discussion	United States and North America	Not specified	Involvement	Data trust model in the governance of biobanks
Milne and Brayne [67], 2020	Discussion	N/A	Not specified	Involvement	Data governance in dementia
Mourby et al [68], 2019	Discussion	United Kingdom	Not specified	Involvement and engagement	Obstacles preventing data linkage research from reaching its full potential
Murtagh et al [69], 2018	Ethnographic case study	United Kingdom	Participants of genomic studies	Involvement and engagement	Foundational principles of data sharing infrastructure
Nelson and Burns [70], 2020	Discussion	United Kingdom	Most affected communities by the research	Engagement	ADRC NI ^d approach to public engagement
Newburn et al [3], 2020	Discussion	United Kingdom	Service users; 1 activity targeted ethnic minority groups	Involvement and engagement	Service user participation in a data linkage study
Nunn et al [71], 2021	Mixed methods	Australia	Not specified	Involvement	Involvement in genomic research
O'Doherty et al [72], 2011	Discussion	Canada	Groups considered historically disadvantaged	Involvement and engagement	Biobank governance and principles to form governance structures
O'Doherty et al [73], 2021	Commentary	N/A	Not specified	Involvement	Functions of good governance
Ohno-Machado et al [74], 2014	Discussion	United States	Patients	Involvement and consultation	Setting up of the pSCANNER ^e
Omar et al [75], 2020	Discussion	N/A	Not specified	Involvement, engagement, and consultation	European network of excellence for big data in prostate cancer
Paprica et al [76], 2020	Discussion	Canada	Communities facing long-standing inequalities that are affected by the research	Involvement and engagement	Establishment and operation of data trusts

Study; year	Design	Location	Demographics to involve and engage	Types of activities	Area of interest
Patel et al [77], 2021	Quantitative	United Kingdom	Not specified	Involvement	The use of remote consultation and prescribing of psychiatric medications
Pavlenko et al [78], 2020	Systematic review	N/A	N/A	Involvement	Governance in clinical data warehouses internationally
Rowe et al [79], 2021	Discussion	Canada, New Zealand, and United States	Indigenous people	Involvement	Principles for linking Indigenous population data
Shaw et al [11], 2020	Discussion	United States, Canada, and United Kingdom	General public and specific communities (eg, African Americans, Indigenous people, people with disabilities, and people living with homelessness)	Engagement	Social license for big data initiatives
Sleigh and Vayena [80], 2021	Descriptive case study	Germany and United Kingdom	General public	Engagement	Visual public engagement campaigns
Teng et al [81], 2019	Discussion	Canada	Not specified	Involvement	Public deliberation event on the data linkage and reuse for research
Tindana et al [82], 2015	Review	Africa	People affected by the research	Involvement, engagement, and consultation	Community engagement in biomedical and genomic research
Townson et al [83], 2020	Discussion	United Kingdom	Not specified	Involvement and engagement	A model of public involvement and engagement
Vayena and Blasimme [84], 2017	Discussion	N/A	Patients	Involvement	Models of informational control in data-intense health care and clinical research
Weich et al [85], 2018	Protocol	United Kingdom	Mental health users and carers and people with lived experiences; ensure diversity of age, gender, and ethnicity	Involvement	Spatial and temporal variation in the use, effectiveness, and cost of community treatment orders through the analysis of routine administrative data
Willison et al [86], 2019	Discussion	Canada	Patient representatives with diabetes including Francophone, immigrant, and Indigenous populations	Involvement	Governance model for health data repositories
Xafis and Labude [87], 2019	Discussion	N/A	Not specified	Involvement and engagement	Ethics framework for big data in health and research

^aGIS: Geographic Information Systems.

^bN/A: not applicable.

^cOUD: opioid use disorder.

^dADRC NI: Administrative Data Research Centre Northern Ireland.

^epSCANNER: patient-centered Scalable National Network for Effectiveness Research.

Population

The demographics of the public or communities involved and engaged in big data research were diverse. These included patients (including consumers and service users; 12/53, 23%); affected groups or groups considered vulnerable (8/53, 15%); Indigenous communities (6/53, 11%); articles focusing on specific characteristics (eg, gender, age, income, education, or geography; 5/53, 9%); carers (4/53, 8%); the general public (3/53, 6%); ethnic minority groups (3/53, 6%); patient

representative or community leaders (3/53, 6%); and research study participants (1/53, 2%).

Deciding who should be on advisory boards, how they should be selected, and what their role should be remained a challenge for researchers [82]. An important issue was representativeness; advisory boards were unlikely to represent all the public views [66,69,87]. No single committee could represent all communities (because of their diversity) [58,76]. Identifying the relevant communities was seen to be difficult [82]. This created the challenge of ensuring legitimate group representation [72]. Advisory groups often did not reach a broader population [68];

hence, involvement and engagement need to move away from the “usual suspects” [16,18,66,76]. There was the risk that more vocal individuals could dominate the discussion [82]. Public contributors could be chosen arbitrarily, for example, based on personal contracts, and thus, the process might not be transparent to the public [72]. This could lead to involving financially and politically motivated [49] or well-connected contributors [42]. The way to overcome these issues could be to recruit public contributors from the study participants; for example, participants could elect their own representatives or a marketing company could conduct the recruitment [72,81].

Context

Researchers should respect local and seldom-heard groups’ traditional structures and ethical perspectives. Papers focusing on Indigenous communities showed already existing governance mechanisms supporting research with these groups [59,79]. Researchers should incorporate Indigenous culture, for example, traditional ceremonies, when involving the community [58]. Formalized agreements with Indigenous organizations could improve the relationship with that community [55]. This more nuanced approach to big data research could assist researchers in establishing trust with Indigenous communities rather than merely convincing them that this is the right thing to do [59].

Political situations or public perspectives and attitudes could influence how and why members of the public get involved in big data research. Secrecy could be a challenge [11]. Organizations might not want to share controversial information, and private companies may argue that sharing it might be against their commercial interests [42]. Involvement and engagement could have the potential to improve public trust in big data research but not necessarily in the research institution [51]. There could be historic mistrust from underserved communities, for example, African Americans, Indigenous communities, and people living with homelessness [11]. There was no guarantee that it would always be possible to maintain public trust in big data research [67].

Intervention Design

Theory

Respectful, ongoing, genuine, and nonhierarchical interaction between researchers and the public was seen as necessary to build trust [16,87]. Building a relationship could take time [82]. It included the coownership of research [55] and should concentrate on what the public wants to know [40]. The reciprocal relationship was illustrated by Newburn et al [3], who organized workshops during which they delivered training for members of the public on using social media and research methodology. A clear purpose for the activity leads to realistic expectations [16]. The starting point for involvement might not be about assuming an equal partnership but an exploration of power relationships [40]. Working in smaller groups gave more opportunities for every public contributor to share their opinion [81]. Decisions could be made through consensus [55,86]. However, Ballantyne and Stewart [42] recognized that there would always be disagreements and that all opinions cannot always be acted on; in that case, there might be a need for a clear explanation of why these voices were not included.

Conducting involvement and engagement activities did not mean that public values are incorporated into big data research [72]. Involvement could be tokenistic without effecting real change, but this still could offer some form of legitimacy to researchers and the research [72]. There was a need to ensure a balanced power relationship between public contributors and the research team [48]. When public contributors joined already ongoing research projects, they had limited scope for impact (eg, amendments might not be allowed); thus, their involvement might turn more into consultation [66,82]. Some researchers did not support involvement and would prefer a deficit engagement model where the members of the public were simply informed about the research [40]. Researchers should reflect on how to ensure balance in engagement. It could be about raising awareness of big data research and understanding that it should not be limited to an already agreed outcome but rather an ongoing dialogue [16,17,76]. Public involvement and engagement should take place before any data sharing occurs [11].

Recruitment

Various ways could be used to reach diverse audiences [75,86]. Recruitment of public contributors was mostly through already existing groups such as involvement groups (eg, Jewell et al [61] used an established involvement register that was open for service users and their families or carers), patient organizations [18,61,74,75,85], clinical sites [74], or recruitment via newsletter distributed among study participants [60,83]. Working with intermediaries (eg, charities or community leaders) could improve the reach as they can provide advice about public perspectives or can become gatekeepers [70,82]. Public contributors might be unclear on their role at the beginning [18]. Therefore, clear criteria for the public are needed [66]. Promoting involvement should focus on seeing it as a reciprocal opportunity with benefits for both researchers and public contributors [3]. The recruitment advertisement should include a description of the role and the required skills [61]. The full research protocol with all methodological details should be available on request [3]. There was a perceived need for a transparent process of selecting public contributors to avoid tokenism [49,73]. Candidates could be interviewed to identify individuals with team working skills and the ability to contribute outside their own health situation [18,86], as public contributors’ emotional connection to the research could be both an enabler or a barrier to their involvement [71].

Engagement is about reaching the broader public, especially around dissemination [62,68]. The engagement was mentioned alongside education, as it showed how findings from big data projects were shared with the community [52]. Educating the public could be seen as paternalistic, one directional, and top down; hence, there was a need for 2-way communication [11,86]. Researchers should share any discussion from governance groups with a broader public [11,56]. These could be a brief web-based report of findings and key recommendations [43].

Contribution

Public contributors had various roles in big data research. First, they contributed to specific research projects. In some papers,

the public contributors were involved at all stages, from study design and identifying research questions to analysis and dissemination [3,48,52,53,55,57,61,65,82,85,87]. Public contributors also acted as coinvestigators in big data research projects [3].

The other role was around data governance. Public contributors (or representatives of patient organizations) could be involved in (joint) data governance to ensure that research was done ethically (in terms of public interest and sensitivity risk), for example, by advising, cofinding new solutions, or cocreating guidance and policy [16,18,41,42,45,54,56,58-60,62,64,66-69,72-78,86]. Working with the public could offer a lay perspective and ensure that data access and research were in the public interest, and thus, this was argued to potentially pave the way for establishing public trust [17,18,41,56,60,66,68].

One paper reported that public contributors who were members of governance bodies acted as big data advocates [16]. However, their voice should be of equal value as other stakeholders [49]. For example, if the group felt that a big data project did not have enough public input, they could assign a public contributor to support that particular work [86]. The governance bodies could also assist with engaging the general public (eg, by reviewing lay information) and guide the recruitment of new public contributors [16]. The influence of governance groups differs, and O'Doherty et al [72] recommended flexible governance that could evolve as big data research develops. Some papers argued that a one-size-fits-all solution might never work in big data research or for diverse communities [45,58,68,82]. Embedding involvement in the governance of big data research may require novel solutions [51].

The public should receive understandable and educational information on project outcomes [75]. Engagement activities should be proportional to the nature and size of the project around big data research [42]. Therefore, the way these engagement activities looked differed between the papers that were included. The public could be reached through engagement events [16,65]. Events were held with service users [3]. Researchers attended and supported events, for example, during the colorectal cancer awareness month [43]. Interactive elements (graphics, videos, etc) were used during exhibitions to raise public awareness [80].

The consultation approach consisted of surveys [50,75], informal small group meetings (eg, town hall meetings) [82], or qualitative research that aimed to capture the public perspective before setting up the project using that community data [53]. These included focus groups (eg, exploring patients' approach to patient engagement in governance and prioritizing research questions) and interviews (eg, to understand public views toward privacy) [74].

In-person activities could be time restrictive and cost restrictive for some communities [74]. Public contributors might not be able to attend meetings, sometimes without warning because of personal circumstances (eg, health treatment, work, or family responsibilities) [3,81].

Intervention Delivery

Delivery Mechanism

Involvement around governing big data research could also be conducted as a one-off deliberation event [49,81] or a Delphi study [63]. A one-off deliberation process could be particularly beneficial for contentious issues [73].

Delivery Agents

Governance groups could be chaired or cochaired by a public contributor, and most members of these groups could be members of the public [60,66,74,86]. If there was >1 governance group in the organization, public contributors could sit on different panels [16-18,74]. The public could be a part of the engagement process. Townson et al [83] mentioned the role of "Champions" who promoted studies in general practitioner surgeries, large public events (eg, food festivals) reaching schools, and support events organized by researchers. Another role they had was that of "supports." Supports (similarly, to champions) were to promote the research, but it took the form of a pledge; this was more casual, with no formal training or evaluation and no reimbursement. However, both roles were voluntary, with no specific targets to reach [83].

Involvement and engagement should be led by team members experienced in organizing and running these activities [16,48,60,70,76]. Other researchers should dedicate time to these activities (and this time should be embedded in the workload) [16]. Research team members and facilitators should be trained in public involvement [60,81]. Access to specialist training on involvement and engagement should be provided to both staff and the public [16].

Organization and Structure

Using modern technology, researchers could create a registry or website where the public can see who had access to their data and for what purpose or receive newsletters [3,41,47,72]. Newburn et al [3] aimed to share their research on social media (Twitter and Facebook). Nationwide campaigns could explain the benefits of big data research [52,57,80]. This should be done in the language (eg, Indigenous) the public understands [58]. The public could be further reached through patient organizations [3,75], and researchers could share (yearly) updates jointly with them [50].

Funding

Expectations around monetary compensation should be established from the start [82]. These could include reimbursement for time [61,72,81,83], travel [81], and childcare expenses [3]. Researchers should provide lunch [3] and use venues that are easily accessible by public transport [3]. If public contributors are paid equally to professionals in governing bodies, this might improve their involvement [49].

Implementation Policies

A minority of papers directly referred to involvement or engagement guidance. These included the UK National Standards for Public Involvement [16,60,61], National Institute for Health and Care Research (NIHR) definitions of involvement and engagement [3,83], the GRIPP2 (Guidance for Reporting

Involvement of Patients and the Public) checklist [3,61], the consensus statement on public involvement and engagement with data-intensive health research [16], an academic model guiding involvement [40], and local policies or principles [47,79].

Some papers mentioned legal documents to justify involvement and engagement. These include data protection legislation [16,67], government policies [41,45], and legislation or treaties around Indigenous communities' rights [55,58].

Dissemination Strategy

Researchers should communicate clearly, in lay language and without jargon, to ensure transparency [18,49,76]. The examples included jargon-free graphics [80], tailoring academic research to lay audience [40], and postsession informal debrief [69]. When reaching the broader public, researchers should aim to deliver the message themselves rather than through the lens of media to provide more balanced information [3]. Public contributors should receive training introducing them to big data research [18,48,69,83,86]. The availability of good-quality information on big data underpins meaningful public involvement [75,87]. Explanations could include links to Wikipedia [83]. Researchers should send information before activities to give people time to reflect on it [83]. Public contributors might need extra time to consider their responses [16].

Barriers

Meaningfully including public contributors in the governance of big data projects could be challenging. Big data could be a complex topic, and it is difficult to find, involve, and engage public contributors with sufficient big data expertise [18,40,47,49,52,57,65]. Potential contributors might feel apprehensive about contributing to complex research if they do not understand the technical jargon [16,42]. This could be further compounded by language and cultural barriers between researchers and the public [82]. Public contributors should be offered training and additional support as required, especially with complicated topics [61,83]. Support needs to be person-centered and based on each individual's skills and experience [83]. These could include short lectures, group discussions, and opportunities to ask questions [61,66]. For example, Teng et al [81] sent a booklet written by researchers in lay language on big data with a special focus on data collection, regulation, data sharing, and public concerns. Involving people with experience in research could be an alternative [69]. Kirkham et al [63] included public contributors with big data research experience. Still, they recognize that people with a better understanding of big data might have different views than the general public.

Public involvement should be a meaningful process. Included papers suggested several ways to ensure that members of the public would feel comfortable and able to share their views. Before meeting other stakeholders, public contributors could meet first together [48]. When commenting on a new aspect of research, public contributors were invited to comment first [86]. Some papers described the beginning of the involvement process [40,81]. In the study by Teng et al [81], during the first day of

activities, presentations were made to provide some background on big data research for public contributors. These were from the perspective of patients and seldom-heard communities. These presentations were not neutral but opinionated to show diverse views on big data research.

Outcomes

Some included papers in the review claimed that involvement and engagement should have clear outcomes. First, it could identify gaps in knowledge and priorities for research [70]. Second, it could align researchers' and institutional perspectives of public interest with public views [44], for example, by bringing together charity workers, service providers, elected politicians, and members of the public [54,70]. Third, public contributors involved in governing bodies could have the effect of improving trust and accountability [84]. Fourth, improving public awareness of big data might democratize health research [62]. For example, Vayena and Blasimme [84] argued further that blending citizen science and participatory models could offer more democracy in governance.

However, measuring the impact of involvement and engagement in big data research was challenging [3,64,82,83]. A scoping review by Luna Puerta et al [64] recognized that there was no consensus about the objectives of public involvement in big data research, which undermines the ability to measure impact. Another review by Tindana et al [82] found that the papers included in their review on community engagement did not evaluate the effectiveness of engagement activities.

Engagement through genuine public debate could help demonstrate that the public sector could be a trustworthy steward of patient data [42]. This should include any negative comments toward the initiative; these should be publicly shared, and justification should be provided as to why their feedback was not implemented [42]. Dankar et al [47], when discussing biomedical databases, suggested that sharing research findings should include reaching individuals with personalized research results; these need to be valuable and benefit individuals (eg, they could go for health tests or make life changes that improve their health).

Discussion

Principal Findings

This scoping review provides an overview of how public involvement and engagement have been used in big data research or how it has been argued that it could be applied. This is the first review exploring this issue. The review has shown that the public can and, many articles argue, should be involved and engaged in big data research in terms of individual initiatives and data governance. However, the findings indicate that there is no one right way to involve and engage the public in big data research. Those responsible for working with the public should consider what type of activities are most relevant to their work and should use multiple approaches (involvement, engagement, and consultations) to reach different communities. Some papers suggested using modern technology when engaging the public (eg, through a website or digital newsletter). However, most included papers were not primary studies.

The review indicates that many believe that public involvement and engagement have the potential to improve public trust and accountability for big data initiatives. However, there is limited literature on how public involvement and engagement might influence it. Future research should attempt to measure the impact of involvement and engagement in securing social license for big data research with the broader public. The initial step to improve this situation could be to ensure reporting by using standardized reporting guidance for public involvement, such as GRIPP2 [88].

References to public involvement and engagement guidance or legal documents in the included papers were limited. The consensus statement on public involvement and engagement with data-intensive health research [1] is relatively new. However, INVOLVE (now incorporated into the NIHR) has been active in the United Kingdom since 1996. This indicates that many included papers replicate similar discussions around principles involving and engaging the public rather than referring to already established standards. However, more big data-specific guidance is being developed by the Public Engagement in Data Research Initiative in the United Kingdom [89].

The findings of this review indicate that some challenges are particularly relevant for involvement and engagement in big data research. However, the review has also shown that public involvement and engagement in big data research are not dissimilar to other research fields, as they share aspects of involving and engaging the public, such as working with seldom-heard communities and addressing power balance. This suggests that big data researchers could also use generic public involvement resources, such as the National Standards for Public Involvement in the United Kingdom [90].

The main challenge is that big data research is a complex topic. It might not be easy to explain it briefly (or in accessible language) to potential public contributors or the public. The papers offered some suggestions on how these barriers could be overcome. Researchers need to ensure that they allocate sufficient time and resources when discussing big data research with members of the public. This finding aligns with another review that examined patient involvement in cancer research, where the authors identified time-consuming involvement as a primary challenge in that context [91]. This review suggests that involving and engaging the public in big data research might be even more time consuming than in other fields. If these challenges are overcome, there is a higher chance that involvement and engagement in big data research is not tokenistic, but this might mean additional time and financial

resources. Researchers should budget for these resources as they design any involvement or engagement activities. However, they should be supported to do it by research institutions and funders.

Bailey et al [92] reported that Black and South Asian communities in the United Kingdom have less trust in the health system, and because of this, there might be concerns within these groups about how the public bodies use their data. Researchers need to recognize how trust and attitudes toward big data research could influence public involvement and engagement. This review has offered some indication of how to achieve this from the literature that explored working with Indigenous communities, such as recognizing communities' beliefs and way of life.

The protocol that this review was based on presented the priori system logic model for public involvement and engagement in big data research [27]. On the basis of the review findings, the model was revised. Within the context section, Indigenous standards were added to recognize that big data research needs to consider the perspective and views of Indigenous communities that might differ from previous dominant perspectives. In the intervention theory section, the execution of involvement activities could be divided into project-specific aspects (eg, focusing on 1 big data research project) and governance bodies that look into granting approvals into data linkage (for other projects). These 2 purposes might influence how researchers involve and engage the public. In intervention delivery, the bullet point around public-led activities was added, as some papers suggested that it was important to ensure that the public voice is equivalent to professionals' views during voting and should have equal or even more influence (eg, by cochairing meetings or being coinvestigators). Furthermore, a new bullet point was added in intervention delivery to recognize big data-specific barriers, especially jargon, and how complex big data research could be to members of the public.

Most of the elements included in the model were discussed in the included papers. The only exception is that it does not reflect on the involvement and engagement of people who are not personally affected by big data research (or do not perceive themselves as such). The coverage of most of the issues raised in the papers for involvement and engagement in big data research suggests that the logic model could support researchers who intend to design and deliver these activities to the public.

Textbox 1 provides a summary of the key recommendations around public involvement and engagement in big data research based on the review findings.

Textbox 1. Key recommendations around public involvement and engagement in big data research.

- Ensure that complex and abstract language is explained in lay terms and is understandable to members of the public.
- As public involvement and engagement in big data research might require additional time and resources, these should be planned and budgeted in research plans.
- Trust and public attitudes could influence how and if members of the public get involved in big data research. Public involvement and engagement activities targeting seldom-heard communities should recognize the cultural beliefs held by these groups.
- Following big data research standards could provide researchers with more specific guidance for working with members of the public. These should be used alongside already existing generic guidance.
- Capture and evaluate the impact of public involvement and engagement activities in big data research.

Limitations

The first limitation is the use of terminology. The review explored public involvement and engagement in big data research. These terms are used in different ways by researchers. This parallels the experience of Brett et al [93] in their review, where they found that the variability in wording used to describe involvement complicated literature searching. The search strategy was developed with an experienced librarian and included additional manual searches. However, this did not guarantee that all relevant papers were included. This could have influenced the search results, as potentially some relevant papers might not have been picked up by the search as the authors used different terms. The second limitation was that only information included in the papers was extracted. The authors of included papers were not approached for more details. As academic papers have a word limit, it is possible that some additional information about involvement and engagement may have not been included in the published paper. In contrast to the initial plan, the references of included papers were not screened for potential inclusion. This was because screening of

references of included papers in the scoping review was considered impractical because of the high number of papers. Moreover, only papers published in English were included. Finally, owing to the number of papers identified through the searches, only a random sample of 20% was screened by all coauthors.

Conclusions

This review offers a snapshot of evidence on what public involvement and engagement in big data research could look like. It is limited, as it was largely based on discussion papers, but useful, as evidence on how these involvement and engagement activities could be delivered and what type of outcomes they could produce was provided. The field would benefit from further research and evaluation of involvement and engagement activities in big data through primary research. Owing to the ongoing development of big data research, it is likely that these would need to be updated on a regular basis, but nevertheless, such research could provide further insights into how to meaningfully involve and engage the public in big data research.

Acknowledgments

PT was a PhD student supported by the National Institute for Health and Care Research (NIHR) Applied Research Collaboration North West Coast (ARC NWC) and based at the University of Liverpool. SER is partly funded by the NIHR ARC NWC. This report is an independent research study funded by the ARC NWC. The views expressed in this publication are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the NIHR or the Department of Health and Social Care. The authors would like to thank Dr Kate Fleming for assisting at the data extraction stage.

Conflicts of Interest

None declared.

Multimedia Appendix 1

PRISMA-ScR (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Reviews) checklist. [[DOCX File, 27 KB - jopm_v16i1e56673_app1.docx](#)]

Multimedia Appendix 2

Search strategy as published in the protocol paper. [[DOCX File, 20 KB - jopm_v16i1e56673_app2.docx](#)]

Multimedia Appendix 3

Data extraction form. [[DOCX File, 23 KB - jopm_v16i1e56673_app3.docx](#)]

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Abbreviations

GRIPP2: Guidance for Reporting Involvement of Patients and the Public

NIHR: National Institute for Health and Care Research

PRISMA: Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses

PRISMA-ScR: Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Reviews

Edited by M Hudson, S Woods; submitted 23.01.24; peer-reviewed by N Natafqi, A Paprica, M McCoy; comments to author 24.03.24; revised version received 06.05.24; accepted 22.06.24; published 16.08.24.

Please cite as:

Teodorowski P, Jones E, Tahir N, Ahmed S, Rodgers SE, Frith L

Public Involvement and Engagement in Big Data Research: Scoping Review

J Particip Med 2024;16:e56673

URL: <https://jopm.jmir.org/2024/1/e56673>

doi: [10.2196/56673](https://doi.org/10.2196/56673)

PMID:

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Original Paper

Examining the Feasibility, Acceptability, and Effectiveness of Remote Training on Community-Based Participatory Research: Single-Arm Pre-Post Pilot Study

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Abstract

Background: Over the past decade, a growing body of scientific evidence has demonstrated that community engagement in research leads to more relevant research, enhances the uptake of research findings, and improves clinical outcomes. Despite the increasing need for the integration of community engagement methodologies into the scientific inquiry, doctoral and master's level competencies in the field of psychiatry often lack dedicated training or coursework on community engagement methodologies.

Objective: A total of 13 service users, peer support specialists, caregivers of people with mental health challenges, and scientists (with specialties ranging from basic science to implementation science) aged 18 and older participated in remote training on community-based participatory research. Data were collected at baseline, 2 days, and 3 months.

Methods: A total of 13 service users, peer support specialists, caregivers of people with mental health challenges, and scientists (with specialties ranging from basic science to implementation science) aged 18 and older participated in remote training on community-based participatory research. Data were collected at baseline, 2 days, and 3 months.

Results: The pilot study demonstrated that a 3-month remote training on community-based participatory research ("Partnership Academy") was deemed feasible and acceptable by service users, peer support specialists, caregivers of people with mental health challenges, and scientists. Improvements were found in research engagement and the quality of partnership. A marked increase in distrust in the medical system was also found. Groups submitted 4 grant applications and published 1 peer-reviewed journal at a 3-month follow-up.

Conclusions: This pre- and postpilot study demonstrated it is possible to train groups of service users, peer support specialists, caregivers of people with mental health challenges, and scientists in community-based participatory research. These findings provide preliminary evidence that a 3-month remote training on community-based participatory research ("Partnership Academy") is feasible, acceptable, and potentially associated with improvements in research engagement as well as the quality of partnership and output, such as manuscripts and grant applications.

(*J Particip Med* 2024;16:e48707) doi:[10.2196/48707](https://doi.org/10.2196/48707)

KEYWORDS

community-based participatory research; CBPR; peer support; health literacy; remote training; community-based; user; mental health

Introduction

Over the past decade, growing scientific evidence shows that community engagement in research produces more relevant research, increases uptake of research findings, and improves clinical outcomes [1-6]. Community engagement is defined as “a process of working collaboratively with groups of people who are affiliated by geographic proximity, special interests, or similar situations, with respect to issues affecting their well-being” [1]. Patient-centered outcomes research (PCOR) is intended to improve community engagement in research, yet it often leaves partners feeling overburdened and disenfranchised, leading to premature disengagement from PCOR [6].

Community engagement is crucial to addressing health disparities through the inclusion of historically underrepresented and disadvantaged populations in mental health research. Service users of the mental health system are primarily individuals from low-income groups who have disabilities, multiple chronic health conditions, and low health literacy. This population commonly disengages from research due to mistrust rooted in historical traumatic experiences in the mental health system, which in turn leads to the lack of representation in PCOR. As such, significant investment in the science of community engagement is needed to improve community engagement in PCOR [7].

Despite the need for the integration of community engagement methodologies into the scientific inquiry, doctoral and master’s level competencies in the field of psychiatry commonly do not include dedicated training or coursework on community engagement methodologies [2]. Without appropriate training or research experience, attempts to facilitate community engagement in research are often ineffective and burdensome, leaving partners feeling disengaged [3]. The purpose of this study was to assess the feasibility, acceptability, and preliminary effectiveness of remote training on community-based participatory research—“Partnership Academy.”

Methods

Procedures

The authors participated in and are members of the Early Mortality in People with a Diagnosis of a Serious Mental Illness (SMI) roundtable convened remotely on May 24 and 26, 2022. The roundtable was a diverse, interdisciplinary partnership collaborative composed of individuals with lived experience of mental health or substance misuse, peer support specialists, recovery coaches, parents and caregivers of people with SMIs, researchers and clinician-scientists with and without lived experience, policy makers, and representatives from patient-led organizations committed to addressing the health disparity in early mortality among people with SMIs through patient-centered research. To date, no such collaboration of partners exists. The roundtable aimed to advance the

understanding of fundamental patterns and interactions among and between environmental, behavioral, cultural, neurobiological, psychological, and biopsychosocial mechanisms on health and health behavior relevant to early mortality in people with SMIs.

Roundtable members were selected by reviewing the published literature on early mortality and SMIs. KF and RW conducted a Google Scholar search using variations of the following search terms: “early mortality” and “serious mental illness.” Next, these authors (KF and RW) emailed authors included in the identified prereviewed manuscripts. Identified members recommended additional members through a snowball sampling framework. Patient partners were identified through direct email to partners of the Collaborative Design for Recovery and Health, which is an international group of patients, clinicians, peer support specialists, caregivers, scientists with and without lived experiences, policy makers, and payer systems led by KF and RW. The Collaborative partnered with different community groups from vulnerable populations across the intersectionality of disability and race to coproduce solutions to address community-identified challenges.

Attendants of the Early Mortality in People with a Diagnosis of a Serious Mental Illness roundtable were also given the option to complete surveys before day 1, after day 2, and 3 months after the roundtable. The surveys were used to assess the impact of the training on partners. KF provided participants with a detailed description of the study protocol if they were interested, and a survey link was emailed to individuals with the digital informed consent form. Participants clicked “I agree” on the informed consent form to participate and completed the web-based baseline survey.

The roundtable convening used a remote community meeting method, adhering to the Peer and Academic Partnership model of community engagement [8]. The Peer and Academic Partnership is based on the Center for Disease Control and Prevention’s principles of community engagement (2011) [9], as follows: (1) develop a clear understanding of the purpose, goal, and population involved in community change; (2) become knowledgeable about all aspects of the community; (3) interact and establish relationships with the community; (4) encourage community self-determination; (5) partner with the community; (6) respect community diversity and culture; (7) activate community assets and develop capacity; (8) maintain flexibility; and (9) commit to long-term collaboration. Although the project team initially considered convening in person, the rapid rise in remote meetings due to COVID-19 has highlighted the benefits of remote convening, especially for the early mortality community, given its international representation.

The roundtable members included people across the United States, United Kingdom, Canada, Europe, Africa, Australia, Asia, and the Netherlands. With such a geographically dispersed community, an in-person convening was not feasible for all partners and would have involved disproportionate travel

expenses. To ensure a productive remote meeting, the project team offered to train members to use the virtual platform before the roundtable and planned a rehearsal to work through any last-minute challenges with the meeting platform. Further, to facilitate equitable access to engagement, members were encouraged to call in and not use video if their available technology did not allow for video.

The roundtable convened over two 5-hour days across 1 week in May 2022, structured as a summit with several remote meeting sessions. KF and RW facilitated the summit, set the tone, provided participation guidelines, and kept discussions focused and oriented to the goals of the roundtable. The roundtable used a Delphi method to achieve a consensus on the research agenda. The Delphi method is an empirically supported process used to attain consensus within an expert group [10]. Roundtable members responded to several rounds of PCOR research agenda development. After each round, their responses were aggregated and shared with the group until a consensus was achieved.

Patients made up at least 60% of meeting participants, and all verbal and written materials for the convening meeting were designed with consideration for potential cognitive and intellectual needs, following principles of design for people with SMIs (eg, information presented at fourth-grade level and single structure sentences). Further, all interactions were based on adult learning techniques designed to reduce cognitive effort and promote engagement among all members. For example, KF encouraged the roundtable to share their respective perspectives on early mortality (personal or research-related perspectives) to promote discussions (ie, experiential learning theory), and RW used a round-robin technique to encourage all members to share their ideas, built-in breaks, and energizers into sessions to keep roundtable members engaged, positive, and productive. The community engagement techniques used each day are delineated in the following sections.

Convening Meeting Day 1: Setting the Stage and Story With a Gap

The first session began with a welcome and an opportunity for introductions, followed by a session on the historical literature review of early mortality among people with SMIs. This was followed by a large group discussion intended to identify gaps in our understanding of early mortality among people with SMIs. Next, we presented a Story with a Gap to elicit gaps in the extant research. The Story with a Gap technique includes 2 contrasting pictures of “before” and “after” situations [11]. Following this technique, roundtable members identified the steps and resources needed to move from the “before” to the “after” situation. In conclusion, opportunities to lead committees to work toward tasks identified in the strategic planning process were formed. Next, each member evaluated and ranked their foci for future research, using anonymous polling videoconferencing from the first session to select the 3 highest impact areas within the bounds of financial, time, and other constraints.

Convening Meeting Day 2: Multiple Rounds of Delphi and Consensus

The first session of day 2 began with a draft PCOR research agenda based on discussions from day 1. The PCOR research agenda included, at a minimum, strategies to address gaps in research efforts. All partners commented on the PCOR research agenda and first proposed recommendations publicly in an open forum and, second, proposed additional recommendations anonymously using a Qualtrics web-based survey. This iterative process occurred until a consensus was reached. During day 2 sessions, RW implemented techniques to promote conversation. He used brainstorming, “Go Wild” prompts (ie, asking roundtable members to talk about ideas that begin with “wouldn’t it be good if...”), and reverse brainstorming (ie, considering the reverse of problems) to generate creative, thoughtful, and innovative ideas regarding early mortality PCOR. Then, in the Reality Check session, RW used multivoting, ranking, and problem-solving methods to help the roundtable make decisions about which ideas were most feasible and impactful and how to overcome barriers to their implementation.

Study Design and Participants

The study used a single-arm pre- and postdesign approach to assess the impact of training partners from diverse groups designed to facilitate community-engaged research. Participants (N=13) included service users, peer support specialists, caregivers of people with mental health challenges, and scientists (basic science to implementation scientists).

Ethical Considerations

This study was approved by the Dartmouth Health institutional review board (STUDY02001532).

Instruments

Quality of Partnership

The quality of PCOR was assessed using the Quality of Patient-Centered Outcomes Research Partnerships Instrument (QPCOR) [12]. The QPCOR contains the following domains: (1) purpose, goal, and population; (2) respect (respect community diversity and culture); (3) inclusion (activate community assets); (4) colearning (develop capacity); (5) become knowledgeable about the community; (6) self-determination; (7) shared decision-making (partner with the community); (8) perceived support (interact and establish relationships with the community); (9) flexibility; and (10) sustainability (commitment to long-term collaboration). The QPCOR uses a 10-point Likert scale. Items with a score of 60 or lower indicate the need for improvement and should be addressed. Higher scores indicate higher levels of partnership.

Engagement

Engagement was measured using The Research Engagement Survey Tool (REST). The REST is a 9-item scale that evaluates the level of nonacademic partner engagement among research partners. Example items include “The focus is on problems important to the community” and “All partners assist in establishing roles and related responsibilities for the partnership.”

The REST is measured on 2 Likert-type scales (for quantity and quality). The response options for the quantity scale were “never,” “rarely,” “sometimes,” “often,” “always,” and “not applicable.” The response options for the quality scale were “poor,” “fair,” “good,” “very good,” “excellent,” and “not applicable.” Responses were coded in order from 1 to 5 for both scales, with higher scores indicating higher engagement; not applicable options were coded as missing. For the REST, mean scores were calculated overall for both quality and quantity scales. The overall mean scores for both scales were created by averaging the mean scores so that each response is weighted equally regardless of the number of items.

Distrust in the Medical System

Distrust in the medical system was measured using the Health Care System Distrust Scale [13]. The Health Care System Distrust Scale contains 10 items and is measured on a Likert scale. Example prompts include “Medical experiments can be done on me without my knowing about it” and “My medical records are kept private.” Scores on the Health Care System Distrust Scale range from 12 to 46 with a possible range from 10 to 50. The score is the sum of 10 questions from the Health Care System Distrust Scale after reversing 2 positively framed items. The possible range is from 10 to 50.

Effectiveness

Effectiveness was assessed by collecting data at the 3-month mark, including progress toward grant submissions, submitted manuscripts, and changes in research knowledge.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were conducted to describe the demographic characteristics of the study sample. A paired-sample *t* test was conducted to assess the difference between baseline, day-2, and 3-month scores for statistical significance. Participants served as their own controls from pre- to posttest. Descriptive statistics and analyses were computed using STATA (version 13.1; StataCorp). The statistical models used to analyze the data accommodate missing data, assuming that they are missing at random.

Results

Demographically, the population of this feasibility study was predominantly female ($n=8$, 62%), White ($n=10$, 77%), and

educated at or above a master’s level ($n=8$, 62%). Study participants represented a wide range of adult age groups with the plurality being in the age category of 45-55 years, and there was a wide range of partners represented (Table 1).

For all 3 survey tools used in this study (Healthcare System Distrust Scale, REST, and Quality of Patient-Centered Outcomes Research Measurement tool), there was a marked but not statistically significant increase from pre- to posttest. The Distrust Scale and REST (5-point scales) both increased 0.03 units ($P=.75$ and $P=.85$, respectively), representing increased distrust and research engagement in the postmeeting survey. There was also a marked increase of 6.86 units in the Quality of Patient-Centered Outcomes Research Measurement tool ($P=.20$; Table 2).

When evaluating individual questions, some participants had a more significant degree of change in the postmeeting setting compared to others. In particular, a question regarding providers hiding medical mistakes showed significantly more agreement (mean 3.38, SD 1.04 vs mean 2.69, SD 1.03; $P=.04$; Hedges $g=0.65$), and participants indicated significantly more comfort in engaging with research study team members (mean 91.00, SD 15.36 vs mean 77.15, SD 27.36; $P=.049$; Hedges $g=0.60$) in the postmeeting survey. Many other questions demonstrated meaningful but not significant increases with a universal increase in survey responses for the Quality in Patient-Centered Outcomes Research Measurement tool (ie, change range per question: minimum +3.54; maximum +14.23; Hedges g range: 0.13-0.60).

The Health Care System Distrust Scale included some items that presented an increase on the scale and some that presented a decrease. The most notable increase in distrust was hiding medical errors, as previously mentioned. The most notable decrease (represented by increased trust in the medical system) was related to the health care system putting medical needs as a priority over all other issues during care (mean 2.85, SD 0.99 vs mean 3.31, SD 1.11; $P=.14$; Hedges $g=-0.43$). In the REST tool, there was a minimal change for most questions, with most questions exhibiting a ceiling effect and being near 5 (highest score) in both the pre- and postsetting (Table 3). There were no statistically significant differences in mean scores pre- and postintervention for any domain covered by the REST tool.

Table 1. Sociodemographic characteristics of individuals involved in the research academy. Partner categories are not mutually exclusive, and participants may be represented in multiple categories (N=13).

Characteristics	Values, n (%)
Gender	
Female	8 (62)
Male	5 (39)
Race	
Asian-Eastern	0 (0)
Asian-Indian	0 (0)
Black/African American	2 (15)
Hispanic	0 (0)
Multiple races	1 (8)
Native American	0 (0)
White	10 (77)
Age (years)	
18-24	0 (0)
25-34	1 (8)
35-44	2 (15)
45-54	4 (31)
55-64	3 (23)
65-74	3 (23)
Highest level of education	
Graduate degree or above	8 (62)
Bachelor's degree	2 (15)
High school degree	1 (8)
Other	2 (15)
Partner role	
Caregiver of person(s) with SMI ^a	4 (31)
Service user	4 (31)
Peer support specialist	6 (45)
Scientist	6 (45)
Other	1 (8)

^aSMI: serious mental illness.

Table 2. Pre- and postchanges on outcomes of interest.

Outcome of interest	Prechange, mean (SD)	Postchange, mean (SD)	Mean difference (SD)	P value	Effect size (95% CI) ^a
Health care system distrust	3.08 (0.55)	3.12 (0.50)	0.03 (0.34)	.75	0.06 (–0.69 to 0.80)
REST ^b	4.56 (0.60)	4.60 (0.58)	0.03 (0.60)	.85	0.06 (–0.69 to 0.80)
QPCOR ^c	79.01 (22.80)	85.87 (22.59)	6.86 (18.28)	.20	0.29 (–0.46 to 1.04)

^aHedges g was used to calculate effect sizes (due to the small sample size).

^bREST: Research Engagement Survey Tool.

^cQPCOR: Quality of Patient-Centered Outcomes Research.

Table 3. Pre- and postchanges by individual questions.

Characteristics	Prechange mean (SD)	Postchange mean (SD)	Mean difference SD	P value	Effect size (95% CI) ^a
Healthcare System Distrust Scale^b					
Medical experiments can be done on me without my knowing about it.	2.23 (1.36)	2.23 (1.01)	0 (0)	1.000	0 (−0.74 to 0.74)
My medical records are kept private.	4.23 (0.83)	3.92 (0.76)	−0.31 (0.63)	0.104	−0.37 (−1.12 to 0.38)
People die every day because of mistakes by the health care system.	3.85 (1.07)	3.69 (0.85)	−0.15 (0.90)	0.55	−0.15 (−0.90 to 0.59)
When they take my blood, they do tests they don't tell me about.	2.62 (1.19)	2.31 (0.95)	−0.31 (1.18)	0.37	−0.28 (−1.02 to 0.47)
If a mistake were made in my health care, the health care system would try to hide it from me.	2.69 (1.03)	3.38 (1.04)	0.69 (1.11)	0.040	0.65 (−0.12 to 1.41)
People can get access to my medical records without my approval.	2.54 (0.97)	2.85 (1.07)	0.31 (1.25)	0.393	0.29 (−0.45 to 1.04)
The health care system cares more about holding costs down than it does about doing what is needed for my health.	3.15 (0.99)	3.38 (1.19)	0.23 (1.30)	0.535	0.20 (−0.54 to 0.95)
I receive high-quality medical care from the health care system.	3.62 (1.12)	3.77 (0.97)	0.15 (0.99)	0.585	0.14 (−0.60 to 0.89)
The health care system puts my medical needs above all other considerations when treating my medical problems.	3.31 (1.11)	2.85 (0.99)	−0.46 (1.05)	0.139	−0.43 (−1.18 to 0.33)
Some medicines have things in them that they don't tell you about.	2.62 (1.33)	2.77 (1.17)	0.15 (1.21)	0.656	0.12 (−0.63 to 0.86)
Research Engagement Survey Tool^b					
The focus is on problems important to the community.	4.69 (0.63)	4.76 (0.60)	0.08 (0.95)	0.776	0.12 (−0.87)
All partners assist in establishing roles and related responsibilities for the partnership.	4.53 (0.77)	4.53 (0.88)	0 (1.08)	1.000	0 (−0.74 to 0.74)
Community-engaged activities are continued until the goals (as agreed upon by all partners) are achieved.	4.38 (0.87)	4.38 (0.77)	0 (0.71)	1.000	0 (−0.74 to 0.74)
The partnership adds value to the work of all partners.	4.69 (0.48)	4.61 (0.77)	−0.08 (0.76)	0.721	−0.12 (−0.86 to 0.63)
The team builds on strengths and resources within the community or patient population.	4.62 (0.51)	4.62 (0.65)	0 (0.71)	1.000	0 (−0.74 to 0.74)
All partners' ideas are treated with openness and respect.	4.54 (0.66)	4.69 (0.63)	0.15 (0.80)	0.502	0.23 (−0.52 to 0.98)
All partners agree on the timeline for making shared decisions about the project.	4.46 (0.78)	4.54 (0.78)	0.08 (0.49)	0.585	0.10 (−0.65 to 0.84)
The partnership's processes support trust among all partners.	4.62 (0.65)	4.69 (0.63)	0.07 (0.95)	0.776	0.12 (−0.63 to 0.86)
Mutual respect exists among all partners.	4.54 (0.66)	4.54 (0.88)	0 (1.00)	1.000	0 (−0.74 to 0.74)
Quality of Patient-Centered Outcomes Research^c					
I had a clear understanding of the purpose of the study.	78.6 (26.27)	82.92 (26.44)	4.31 (15.00)	0.321	0.16 (−0.59 to 0.90)
I felt listened to.	76.54 (26.98)	85.62 (28.81)	9.08 (26.90)	0.247	0.31 (−0.44 to 1.06)

Characteristics	Prechange mean (SD)	Postchange mean (SD)	Mean difference SD	P value	Effect size (95% CI) ^a
I felt prepared to be an equal partner in the research study.	80.77 (24.17)	84.62 (21.43)	3.85 (16.26)	0.411	0.16 (−0.58 to 0.91)
Researchers were knowledgeable about people like me or were willing to learn about people like me.	81.77 (21.60)	86.69 (20.38)	4.92 (24.28)	0.479	0.23 (−0.52 to 0.97)
I believe that I had choices in how I could be part of the research study.	80.38 (24.10)	83.93 (28.50)	3.54 (28.98)	0.668	0.13 (−0.62 to 0.87)
I feel prepared to be an equal partner in the research study.	80.92 (25.28)	84.62 (26.26)	3.69 (21.65)	0.550	0.14 (−0.60 to 0.88)
I feel accepted by all members of the research study team.	80.31 (24.30)	85.85 (26.87)	5.54 (24.65)	0.434	0.21 (−0.54 to 0.95)
Researchers used language that was consistent with my values and culture.	77.69 (27.64)	84.77 (26.31)	7.08 (24.52)	0.319	0.25 (−0.50 to 1.00)
Both community members and researchers are thinking of ways we can continue to work together in the future.	75.00 (27.49)	89.23 (18.58)	14.23 (29.62)	0.109	0.59 (−0.18 to 1.34)
I felt comfortable engaging with the members of the research study team.	77.15 (27.36)	91.00 (15.36)	13.85 (22.85)	0.049	0.60 (−0.17 to 1.36)
I felt my views were incorporated into the research study.	79.92 (27.89)	85.31 (26.07)	5.38 (18.71)	0.320	0.19 (−0.56 to 0.94)

^aHedges *g* was used to calculate effect size (due to the small sample size).

^bOn a 5-point Likert scale.

^cOn a 10-point scale.

Discussion

Principal Findings

The purpose of this study was to assess the feasibility, acceptability, and preliminary effectiveness of remote training on community-based participatory research. The Partnership Academy was found to be feasible and acceptable. Improvements were found in research engagement and the quality of the partnership. A marked increase in distrust in the medical system was also found. Three months after the Partnership Academy training, the trainees submitted 4 grant applications and published 1 peer reviewed research article.

Feasibility and acceptability by service users, peer support specialists, caregivers of people with mental health challenges, and scientists were demonstrated through their capacity to attend and participate in the Partnership Academy. With the geographically dispersed community of the Partnership Academy, an in-person meeting might not be feasible for all partners and could invoke disproportionate travel expenses. Remote training allowed partners from all parts of the United States to meet and work together while avoiding travel, accommodation, and facility rental expenses. Further, all aspects of the remote training were aligned with the Americans with Disability Act requirements. For example, patients with cognitive impairments may have difficulty using Zoom due to challenges related to motion sensitivity. As such, there was no requirement to use the video feature.

The Partnership Academy was found to be potentially effective in promoting research engagement. Greater alignment of partner

priorities and researchers' objectives facilitates greater engagement in all parts of the research process, from study conceptualization to knowledge mobilization, ultimately increasing the likelihood of an intervention's success [14]. This shift goes beyond a paradigm where research functions as a one-way conversation, to one in which active community participation has facilitated and enabled greater integration and engagement of partners and researchers alike [15]. The model of the Partnership Academy exemplifies these concepts and practically implements their use, providing evidence for the potential effectiveness of this approach in prospective research projects. Other trainings are available, such as the Community-based Participatory Research Academy [16] and Patient-Centered Outcomes Research Institute's Research Fundamentals: Preparing You to Successfully Contribute to Research; however, they have not been designed for the unique needs of people with SMIs.

A marked increase in distrust in the medical system was also found. There are a few possible explanations for an increase in distrust in a medical system, in particular concerns for medical errors. First, it is possible that increased awareness from the conversations during the training led to further entrenchment in previously held beliefs. Second, it is possible that during the 2-day training, the roundtable participants heard not only more negative stories about the medical errors but also negative stories from fellow roundtable members who were deemed "credible" as scientists, expressing their concern with medical errors. Integrating qualitative data collection in future roundtable events may elicit new knowledge regarding perceptions of mistrust among participants.

Limitations

Due to the nature of the study and the study design, there are inherent limitations. There are additional limitations surrounding the study design and analysis of data. Due to the small sample size, we could not stratify participants by demographic characteristics or differing experiences with different SMIs. It is unknown if different participants with different diagnoses, or researchers who engaged in diagnosis-specific research had different program evaluations. Additionally, due to the Likert-scale measurements, understanding the true magnitude of the effect is limited to categorical shifts and not continuous measurement changes. Moreover, Likert questions open the study up to potential acquiescence bias due to participants' potential to overly agree with statements (in comparison to their actual feelings). Due to the sampling methodology used, those selected for participation in the roundtable were those who were actively engaged in the health care system or research, and these findings may not apply to the population with SMI. Lastly, less than 25% of the study population represents racial minorities or those with lower levels of education. Future studies should make an effort to recruit a more diverse group of participants.

Conclusions

This pre- and postpilot study demonstrated the possibility of training groups of service users, peer support specialists, caregivers of people with mental health challenges, and scientists

in community-based participatory research. These findings provide preliminary evidence that a 3-month remote training on community-based participatory research ("Partnership Academy") is feasible and acceptable and potentially associated with improvements in research engagement as well as the quality of partnership and output, including coproduced grant applications and peer-reviewed manuscripts.

Addressing the multifaceted health needs as well as the mental and behavioral health needs of diverse individuals, families, and communities in the United States is a complex issue that warrants attention from clinicians, researchers, scientists, public health professionals, and policy makers. The use of a community-based participatory framework supports the notion of implementing innovative approaches to help address health and mental health disparities. Moreover, our study reinforces key tenets of values delineated through inventive collaborations and partnerships that may be promising. In particular, our engagement and training efforts suggest the significance of (1) building trust and relationships, (2) establishing a shared purpose and vision for the achievement of goals, (3) engendering transparency and effective communication, and (4) performing continuous quality improvement or process and outcome evaluation where appropriate. Advancing health equity requires multidimensional, multisectoral, and interdisciplinary approaches to adequately address the needs of ethically and culturally diverse populations.

Conflicts of Interest

KF receives funding from Social Wellness and partners with Emissary Health, Inc. The other authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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Abbreviations

PCOR: patient-centered outcomes research

QPCOR: Quality of Patient-Centered Outcomes Research Partnerships Instrument

REST: Research Engagement Survey Tool

SMI: serious mental illness

Edited by M Hudson; submitted 03.05.23; peer-reviewed by H Traino, A Higaki, V Girishan Prabhu; comments to author 16.06.23; revised version received 22.09.23; accepted 19.11.23; published 01.03.24.

Please cite as:

Fortuna K, Bohm A, Lebby S, Holden K, Agic B, Cosco TD, Walker R

Examining the Feasibility, Acceptability, and Effectiveness of Remote Training on Community-Based Participatory Research: Single-Arm Pre-Post Pilot Study

J Particip Med 2024;16:e48707

URL: <https://jopm.jmir.org/2024/1/e48707>

doi: [10.2196/48707](https://doi.org/10.2196/48707)

PMID: [38427414](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/38427414/)

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Original Paper

Tracking the Development of Community Engagement Over Time: Realist Qualitative Study

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Abstract

Background: A growing interest in engaging communities in the development of health care services and communities has not automatically led to progress or consensus as to how to engage communities successfully, despite the evidence base showing how to leverage enablers and alleviate barriers.

Objective: To bridge the gap between the evidence base and which community engagement (CE) approaches have actually been applied in practice over time, this study aims to investigate how CE approaches have changed over the past 4 years in 6 different regions in the Netherlands and citizens' and professionals' experiences underlying these changes.

Methods: For the last stage of a multiple case study following the development of CE approaches in 6 different regions in the Netherlands, a realist qualitative case study was conducted. To investigate how CE approaches had changed over the past 4 years, data from the entire 4 years of the study were used, including documents, interview transcripts, and observations. To examine citizens' and professionals' experiences underlying these changes, new interviews were conducted. The latest interview results were discussed with a panel to ensure the results had face validity.

Results: The regions had implemented different types of CE approaches over the past 4 years and were adapting these approaches over time. Many of the (remaining) approaches may be operating on a smaller scale. The study identified the following overarching themes along which CE had been adapted: fewer region-wide approaches and more community-focused approaches, more focus on building relationships with (already engaged) citizens and community-led initiatives, and more focus on practical and tangible health promotion and social cohesion activities and less focus on complex "abstract" programs. The study identified a further 4 overarching themes highlighting citizens' and professionals' experiences underlying these changes in the CE approaches: a lack of engagement environment, need for facilitative leadership from organizations, need for a clear and shared vision underscoring the importance of CE, and misalignment between citizens' and professionals' perspectives and motivations for CE. All participants had experienced the engagement environment as insufficient. To support CE, professionals experienced the need to develop and receive more facilitative leadership and to develop approaches better equipped to involve citizens in the decision-making process. Citizens experienced the need to better align citizens' and professionals' motivations and aims for CE approaches and to receive longer-term financial support for their community-led initiatives.

Conclusions: This study suggests that CE has not yet been embedded within organizational cultures. This has arguably meant that the (remaining) CE approaches are operating on a smaller scale. To enable the further development of CE approaches, an investment in the engagement environment and a shared vision is required. Only then could CE within the regions move beyond the more seemingly smaller-scale CE approaches.

(*J Particip Med* 2024;16:e47500) doi:[10.2196/47500](https://doi.org/10.2196/47500)

KEYWORDS

community engagement; citizen involvement; health care; decentralization; realist evaluation

Introduction

Background

Over the past few decades, public sector organizations have increasingly been trying to engage citizens in shaping and improving health care services, neighborhoods, and healthy living environments [1,2]. The idea behind community engagement (CE) is that through citizens' involvement services and policies will better reflect communities' experiences and better address their needs [3-7]. The aim of CE approaches is to involve citizens in the decision-making, planning, designing, governance, or delivery of services and policies. CE approaches can range from consultation where citizens have limited power to influence decision-making to partnership and (shared) leadership, where citizens have decision-making control [1,8,9]. The approaches can take many different forms, including citizen advisory panels, citizen budgetary forums, peer service delivery, and community-led initiatives [1].

However, as Beresford [10] noted, this increasing and widespread interest in involving communities in the development and improvement of health care services and living environments does not automatically mean progress or consensus as to how to do so meaningfully and successfully for either organizations or communities. Previous literature hints at the barriers that have hindered this progress toward CE over the past few years. For example, Cook and Kothari [11] argued that many participatory processes are often undertaken uncritically based on the perceived wisdom of the overwhelming benefits of CE. However, these formulaic approaches often impose the views, objectives, and aims of organizations onto communities, resulting in benefits that primarily serve the organizations themselves, or, more commonly, fail to deliver benefits to either organizations or communities. Previous literature has described other important factors driving this lack of progress, such as power imbalances between organizations and communities, engaged citizens' limited credibility according to professionals, communities' lack of influence in decision-making processes, misaligned interests between organizations and between organizations and communities, or a lack of a clear and shared vision for CE [5,10,12-14].

Despite the wealth of previous literature identifying important barriers and enablers to the progress of CE, health and care organizations are still searching for how to implement their own successful CE approaches and largely have not yet taken the required steps to leverage these identified enablers [14] or improved the engagement environment sufficiently [14]. Moreover, previous literature has not investigated how CE has

developed over time. Because of this gap between the evidence base and how the implementation process of CE approaches over time is actually experienced in practice, this study examined how CE developed during the course of 4 years in practice. To provide insight into the development of CE in the Netherlands, we conducted a 4-year multiple case study investigating how 6 different regions are developing and implementing their own CE approaches. The initial phase of the study involved conducting an international rapid realist review to identify the barriers and enablers for engaging communities. This review resulted in the development of 8 guiding principles for the successful implementation of CE [13]. Subsequently, these principles were tested in practice through various case studies, leading to the identification of a ninth guiding principle [13-16].

Objective

Building on the previous stages by using the guiding principles as program theories, this paper describes the final stage of the study. This final case study aims to investigate how CE has changed over the past 4 years in the 6 regions and to examine citizens' and professionals' experiences underlying these changes. This paper explored the following research questions:

1. What CE approaches have been applied, and how have these approaches changed over the past 4 years?
2. What are citizens' and professionals' experiences underlying the changes in CE approaches? What are the contextual factors and mechanisms explaining these experiences?

Methods

Overview

This paper presents the last stage of this multiple case study (T4). This final stage examined how CE approaches have changed over the past 4 years and what citizens' and professionals' experiences were underlying these changes. The study was informed by the realist evaluation (RE) approach. The RE approach seeks to explain the causal relationship between contexts, mechanisms, and outcomes in particular programs of interest [17]. In this way, the study sought to understand the causation behind the changes in CE approaches and to understand which (enabling and constraining) mechanisms were triggered within the (changing) contexts of the 6 regions and how these influenced citizens' and professionals' experiences of developing CE (Textbox 1 [13], [14], [18]; Multimedia Appendix 1).

Textbox 1. Community engagement-oriented definitions of realist concepts [13,14,18].

Intervention

This refers to interventions' implemented activities, strategies, and resources [19], for example, citizen advisory panel meetings or neighborhood organized workshops.

Context

This pertains to the backdrop of an intervention and includes the preexisting organizational structures, cultural norm of the community, the nature and scope of preexisting networks, and geographic location effects [20-22].

Mechanism

This refers to what "triggers" participants to want to participate or not in an intervention. "Mechanism" does not refer to the intentional resources offered or strategies implemented within an intervention. Mechanisms usually relate to cognitive, emotional, and behavioral responses to intervention resources or strategies [20]. Mechanisms are usually hidden, sensitive to variations in context, and generate outcomes [23], for example, citizens feeling more empowered because of learning opportunities.

Outcome

Refers to intended, unintended, or expected intervention outcomes [20], for example, sustainability, quality, and integration of services (macro); citizens' level of involvement in health and care services (eg, in designing policies; meso); and citizens' health and well-being outcomes (micro).

Context-mechanism-outcome (CMO)

To understand how certain contextual factors shape or trigger the mechanism, causal links are expressed through "context-mechanism-outcome configurations." Formulating and refining CMOs is largely how researchers analyze data in realist evaluation as it allows a deeper understanding of which (aspects of) interventions work, for whom, under which circumstances, and to what extent [24]. CMOs are also used to generate or refine program theories, which in turn help shape the final product of an evaluation (eg, recommendations). CMOs are also used to generate or refine program theories.

For this 4-year multiple case study, 6 different regions within the Netherlands were chosen as the research sites ([Multimedia Appendix 2](#)). The different contextual factors and the different CE approaches within the regions helped to compare and contrast citizens' and professionals' experiences accordingly. For the first research question regarding what CE approaches have been applied and how the approaches have changed over the past 4 years, data from the entire 4-year multiple case study were used. Data sources to answer the first research question included (strategy) documents, completed observation templates (based on stakeholders' meetings, workshops, and activities), transcripts of (group) interviews with stakeholders, and reference panel workshop discussions [13-16]. For the second research question, which focuses on understanding the experiences of both citizens and professionals that underlie changes in CE approaches, only the most recent round of data collection (T4) was used. Data sources for this last data collection round included (new strategy) documents, (new) interviews with stakeholders, and the last reference panel workshop (T4).

Recruitment and Study Sample

The last data collection round was first based on interviews with professionals (n=7; this included policy makers, project managers, local councilors, and health care professionals) and

with citizens involved in organizationally led projects and community-led initiatives (3) in the 6 different regions in the Netherlands (T4; [Table 1](#); [Multimedia Appendix 2](#)). For this study, purposive sampling [25] was used to ensure different professionals and citizens from each of the 6 regions were included in the sample. As much as possible, the same citizen and professional participants as in the previous stages of the 4-year multiple case study were approached and interviewed, thus hoping to enable a better view of how participants' experiences had developed over the years. Professionals and citizens were recruited through the reference panel members' networks. Almost all approached participants agreed to take part in video or telephone interviews and had signed consent forms, except for participants in region B who only agreed to take part in the reference panel. Ultimately, a total of 10 interviews (1 dyad with a local councilor and a project manager), each lasting approximately 1.5 hours were conducted. Unfortunately owing to the COVID-19 pandemic, researchers were prevented from meeting participants face-to-face and interviews could only be conducted remotely through video or telephone calls. Interviews were conducted until the authors agreed the point of data saturation was reached or when no new themes emerged and when there was a high rate of recurrence of responses [26].

Table 1. Description of the regions and sample size [14].

Region	Region description	Sample size at this stage of the study (T4)
A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rural region made up of several smaller municipalities, struggling with aging population and economic decline (number of residents=106,500) Expected average age at birth and expected average age in good health were 80.9-81.6 years and 47.9 years Socioeconomic status variable according to different neighborhoods with pockets of deprivation and more affluent areas Quality of life in neighborhoods varied accordingly. Region with declining and aging population 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 interview with policy maker 1 interview with engaged citizen 1 (different) policy maker involved in the reference panel
B	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Region with a mix of rural and urban areas, with significant health disparities (number of residents=270,000) Expected age at birth and expected average age in good health 78.2 to 79.6 years and 45.2 years Socioeconomic status variable according to different neighborhoods but included more deprived neighborhoods due to the traditional industry in the area having been closed down Quality of life varied accordingly 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2 patient and public involvement professionals engaged in reference panel (not interview)
C	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rural municipality with 13 different villages with favorable unemployment and welfare support rates compared to the national average (number of residents=27,500). Expected average age at birth and expected age in good health 82.0 to 48.7 years Socioeconomic status higher than the national average Quality of life higher than the national average 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2 interviews with 2 policy makers
D	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Region with a mix of rural and urban areas, with significant health disparities and less favorable unemployment and welfare support rates compared to the national average (number of residents=27.500) Expected average age at birth and expected average age in good health 80.5 to 84.7 years and 45.2 to 47.1 years Socioeconomic status variable according to different neighborhoods but includes more deprived neighborhoods due to the traditional industry in the area having been closed down Quality of life varied accordingly but has an aging population 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 interview with a professional 2 citizens engaged in the reference panel
E	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rural region made up of 4 municipalities with pockets of health disparities (number of residents=120,000). Expected average age at birth and expected average age in good health 80.4 to 82.0 years and 48.2 years Socioeconomic status higher than the national average but with pockets of significant deprivation (differences between the statuses) Quality of life on average higher than the national average 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 dyad interview with 1 policy maker and 1 project manager
F	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Suburban municipality with favorable unemployment and welfare support rates compared to the national average (number of residents=41,000) Expected average age at birth and expected average age in good health 81.3 years and 45.5 years Socioeconomic status in line with national average Quality of life in line with national average 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 interview with a public health professional 1 interview with an engaged citizen 1 interview with an engaged citizen Same citizens engaged in the reference panel

Reference Panel

The 4-year multiple case study was conducted in collaboration with a reference panel. The panel consisted of stakeholders involved in developing CE approaches within the 6 different regions, including policy makers; involved citizens; members of patient and public involvement organizations; and experts in the field of public health, health inequalities, and citizen participation. The panel, therefore, helped to ensure that the study addressed stakeholders’ questions regarding CE and addressed relevant gaps in the literature. For this data collection round (T4), the panel also helped with the sample selection and

recruitment process. Furthermore, the interview findings were discussed with the reference panel to further enrich the results and to ensure that the results had face validity. [Multimedia Appendix 2](#) highlights the participants (n=17) present during the workshop to whom the interview findings of this last study were presented.

For the final study (T4), participants were asked to draw up their own storyboards to reflect on the development of their own CE approaches during web-based or telephone interviews. Owing to the COVID-19 pandemic and to reduce the burden on participants, participants were given the option of drawing or writing on the web-based storyboard themselves or instructing

the researchers how to do it for them. The storyboards aimed to enable participants to reflect in a more participative and creative way on their experiences and perceptions regarding the development of CE more broadly. The storyboards highlighted not only the broader experiences but also specifically the enablers and barriers and the support needs going forward [27-29]. Participants were asked to consider the following three questions when drawing up their storyboards: (1) which successful steps they had taken with the development of CE and which enablers they had experienced, (2) which negative results they perceived during the development of CE and barriers they experienced, (3) how these enablers and barriers have changed their CE approaches going forward.

During the second part of the interview, participants were asked to consider their storyboard and imagine they had to advise someone else to successfully develop a CE project. They were asked to note their advice down on notecards. After this, participants were asked to cluster their advice into two groups: (1) what advice they already follow themselves and (2) what advice they struggle to implement themselves. By clustering current enablers and barriers in this way, and discussing the underlying reasons, the study aimed to highlight practical advice to enable stakeholders to implement their new CE approaches [27,28,30]. The interview data were collected between February and May 2020.

After the initial analysis of the interviews and the secondary data, the anonymized results were shared and discussed during a workshop with the reference panel (Multimedia Appendix 2). This further refined and enriched the results. The workshop was held in January 2021.

Finally, to supplement and triangulate the interview data, the authors conducted a document analysis from the field notes taken over the 4 years of study and from the regions' strategy documents.

Data Analysis

To help answer the first research question (regarding the changes in CE approaches), the authors re-examined previous interview transcripts, observation templates, and documents. The authors also classified the CE approaches at “the consultation level”—whereby citizens provide information to organizations, “the communication level”—whereby citizens receive information from organizations, or “the participation level”—whereby citizens are actively engaged in dialogue with organizations and are actively involved in the planning, implementation, or decision-making—of approaches as in line with the findings of the previous studies [14]. To answer the second research question (regarding citizens' and professionals' underlying experiences), the same researchers who had been involved during the entire 4 years of this study applied an inductive and deductive analysis approach to the last round of interviews (T4). Inductively, we searched for (1) changes in CE approaches; (2) citizens' and professionals' experiences in developing and implementing CE, including enablers and barriers; and (3) required support to further develop CE. After this open coding and analysis, the researchers also deductively applied the guiding principles within the coding structure and analysis approach. These guiding principles are as follows: (1)

ensure staff provide supportive and facilitative leadership to citizens; (2) foster a safe and trusting environment enabling citizens to provide input; (3) ensure citizens' early involvement; (4) share decision-making and governance control with citizens; (5) acknowledge and address citizens' experiences of power imbalances between citizens and professionals; (6) invest in citizens who feel they lack the skills and confidence to engage; (7) create quick and tangible wins; (8) consider both citizens' and organizations' motivations; and (9) develop a shared vision with clear roles for professionals and citizens, ensuring communities' diversity is reflected within the vision [13,14].

To examine how CE has been developed and changed over the past 4 years and what citizens' and professionals' experiences were underlying these changes in 6 different regions in the Netherlands, the authors constructed context-mechanism-outcome (CMO) configurations within each interview transcript to examine the contextual factors and mechanisms underlying these changes and to investigate participants' experiences. Interviews were thus coded and analyzed using CMOs, which were drafted and analyzed in MAXQDA (VERBI GmbH) by EdW, and discussed by all authors. To aid authors during the data analysis process and to ensure consistency and transparency, the authors applied the same CE-oriented definitions of “interventions,” “contexts,” “mechanisms,” and “outcomes” (Textbox 1). The clustering followed a sequential and iterative process that has been applied in previous studies and described elsewhere [13,14]. CMOs were coded and clustered into (1) changes in CE approaches over the past 4 years, (2) participants' experiences (including enablers and barriers), and (3) required support to further develop and implement CE. The authors discussed the clusters and thematically analyzed, reviewed, and discussed them again. The final draft of the clustered CMOs was shared with all authors to confirm and refine the themes (Multimedia Appendix 3). Afterward, for the deductive analysis, the transcripts and the CMOs were coded and clustered according to the 9 guiding principles.

Ethical Considerations

The study received ethics approval from Tilburg University (reference EC-2017.96). All participants were provided with information letters concerning the study and had time to ask any questions they may have had. It was also made clear that participation was completely voluntary. Afterward, all participants signed forms stating their consent to participate. This is in accordance with Dutch national guidelines.

Results

Overview

The following section will first describe how CE approaches have changed over the past 4 years (Table 2). The study indicates that there are 3 overarching themes regarding the changes in CE approaches. Theme 1: moving away from region-wide approaches to more community-focused approaches. Theme 2: more focus on building relationships with (already-engaged) citizens and community-led initiatives. Theme 3: more focus on practical and tangible health promotion and

social cohesion activities instead of on more complex “abstract” programs

Table 2. Cross-sectional summary of community engagement approaches over the past 4 years [14].

Region	Interview round 1: 2016-2017	Interview round 2: 2018-2019	Final interview round: 2020-2021
Region A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional web-based community platform highlighting the projects and meetings being organized by the regional health care board. • As part of the web-based community, hoped to develop “an instrument” to increase the region’s self-management capacity (not developed). • Consultation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional web-based community platform to create propositions and test these among citizens and health and care organizations. In this way, the regional health and care board hoped to learn key issues facing health and care organizations and the residents (eg, experiences, needs, projects, or meetings). • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional web-based community platform, supported by occasional physical meetings, to enable dialogue between residents, municipalities, health care professionals, clients, schools, and volunteer clubs (eg, sports clubs), businesses, and health and care organizations about how health and care services can become futureproof and maintain its quality and efficiency. Online community aimed at increasing social between engaged or interested residents, organizations, and other stakeholders of the regional health and care system. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consultation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional public health organization, commissioned on behalf of one of the region’s municipalities, conducted interviews and focus groups with residents to discuss their perceptions and experiences of what it is like to live in that municipality (completed). • Public health organization region A held informal dinner events with older residents to discuss their current and future health and care needs and the sort of local amenities they would like to have available in the municipality (completed). • Regional living room: supports organizations and residents to address urgent health and care issues in the region. “Living rooms” across the province have been set up for residents to investigate such issues together (ongoing but by different organization). • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional web-based community: online platform, which enabled all residents and professionals within the region to share and collect information regarding the region’s health care system. The platform also enabled residents to share their ideas of how future health and care services should take shape in the region (disbanded). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Municipality within the region had started a project to improve the living environment of 1 village with the aim of also contributing to the green energy transition in the municipality. The municipality together with the village council had set up the project (completed). • Municipality searching for ways to include citizens (especially older citizens) in the reconfiguration of health and care services within 1 municipality. To date, it had not found a way to involve citizens on the “participation level” (ongoing).

Region	Interview round 1: 2016-2017	Interview round 2: 2018-2019	Final interview round: 2020-2021
Region B	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developed guidelines or how-to guide to stimulate the engagement of the >65 years age group for specific neighborhood projects and development. Guideline was developed through interviews with residents aged >65 years in the region about their engagement experiences (completed). • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Looking for ways to leverage all the separate existing citizen representative bodies (eg, village councils, client councils, and church councils) that can be leveraged to increase citizen representation on the regional governance level. Currently, these approaches all operate separately from each other and on a more local level. • A retired surgeon and a representative of a regional PPIa organization were members of the regional health care governance board (surgeon no longer involved). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PPI^a organization freely distributed a magazine to all residents in the region and promoted healthy living and community engagement activities and projects (ongoing). • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “WeHelpen” web-based platform that enables residents to ask for and provide each other with informal help, from mowing each other’s grass to social visits and doing groceries for the less abled (ongoing). • A local resident and a representative of a regional PPI organization were members of the regional health care governance board (resident no longer taking part, PPI representative still present). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PPI organization “educated” citizens on self-management and the concept of positive health, for example, workshops and conferences (ongoing). • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PPI organization advised health and care organizations on how to involve patients and citizens in their projects (ongoing). • PPI organization provided training to patients on how to be involved (ongoing).
Region C	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using visualizations of broader health and care concept “positive health” to discuss and develop municipal-wide policies and projects with residents and using the visualization as a financial lever for change (only projects highlighting they contribute to the positive health of residents; ongoing). • Looking to develop jargon-free language to engage residents (ongoing). • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Looking for ways to engage children, young adults, and parents to help develop municipality’s youth care policies (ongoing). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Municipality professionals working to establish closer working relationships with residents, local sports clubs, and village council (ongoing). • Municipality was working to establish closer relationships with schools, parents, and students to engage them in the development and improvement of the municipality’s youth policy (ongoing). • Involved citizens in the development of integrated local health policy (completed). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consultation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Used interviews to gain insight into low-income residents’ experiences and needs regarding low-income support and thus to align low-income policies more to low-income residents’ needs (completed).
Region D			

Region	Interview round 1: 2016-2017	Interview round 2: 2018-2019	Final interview round: 2020-2021
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Looking for “tools” to increase citizens’ awareness regarding positive health and to engage citizens in projects regarding positive health (completed). • Took part in health care markets to raise awareness for healthy living lifestyles (completed). • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Started their own nonmandatory client council with the idea that clients within the region can be involved in creating new projects and to share which aspects are important to their own positive health (disbanded). • Considering developing their own “Digipanel” to enable citizens to share their thoughts on policy developments (not developed). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consultation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conducted patient satisfaction surveys for general practices as part of a new quality improvement system whereby practices will be monitored as to whether they are implementing measures to improve areas highlighted in the survey (in an attempt to make general practices more accountable to the patients; completed and considering running again). • Community-led initiative kicked-off with passing around a “village diary.” The volunteers went door-to-door with the diary to ask their neighbors to write something about their village, for example, what they liked about the village and what local amenities they felt were missing. Volunteers then used the diary as the foundation for the community-led initiative (completed). • Communication level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Workshops for residents with the aim of promoting “positive health” (ongoing). • With the aim of setting up better working relationships between a local municipality and the community-led initiatives, a PPI and citizen representative organization held separate workshops with the municipality and with the initiatives to gain insight into how to improve their collaboration. At the end of the learning program, the organization was hoping to have 1 joined workshop (completed). • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Primary care group’s client council (disbanded). • A community-led village initiative was set up when the village’s only general practitioner retired. The community-led initiative, had at the time of interviewing, set up a multidisciplinary medical center, a free library and reading nook, a shared neighborhood-allotment, social activities and evenings, and were working to expand the center’s remit. • Resident village support worker who maintained close links within their own communities and ensured that the health, care, and living needs of their neighbors were being addressed (whenever possible by village residents themselves and otherwise, the village support worker ensured appropriate support from the municipality was made available; ongoing). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community-led initiative continued to grow and looked to keep promoting social cohesion and social activities. They especially looked to keep this going during the COVID-19 crisis. Also looking to take on a commissioning role for certain health and care services. • Resident village support worker continued his linking pin role, especially during the COVID-19 crisis.

Region	Interview round 1: 2016-2017	Interview round 2: 2018-2019	Final interview round: 2020-2021
Region E	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Several municipalities had conducted a “health scan” with residents to investigate and discuss what key issues they were facing (completed). • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The biggest insurance companies, local municipalities, and health and care providers had set up a Policyholder Cooperation to ensure policyholders could have a say in which services should be included within the insurance package and could help shape the local health care system. They wanted to provide all policyholders to be able to vote on important decisions and were looking to recruit policyholders to be on the board. • Residents within some of the villages had created some groups to raise awareness for healthy living lifestyles (eg, through walking groups, setting up social meetings, and running events). Municipality is looking for ways to support these groups (ongoing). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Annual policyholder events and workshops promoting positive health (disbanded) • Local municipalities were establishing closer relationships with community-led initiatives and sports clubs with the aim of improving children’s and young people’s health (ongoing) • A “Self-care for me” website, which enabled local residents to score their own health. The local municipalities were hoping to get local businesses involved to set up “fun challenges” improving residents’ health (ongoing). • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The biggest insurance companies, local municipalities, and health and care providers had set up a Policyholder Cooperation to ensure policyholders could have a say in which services should be included within the insurance package and could help shape the local health care system (disbanded). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Looking to implement 1 contact person at municipalities for community-led initiatives.
Region F	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Project initiated by regional public health organization to support low-income families. Parents from these families are involved in the projects highlighting important priorities and activities. Parents are also involved in the implementation of activities (completed). • Community-led initiative set up to promote the positive health in the community by organizing health promotion activities (eg, benches along walking paths; ongoing). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community-led initiative that designs and implements health promotion projects, activities, and workshops (eg, implementing benches along walking paths, workshops regarding positive health, and developing health promotion apps; nearly disbanded, but continued). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community-led initiative continued but with different citizens involved at the governance level. In addition, the community-led initiative was also being supported by a public health professional (ongoing).

^aPPI: patient and public involvement.

Following on, the paper will also examine participants’ underlying experiences throughout the CE process (including enabling and constraining experiences and support needs to further develop CE). The study indicated another 4 overarching themes related to these experiences:

- Theme 4: lack of investment in the engagement environment
- Theme 5: need for facilitative leadership
- Theme 6: need for a clear and shared vision underscoring the importance of CE
- Theme 7: misalignment between citizens’ and professionals’ perspectives and motivations for CE

Throughout this section, examples of CMOs will underpin the results, and further CMO examples can be found in [Multimedia Appendix 3](#).

Changes in Applied CE Approaches

Overview

Within all 6 regions, there had been changes within both the organizationally led CE projects and community-led initiatives. [Table 2](#) shows a summary of CE approaches that have been implemented over the past 4 years within the 6 regions to improve communities’ health and well-being and to improve

the health and care systems. This summary is not an exhaustive list, and the final column is focused on newly implemented CE approaches compared to previous years. [Table 2](#) highlights that after 4 years, most approaches and underlying activities could still be classified at the “consultation,” or “communication” level and that some “participation level” approaches within the regions had been disbanded (ie, the web-based community platform in region A, the client council in region D, and the policyholder cooperation in region E). Furthermore, although this list is not exhaustive, the results as shown in [Table 2](#) seem to underscore that the implementation of CE in the regions is in development and that most CE initiatives are now small scale. Though some of the regions were trying to address this, for example, the patient and public involvement organization in region B had been trying to embed CE within organizational cultures through training, and the organization in region A had been trying to build relationships with engaged citizens.

Theme 1: From Regional Focus to Community Focus

[Table 2](#) also highlights that the 6 regions have adapted their CE approaches over the past 4 years. First, some regions had shifted their CE approaches from having a more regional focus to a community-based focus. For example, the policyholder cooperation in region E had been disbanded as its focus on complicated, regional issues such as the regional economy and the viability of the hospital was seen as too far removed from “average” citizens’ lived experiences. That is why, at the time of interviewing, the regional board was looking for ways to take a more community-focused approach by involving and facilitating citizens in practical health promotion activities aimed at improving the health and social cohesion of communities, thus hoping to connect more with the lived experiences of citizens and communities.

Theme 2: Building Relationships With (Already Engaged) Citizens

Second, and likely relatedly, some regions were trying to change their CE approaches to focus more on building relationships with communities and engaged citizens. For example, policy makers in region A have noticed a slow shift in mindset within municipalities. Where originally municipalities thought they knew what was best for communities, policy makers (through positive experiences of involving citizens in developing and renewing social spaces) are seeing the benefit of building relationships with (engaged) citizens and communities and involving citizens in the design phases of projects, instead of presenting finalized plans to citizens.

Theme 3: Shift to More Practical and Tangible Projects

Third, and again likely relatedly, most of the regions have started focusing more on practical, tangible CE projects with activities aimed at improving the health and social cohesion of communities (eg, placing benches in parks to encourage older residents to go for walks, walking groups, and living library events; [Table 2](#)). For example, the citizens within the community-led initiative in region F had organized many smaller-scale practical projects and events as the tangible aspects of health promotion and social cohesion activities were seen as

more motivating than, for example, the development of a web-based app for individual use:

It's not for nothing that things [CE] start in the villages...It's got to do with the small scale that makes people want to self-organise and maybe it helps with the collaboration, it's]always easier with knowing people and after that maybe there's the right energy whereby people want to do stuff [get engaged/self-organise]. So that smaller scale, always has something to do with it. [Region F, policy maker, male]

Citizens' and Professionals' Experiences

Underlying the nature of changes in the CE approaches, as described in the previous section, were citizens' and professionals' experiences ([Multimedia Appendix 3](#)). Overall, citizens and professionals had experienced many of the previous approaches as too far removed from citizens' lived experiences to be successful and felt that further improvements were necessary to further develop CE.

Theme 4: Lack of Engagement Environment

First, and most prominently, both citizens and professionals had experienced a lack of investment in, and a need to improve, the engagement environment. This lack of investment prevented CE from being fully embedded within organizational cultures. Both citizens and professionals experienced the need for further investments, that is, in the form of resources and funding for activities and initiatives, staff with CE skills and know-how, and space and time to build relationships with a wider range of citizens and to innovate CE approaches ([Multimedia Appendix 3](#)). The study indicated that participants experienced the need for 2 different types of investment. The first type was a “softer,” more cultural type of investment. For example, in regions A and C, the organizational culture used to be that the municipalities decided everything, but because of laws such as the Participation Act (2015) and the Living Environment Act (2021), they have been forced to review the role citizens have (context). Furthermore, the newer generation of policy makers has been trained to see the value of CE and has experienced the positives of involving citizens in projects and policy making (context). Because of this, policy makers are increasingly seeing and believing the value of CE and at the same time experiencing that this belief is not supported by the wider municipality or their management (mechanism). They felt this slows down the cultural change required within organizations to enable successful CE approaches (outcome). At the same time, participants also described the more “tangible” types of investments required to enable the further development of CE approaches. For example, the community-led initiative in region F was able to organize health promotion and social cohesion activities successfully, despite the fact that organizations had not provided long-term financial support (context) and despite a drop in the number of volunteers (context). The volunteers experienced the organization of such activities as draining without support as it cost them a lot of time and energy (mechanism). This made it difficult for the community-led initiative to ensure they could keep organizing such activities in the long term (outcome). While one of the organizations in

region D highlighted the need to develop CE skills and know-how. For example, one of the organizations had applied for a subsidy to involve organizations from the cultural or creative sector to develop new and innovative ways to involve citizens within the Positive Health Network (context). Because when health and care organizations think about CE, they end up involving citizens in the traditional (more limited) way (mechanism). Unfortunately, the subsidy was rejected, which meant that the search for new innovative ways to involve citizens remains (outcome):

I think I've been lucky in certain ways, that our conservative local councillor left and a new councillor took his place. And that new councillor said to me: "why don't you just try something." If I'd still had a councillor who kept saying: "no, that's not how we do it." Then I wouldn't have had the space to involve the citizens like that. [Region A, policy maker, male]

My story, what are the blockades? I see that in the community and for the community-led initiative a lot of balloons [projects] are raised. Sometimes with a small pot of money. But when that pot of money is emptied, the balloons are popped. There's too little space for embedding things. [Region F, citizen, female]

Theme 5: Need for Facilitative Leadership From Organizations

Second, and relatedly, both citizens and professionals had experienced a lack of, and need to provide and receive, facilitative leadership. Furthermore, both citizens and professionals were also trying to develop new leadership. For example, the community-led initiative in region F was launched 5 years ago with a local health care professional in the lead but without a clear governance or leadership structure (context). Initially, 4 board members were selected but most were health care professionals within the community as well (and were thought to have vested interests removed from "regular citizens"; context). Citizens felt these members were unapproachable and the health care professional who had launched the initiative was not motivated to take up the leadership role in the long term (mechanism). This lack of clear leadership made it difficult for the engaged citizens to know what the decision-making process was or who to turn to with their project ideas (outcome). That is why when the members of the old governance board left, the new members (all citizens) decided to be approachable and discuss and align everyone's goals clearly. An example of how professionals were experiencing CE was expressed by policy makers in region C. The negative experiences of involving citizens when the municipality had already developed the plan meant they started searching for a new approach to CE (context). The new approach is based on sharing the problem and issues the municipality is trying to address with communities with the aim of improving the collaboration between engaged citizens and organizations (context). Sharing the problem fosters commitment among engaged citizens and organizations, motivating them to consider potential solutions (mechanism). Through this new, more facilitative approach, everyone

(municipality, engaged citizens, and organizations) has gained more understanding of each other (outcome):

I think you need leadership and guts, you have to be able to reach out to citizens and to show that you can let go [of control]. Several of our administrators find that difficult. They're used to being in charge and in control. But actually, here we say "don't be in charge or in control, but ask questions. Create and connect. That's a totally different way of providing leadership." [Region E, local councilor, male]

I think that you just have to talk to each other, what you want from the initiative, as professional and as volunteer. You have to create the atmosphere where such things can be talked about, and both sides have to listen...that requires that you make yourself vulnerable thus open to the ideas, suggestions and comments of others. [Region F, citizen, male]

Theme 6: Need for a Clear and Shared Vision Underscoring the Importance of CE

Third, both citizens and professionals continued to seek and emphasize the need for the implementation of a clear and shared vision underscoring the importance of CE. Policy makers in region A highlighted that old habits of policy makers of not sharing control with citizens die hard, especially as there is not a clear or shared vision for the relevance of CE within the municipality (context). The lack of shared vision has prevented policy makers from experiencing and seeing CE as part of their "day-to-day" business (mechanism). That is why the required culture change to embed CE activities within organizations and on a regional level successfully has taken a long time (outcome). Some policy makers speculated that this lack of CE vision is because municipalities only involve citizens (through the bare minimum effort) because national policies such as the Participation Act (2015) have dictated they do so, instead of CE being part of a wider belief in how policy making should also be based on CE. This need for a shared vision was also experienced by the community-led initiative in region F. The remaining volunteers and the support worker started looking for what their next steps and new aims should be after the old governance board had left and the initiative was nearly disbanded (context). As the community-led initiative had nearly collapsed, it created a sense of urgency and commitment with the remaining volunteers to continue the initiative (mechanism). At the same time, they experienced it as difficult to rise above the failings and negative experiences (to "let go off the old ballast"; mechanism). This meant that they had not yet succeeded in developing a new vision and that they were still searching for a vision that could act as the connecting thread for the initiative (outcome):

It's also about the colleagues...It matters how the process is handled and by who. There's quite a big differences in that. We don't have one clear view, vision or policy of "it's in this way that we do CE or CE is always important in this phase of a project." Of course CE is not a one-size-fits-all approach, but unknown makes unloved, I think. There's so many

people whereby CE is not part of the process. [Region A, policy maker, male]

Theme 7: Misalignment Between Citizens' and Professionals' Perspectives and Motivations for CE

Fourth, and related to the lack of a shared vision, citizens and professionals had experienced a misalignment between citizens' and professionals' perspectives and motivations for CE and thus had different experiences throughout the process of CE. Citizens and professionals had experienced this lack of alignment in both organizationally led CE approaches and community-led initiatives. The citizens stated that they felt that professionals were too outcomes focused. For example, the community-led initiative in region F was in transition and was searching for which aims and activities should be continued and taken up (context). Engaged citizens and professionals had differing goals and ambitions (context). Professionals were more outcome focused, which citizens felt like made the initiative aim too high (mechanism). Citizens meanwhile were engaged because of their intrinsic motivations and because they wanted to increase their social connection within the community (mechanism). Such differences in aims should be openly discussed (outcome). Professionals in region D speculated what was underlying this misalignment. With CE approaches, everyone (citizens, professionals, and volunteers) involved has their own language, interests, and scope (context). Citizens often think and operate "on a smaller," "community-based" level (context). Professionals become irritated because, from their perspectives and aims, they feel change is not happening fast enough (mechanism). The professionals felt this showed that motivations between citizens and professionals were not aligned and that resource investments (especially time and space) should be created to discuss these differences and to address the motivations and interests of citizens more specifically (outcome). This is comparable with citizens' experiences who had also underscored the importance of creating a transparent dialogue between citizens and professionals to align the motivations:

Differences in interests...You have to have a shared goal. [Region F, citizen, female]

Reference Panel Deliberations

Panel members recognized the findings and stated they had also found it easier to involve citizens with local approaches, which were more aligned with citizens' lived experiences. Furthermore, both citizens and professionals within the panel also underscored their search for new collaborative forms of working between citizens and organizations and how to best involve citizens in the decision-making process. For example, they were searching for ways to enable some citizens to be involved in the long term (mostly in governance structures) and at the same time allow other citizens to be involved in the short term (without too much investment of their time and effort). The panel also discussed important enablers to work toward these new ways of collaborative working for CE. For example, both citizens and professionals within the panel highlighted that one of the most important enablers was having leadership who can create support and garner interest for CE. The professionals particularly highlighted that such leadership would help to change the culture

within organizations, for example, ensuring citizens are not involved because this has been decreed top-down (eg, through the Participation Act 2015 and Living Environment Act 2021) but because there is a sincere belief and hope within the organization to ensure services and policies are better aligned to citizens' and communities' needs and experiences. They also underscored the significant importance of a clear vision and corresponding plan for CE, for example, who should be involved, when, where, and about which topics. Finally, both citizens and professionals within the panel stated the importance of long-term investments to properly embed CE within their organizations or their neighborhoods. Citizens especially underscored their need to have organizations (health and care organizations and local and regional governments) invest financially within their initiatives in the longer term, whereas professionals stated that they needed the time and space to be able to innovate CE—not merely through financial investments but by being given more time and space to involve citizens and to experiment with new CE approaches and activities.

Discussion

Principal Findings

Using the RE approach, this multiple case study investigated how CE approaches in 6 different Dutch regions have changed over the past 4 years. It also investigated citizens' and professionals' underlying experiences impacting these changes. The results have shown that CE approaches are changing from having a region-wide focus to a more community-based focus, to building relationships with engaged citizens, and to focusing more on practical health promotion activities (rather than "abstract" topics such as the redesign of regional hospitals). The results of this study also suggest that CE (including the underlying understanding of how to develop and implement CE successfully) still has not been embedded within organizational cultures. This has arguably meant that the remaining CE approaches seem to be operating on a smaller scale (instead of using a mix of smaller scale and more regional approaches; Table 2) and that professionals and citizens required further investments in the engagement environment, the need for facilitative leadership, and the need for a shared vision on how to act upon CE based on aligned motivations.

Deductively analyzing the results showed if and how the guiding principles [13,14] (described in the *Methods* section) were being considered and applied within the 6 regions. The guiding principle that professionals were particularly concerned with was principle 1, which pertained to leadership. Professionals were aware that they needed to develop their facilitative leadership toward citizens and also required more supportive leadership from their organizations to better embed CE within projects and organizations. Broadly speaking, although many of the interviewed professionals observed and believed in the benefits of CE, they felt that their management largely did not. They felt this prevented the proper embedding of CE within organizational cultures and also hindered them from involving citizens as early as possible (principle 3) and often prevented them from sharing decision-making control with citizens (principle 4). Furthermore, citizens within this study often

discussed the importance of open and transparent dialogue between citizens and professionals regarding their motivations and aims for CE approaches (principle 8). As Beresford [10] suggests, CE in health has been shaped by the political agendas of (national and local) politicians, policy makers, and professionals, and Willems [31] has shown that efficiency and effectiveness are important underlying CE aims for organizations, which has made it harder for organizations to deploy resources to improve and develop CE. Similar to previous studies, this study has shown that CE approaches (only) focused on organizational (regional and more abstract) aims largely failed to motivate citizens to become involved [11,13,14,32]. By openly discussing these aims and providing the space and leadership to communities to share their aims, CE approaches can hopefully better address citizens' aims as well.

Relatedly, an important principle that participants had recognized and experienced as an important barrier but had not yet actively invested in was principle 9 regarding the development of a shared vision for CE. This may well be related to the experienced lack of supportive leadership and dialogue (between citizens and professionals), as described above. For example, citizens highlighted the importance of articulating achievable goals and highlighted the importance of transparently discussing any differences in aims. While professionals had experienced a lack of time to formulate clear and achievable goals for CE projects—perhaps because management felt like CE has been forced upon them by national policies like the Participation Act (2015) and the Living Environment Act (2021) as some professionals within this study had theorized.

Relatedly, one of the reasons for this lack of transparent dialogue between citizens and professionals regarding a CE vision could be the fact that both citizens and professionals described a lack of investment in the engagement environment as an important barrier. Such findings are in line with previous studies, such as the study by Holley [14], which has shown that many current engagement environments are built for efficiency, rather than, for example, building relationships with not-yet engaged or harder-to-reach groups. Such an engagement environment often results in a loss of influence for citizens, especially those who are socioeconomically disadvantaged [14]. This finding is further underscored by the fact that very few of this study's participants had discussed experiences regarding the addressing of power imbalances (principle 5) or had discussed experiences regarding the need to develop safe and trusting environments for citizens to enable citizens' involvement (principle 2). This study's participants highlighted the importance of properly embedding CE, for example, by making CE a structural and routine part of projects and policy development; by providing citizens and professionals with the time and space to develop creative engagement approaches; by providing community-led initiatives with long-term financial support; and by helping professionals to develop CE skills and know-how, for example, by providing training and guidelines.

This lack of investment in the engagement environment, leadership, and shared vision (based on aligned citizens' and professionals' motivations) may well have led to organizations in the 6 regions choosing to shift from a regional approach to

a community-based focus and shifting their focus from more complex regional topics to more tangible projects, instead of trying to bolster and improve the original approaches (through such investments) and at the same time also build relationships with communities and supporting more tangible projects. Arguably the different types of CE approaches (ie, regional, focused on complex issues such as the reconfiguration of health care services, community-based and focused on building relationships with communities, and focused on health promotion activities) should be applied alongside each other. Building relationships with citizens will also help to ensure CE approaches are better aligned with citizens' lived experiences and motivations. Prior literature indicates that citizens exhibit diverse interests and preferences for involvement, ranging from engaging in practical activities and providing peer support to participating in policy-making processes to ensure that policies better reflect their lived experiences [32,33]. To enhance citizens' more active participation in the development and delivery of health and care services, an investment is required to develop various types of approaches beyond the currently defined roles [16,17].

Despite the fact that this study indicates a systemic lack of investment in CE, this study also offers hopeful signs. First, Table 2 only shows the CE approaches that have been implemented and does not show potentially positive underlying (cultural) changes. For example, 1 citizen in region A described that they felt more collaboration was taking place between organizations and client councils. Furthermore, professionals within this study suggest that newer policy makers and professionals have been trained to believe in the value of CE and want to investigate new and more collaborative ways of working with communities and citizens. Not only has this newer generation been trained to believe in citizens' and communities' rights to be involved but also their CE experiences (with more local approaches) have shown them the benefits of involving citizens, for example, ensuring that policies are more aligned with citizens' own experiences and needs [15]. Furthermore, this study's findings also indicate ways to improve the engagement environment and to further develop CE. CE should be supported by a flexible system rather than bureaucratic systems and processes, which should be underpinned by a variety of creative CE approaches, sufficient resources (ie, know-how, time, and finances), and an organizational culture that maintains CE as "business as usual" for all projects. These findings suggest that a new guiding principle should be formulated regarding the different ways in which a supportive engagement environment can be implemented. More research is required to properly formulate this new guiding principle, though the results of this study show that such a principle should underline 3 different but interrelated aspects of CE. A supportive engagement environment requires (1) structural investment, including staff with CE know-how and skills, finances, and time and space to develop creative CE approaches; (2) facilitative leadership within and for communities and organizations; and (3) a clear and shared CE vision (based on alignment of citizens' and professionals' motivations). There is a circularity to the 3 aspects that makes it harder for organizations to know where to start when (further) developing their CE approaches. For example, leadership and an investment of resources may be

required to create a shared vision for CE. However, a shared vision is also required to leverage sufficient resources and leadership at different levels within organizations and communities. Ultimately, this study suggests that without such investments, it will be challenging to fully integrate CE into organizational cultures and to transition CE from being perceived merely as a beneficial addition to health and care systems to being recognized as essential for enhancing transparency, accountability, equity, and person-centeredness within those systems.

Limitations

One limitation is the relatively small number of participants, especially engaged citizens, for the primary data source (T4). Unfortunately, the first COVID-19 wave may have prevented more participants, working and volunteering in the health and care system, from taking part. This limitation was mitigated by the fact that this study tracked the CE approaches being implemented for 4 years and by the reference panel's workshop discussions as this confirmed the validity and applicability of our interview findings in other contexts, thus further validating and enriching the interview findings. Another COVID-19-related limitation was the fact that interviews had to take place on the web or over the telephone; this prevented participants from fully reviewing their storyboards and areas for further development of CE.

Future Studies

This case study indicates the importance of a supportive engagement environment created by structural investments, including staff with know-how and skills, finances, and space to develop creative CE approaches; facilitative leadership within and for communities and organizations; and a clear and shared overarching vision for CE based on the alignment of citizens' and professionals' motivations. However, future studies are required to further unpack these aspects of CE and to highlight how to practically apply these aspects for the improvement of CE. For example, future studies could focus on how to create

a transparent dialogue between communities and organizations to align communities' and organizations' aims for CE. Future studies could also examine different (and more practical) ways in which the engagement environment can be improved and supported by organizational management and regional and national governments.

Conclusions

This study investigated how CE approaches had changed over the past 4 years in 6 different regions in the Netherlands. It examined citizens' and professionals' experiences underlying these changes, including the barriers, enablers, and support needs. The study showed three overarching themes along which CE had been adapted: (1) moving away from regional CE approaches; (2) focusing on building relationships with already-engaged citizens and communities; and (3) focusing on practical, tangible health promotion activities (instead of more complex "abstract" programs). Furthermore, participants had experienced (1) a lack of a supportive engagement environment, (2) a lack of facilitative leadership, (3) a lack of a shared vision for CE, and (4) a misalignment in citizens' and professionals' aims. The study suggests that citizens and professionals perceive and experience CE differently and that they have different priorities for CE. To enable and support the further development of CE approaches, both citizens and professionals experienced the need for investments in the engagement environment (eg, through more structural organizational support, time, and space to innovate and improve CE approaches and to embed CE within organizational cultures), for more facilitative leadership, the need to develop a shared vision, and the alignment of citizens' and professionals' motivations. Such investments and changes to organizational cultures, structures, and processes would enable organizations to be more open and sensitive to the different ways in which different citizens want to be involved. Without such further investments and leadership, CE will remain seemingly smaller scale and piecemeal, instead of being seen as crucial to restoring accountability and person-centeredness to health and care systems.

Data Availability

All data generated and analyzed during this study are included in the published article and supplementary information files. Templates used for data extraction and analysis are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Disclaimer

Consent for publication was obtained from all the study participants. Participants were provided with information letters and were also verbally informed of the fact that any information they shared would be treated completely confidentiality and anonymously (eg, without any person-identifiable information). This is in accordance with the Dutch national guidelines.

Authors' Contributions

EdW participated in conceptualization, methodology, formal analysis, investigation, writing the original draft, and reviewing and editing the final draft. HD participated in conceptualization, methodology, reviewing and editing the final draft, and supervision. KL participated in conceptualization and review and editing. CB participated in conceptualization, methodology, reviewing and editing the draft, supervision, and funding acquisition.

Conflicts of Interest

None declared.

Multimedia Appendix 1

Realist evaluation standard reporting form.

[\[DOCX File , 33 KB - jopm_v16i1e47500_app1.docx \]](#)

Multimedia Appendix 2

Reference panel participants' description.

[\[DOCX File , 27 KB - jopm_v16i1e47500_app2.docx \]](#)

Multimedia Appendix 3

Summary of the context-mechanism-outcomes underpinning themes.

[\[DOCX File , 56 KB - jopm_v16i1e47500_app3.docx \]](#)**References**

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Abbreviations

- CE:** community engagement
CMO: context-mechanism-outcome
RE: realist evaluation

Edited by M Hudson; submitted 22.03.23; peer-reviewed by AB Kennedy, N Mungoli; comments to author 07.05.23; revised version received 30.10.23; accepted 12.11.23; published 15.05.24.

Please cite as:

de Weger E, Drewes H, Luijkx K, Baan C

Tracking the Development of Community Engagement Over Time: Realist Qualitative Study

J Particip Med 2024;16:e47500

URL: <https://jopm.jmir.org/2024/1/e47500>

doi: [10.2196/47500](https://doi.org/10.2196/47500)

PMID: [38748458](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/38748458/)

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Original Paper

Suicide Prevention by Peers Offering Recovery Tactics (SUPPORT) for US Veterans With Serious Mental Illness: Community Engagement Approach

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Abstract

Background: Peer specialists are hired, trained, and accredited to share their lived experience of psychiatric illness to support other similar individuals through the recovery process. There are limited data on the role of peer specialists in suicide prevention, including their role in intervention development.

Objective: To better understand peer specialists within the Veterans Health Administration (VHA), we followed partnership community engagement and a formative research approach to intervention development to (1) identify barriers, facilitators, and perceptions of VHA peer specialists delivering a suicide prevention service and (2) develop and refine an intervention curriculum based on an evidence-informed preliminary intervention framework for veterans with serious mental illness (SMI).

Methods: Following the community engagement approach, VHA local and national peer support and mental health leaders, veterans with SMI, and veteran peer specialists met to develop a preliminary intervention framework. Next, VHA peer specialist advisors (n=5) and scientific advisors (n=6) participated in respective advisory boards and met every 2-4 months for more than 18 months via videoconferencing to address study objectives. The process used was a reflexive thematic analysis after each advisory board meeting.

Results: The themes discussed included (1) the desire for suicide prevention training for peer specialists, (2) determining the role of VHA peer specialists in suicide prevention, (3) integration of recovery themes in suicide prevention, and (4) difficulties using safety plans during a crisis. There were no discrepancies in thematic content between advisory boards. Advisor input led to the development of Suicide Prevention by Peers Offering Recovery Tactics (SUPPORT). SUPPORT includes training in general suicide prevention and a peer specialist-delivered intervention for veterans with SMI at an increased suicide risk. This training aims to increase the competence and confidence of peer specialists in suicide prevention and the intervention supports veterans with SMI at an increased suicide risk through their recovery process.

Conclusions: This paper intends to document the procedures taken in suicide prevention intervention development, specifically those led by peer specialists, and to be a source for future research developing and evaluating similar interventions.

Trial Registration: ClinicalTrials.gov NCT05537376; <https://classic.clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT05537376>

(*J Particip Med* 2024;16:e56204) doi:[10.2196/56204](https://doi.org/10.2196/56204)

KEYWORDS

suicide prevention; advisor; veterans; recovery; community; peer specialist; peer support; serious mental illness; participatory design; community engagement; lived experience

Introduction

Suicide prevention is the top priority for the US Department of Veterans Affairs (VA). The 2023 National Veteran Suicide Prevention Annual Report described increases in veteran suicides between 2020 and 2021 [1]. Moreover, certain groups remain at high risk for suicide. For example, veterans with serious mental illness (SMI, eg, psychosis and bipolar disorders) have more than twice the rate of suicide and death ideation compared with nonveterans with SMI [2] and higher suicide rates compared to the general US and veteran populations [3]. Among veterans who recently used Veterans Health Administration (VHA) services, veterans with bipolar disorder had increased rates of suicide deaths from 2001 to 2021 [1], while those with schizophrenia had increased rates from 2019 to 2020 [4] but an overall decrease in suicide deaths from 2001 to 2021 [1]. All these individuals interacted with the VHA. As such, the VHA may be an ideal space to intervene and prevent future suicides.

There may be a limit to impact and usefulness of current suicide prevention standards of care for those with SMI. In a review of trials with suicide outcomes, researchers found that 61.7% of all trials and 75% of psychotherapy trials *excluded* individuals based on psychosis [5]. Relatedly, those with SMI are difficult to engage in and retain in treatment [6], experience cognitive impairments [7-11], and have limited social supports [12-15]. Therefore, veterans with SMI are an important high-risk group to target for suicide prevention interventions tailored to their unique needs.

An overarching emphasis for psychosocial treatments for SMI in the VHA is “recovery,” a process of change in which individuals strive to build a fulfilling life regardless of challenges stemming from mental health conditions [16]. A vital aspect of the recovery model is the importance of peer support, a nonmanualized form of social support in which people with similar challenges (eg, psychiatric and substance use disorders) help one another by sharing information and perspectives, helping develop problem-solving skills, and serving as successful role models [17].

Peer specialists are individuals who are certified and trained to use their own lived mental health experiences to support others through the recovery process and are paid or unpaid employees of the mental health system [18]. In VHA, peer specialists must be veterans themselves, and the ~1400 currently employed VA-wide are considered a vital part of VHA mental health recovery services [19]. VHA peer specialists are available to work with veterans once they are connected to care and provide recovery-oriented support as an adjunctive service; peer specialists may also provide outreach to veterans not enrolled

in VHA. VHA peer specialists’ scope of practice includes modeling recovery and engendering hope, supporting active engagement in treatment, providing step-down recovery support, encouraging skill use, helping veterans advocate for themselves, and connecting veterans to VA and community resources [19]. Recent reviews of peer support services both in and out of VHA have documented a variety of positive outcomes for service users with SMI (eg, reduced inpatient use and improved recovery, hope, empowerment) [18,20], although some studies found little to no impact on outcomes [18,20,21]. Conclusions from these reviews highlight the need for increased methodological rigor in studies including peers.

Peer specialists are a potentially promising but untested adjunct to clinician-delivered suicide prevention. A recent review of peer specialist-based suicide prevention approaches concluded that they are feasible, including no major negative effects [22]. Peer specialists can address hopelessness, shame, burdensomeness, and social isolation, all psychosocial factors associated with suicide risk according to the interpersonal theory of suicide [23]. VHA peer specialists can screen for suicide but are not permitted to conduct comprehensive risk assessments. Furthermore, in VHA, peer specialists are already often working with individuals at high risk for suicide [24]. For example, data from a recent review of all services provided by all VHA peer specialists showed that 8% of the veterans they work with had a “high-risk suicide flag” on their medical record [25]. Qualitative data from peer specialists and clinicians working in a civilian suicide aftercare program indicate that peer specialists positively value working in suicide prevention [26]. Therefore, there is a need to improve the methodological rigor of peer support for SMI as well as systematically develop peer-delivered interventions to decrease suicide risk.

To create a peer-delivered suicide prevention intervention, we applied a formative research approach to intervention development [27]. The primary focus was including veteran peer specialists’ input to allow for equal decision-making with academic researchers in the intervention development [28,29]. We focused on potential role challenges that VHA peer specialists may experience in suicide prevention, including the recovery model of mental health and the intersection with other suicide prevention best practices. In this paper, we describe the results of a series of advisory meetings with the aims to (1) identify barriers, facilitators, and perceptions of VHA peer specialists delivering a suicide prevention service and (2) develop and refine an intervention curriculum based on an evidence-informed preliminary intervention framework.

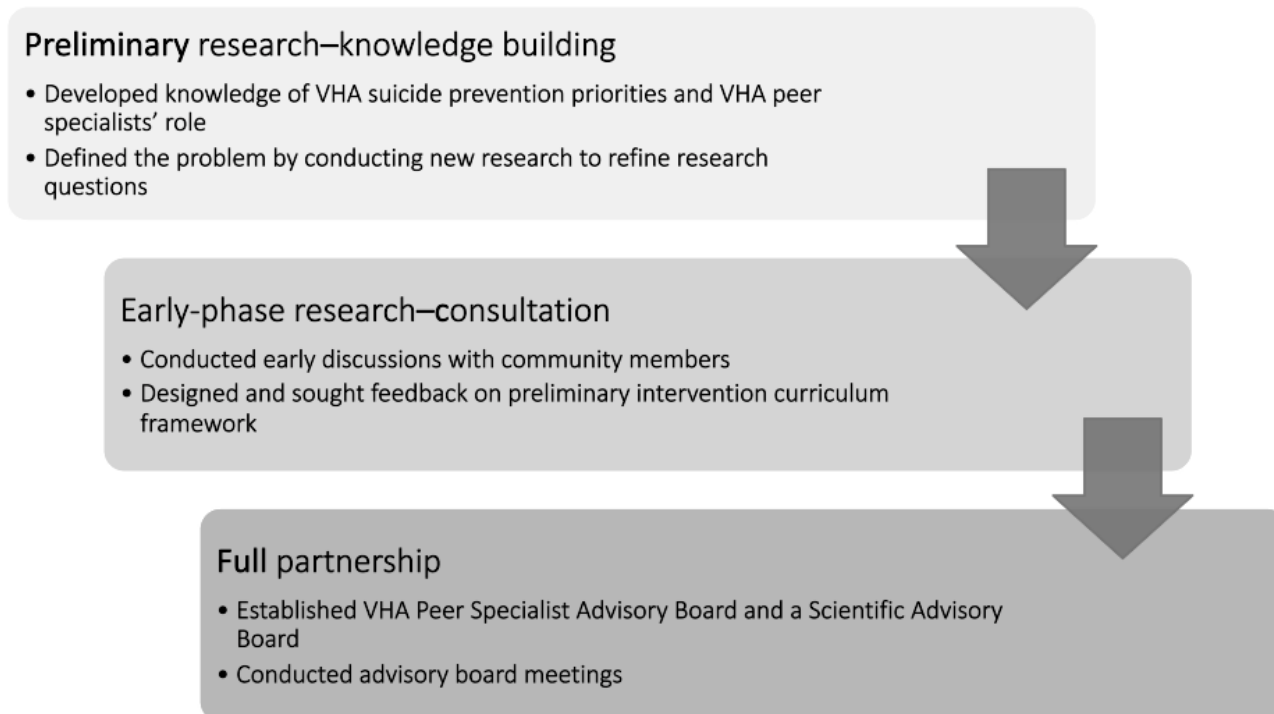
Methods

Study Design

This overall study design is a combination intervention

development approach [27] with a specific focus on a partnership through community engagement [29]. Figure 1 displays the methodological process of this study and is in chronological order unless otherwise specified as part of an iterative process.

Figure 1. Methodological process of community-engaged partnership intervention development approach. VHA: Veterans Health Administration.



Ethical Considerations

The VA San Diego institutional review board (IRB approval H210132) approved the larger research trial in which this paper reports on the initial phase (ClinicalTrials.gov NCT05537376). All advisors provided verbal informed consent. No monetary compensation was provided for participation.

Preliminary Research—Knowledge Building

Developed Knowledge of VHA Suicide Prevention Priorities and VHA Peers Specialists' Role

In this approach, we first identified gaps in current suicide prevention interventions and standards of care, including understanding the current state of the literature (as documented in the Introduction section), intervention development methodology among those with lived experience [30-32], and community-engaged research to inform intervention development [29,32]. Next, the principal investigator (PI, SAC) held a series of informal discussions with various VHA local and national peer support and mental health leaders, which highlighted encouraging support for VHA peer specialists to be involved in suicide prevention efforts while remaining inside their scope of practice. Simultaneously, the PI sought out and established relationships with scientific experts in suicide prevention, SMI, peer support services, and intervention design. These experts were identified as leaders in their fields by recommendations by others the PI spoke with and some were previously known to the PI. Experts in all areas echoed the same message as VHA leaders. SMI experts specifically emphasized

considering cognition when tailoring interventions for individuals with SMI or anyone in an emotional or suicidal crisis. To date, compensatory cognitive strategies [33,34] have not been used to improve learning and recall in the context of suicide prevention interventions but may be crucial as cognitive impairments may limit the ability to recall and engage in preventive behaviors and intervention strategies.

Defined the Problem

Preliminary research, based on the new knowledge acquired, was then conducted. This research focused on further understanding the important role of safety planning (ie, a 6-step plan collaboratively completed with a provider and a veteran to identify when the veteran is becoming suicidal and what specifically the veteran can do next [35,36]) as a suicide prevention intervention standard of care given the calls for future research on safety planning [37] and that many trials with suicide-related outcomes exclude individuals on the basis of psychosis [5]. This preliminary research found that increased social support is needed during a suicidal crisis [38,39], that veterans welcome the use of peers in suicide prevention care [40,41], and that improved ability to remember and use one's safety plan is needed [42-44]. Further conversations were needed to determine whether peers could enhance safety planning.

Early Phase Research—Consultation

Discussions With Community Members

Valuing veteran peer specialists' perspectives on their potential role in suicide prevention, the PI first met with a group of 5

veteran peer specialists across the country interested in providing input as identified by a community liaison expert. Then, the PI joined the monthly meeting of the 9 local VHA peer specialists via invitation from the local recovery coordinator. Across meetings, a major discussion point was “recovery planning,” the prime example being the Wellness Recovery Action Plan (WRAP) [45]. WRAP is a peer-delivered, evidence-based intervention for those with SMI. WRAP centers on identifying broad warning signs of mental illness, developing wellness or coping tools for functional independence, planning for day-to-day effective living within one’s community, and building a crisis and postcrisis plan. WRAP focuses broadly on mental health and shares aspects with suicide safety planning. Although no formal protocols have been tested to adapt recovery planning for suicidal crises, veteran peer specialists informally shared that they have successfully used WRAP with individuals who are suicidal. Given the added benefit of interventions that directly target suicidal ideation and behaviors [46,47], a suicide-focused, WRAP-inspired plan delivered by peer specialists would allow for a recovery-oriented approach to enhance safety planning for veterans with SMI.

Designed and Sought Feedback on Preliminary Intervention Curriculum Framework

Following these conversations, a preliminary intervention curriculum framework was designed. Core concepts included valuing recovery, using wellness tools broadly and when suicidal, setting recovery goals, daily planning development, and learning (ie, cognitive training) strategy identification. This first iteration was reviewed by a VHA peer specialist, and, with verbal consent, the VHA peer specialist then explored the core concepts with 3 veterans with SMI. Both the VHA peer specialist and the veterans with SMI shared that the core concepts were relevant and acceptable to discuss in a peer support appointment. Notably, the VHA peer specialist expressed increased comfort, competence, and confidence in suicide prevention care following review of this intervention framework. Local and national VHA leadership provided feedback on the intervention framework and study design in one-on-one meetings over the study planning period. Leadership feedback remained centered on keeping the service within a VHA peer specialist’s scope of practice.

Full Partnership

Established VHA Peer Specialist Advisory Board and a Scientific Advisory Board

Five of the 9 locally employed peer specialists approached agreed to formally participate on a peer specialist advisory board. These advisors were provided with an informational sheet and provided verbal consent for their participation. All advisors on this board were peer specialists employed by the VHA and provided peer support services in mental health-related clinics and outreach teams. Peer specialist advisors attended eight, 30- to 60-minute meetings via videoconferencing to discuss the 3 themes in aim 1.

Of the scientific experts who provided input in the knowledge development phase, 6 scientific advisors were approached based on the sustained relationship with the PI and the unique area of

expertise they championed. They all agreed to participate on the scientific advisory board. The scientific advisors included experts in suicide prevention, SMI, VHA peer support services and implementation, and intervention design and development. The scientific advisors attended one-on-one meetings with the PI and met regularly in small breakout groups every 3-4 months via videoconferencing. Each meeting focused on questions pertaining to the scientific advisors’ expertise area to best use that expertise to enhance the intervention and subsequent implementation.

Advisory Board Meetings

The PI moderated all advisory board meetings. Before each meeting, advisory board members reviewed the current intervention material. They could provide written feedback in addition to providing their verbal feedback during the meeting. Discussion questions were posed in the following predetermined key areas in each meeting: (1) scope of practice (eg, how would this intervention change or enhance a peer specialist’s duties?); (2) content (eg, what do you think about a person thinking about suicide setting long-term recovery goals?); (3) intervention design (eg, how many appointments should be provided to cover the material?); (4) suicide prevention interventions (eg, what role should safety planning play in the intervention?); (5) training (eg, how much background suicide prevention information should be provided?); and (6) study design (eg, what role do the peer specialists delivering the intervention play in relation to the research team?). Meetings were audio-recorded with verbal consent. Advisors were not given compensation due to the nature of funding available.

Reflexive Thematic Analysis Process

Observational notes were collected in real time by 2 research staff members who were in attendance and directly after the meetings by the PI. Audio recordings of the meeting discussions were transcribed. A reflexive thematic analysis process was used after each meeting [48,49]. One research staff member and the PI read a transcript to familiarize themselves with the data. Then initial codes of the first meeting’s transcripts for each advisory board were generated noting these codes using Word’s (Microsoft Corp) comment function. Discrepancies were addressed and then codes were collaboratively determined for the remaining meetings. Codes were added into Excel (Microsoft Corp) and organized by potential theme. Themes were then finalized. Intervention material revisions by the research staff included all feedback and were provided to advisors to review 1 month prior to the next meeting. This process was iterative and discussed with the full research team. The process for each subsequent meeting was repeated.

Results

VHA Peer Specialist Advisory Board Contributions

Overview

VHA Peer Specialist Advisory Board themes included (1) the desire for suicide prevention training for peer specialists, (2) determining the role of VHA peer specialists in suicide prevention, (3) integration of recovery themes in suicide

prevention, and (4) difficulties using a suicide safety plan during a crisis.

Desire for Suicide Prevention Training for Peer Specialists

Peer specialist advisors were unclear what they are “allowed” to do when working with an individual at high risk for suicide, specifically when that individual was already known to be at a higher risk; they desired training to address these uncertainties. The peer specialist advisors believed that they did not have the confidence and competence to work with someone who is at a high risk for suicide (eg, “I’m worried I won’t know what to do or say [when someone says they are suicidal].”).

Determining the Role of VHA Peer Specialists in Suicide Prevention

The peer specialist advisors were unclear of the role of their direct clinical supervisor when a veteran is already identified to be at an increased risk of suicide (compared with whether the risk was newly identified by the peer specialist, eg, “I’ve been told to just bring my supervisor in at any mention of suicide.”). At the same time, peer specialist advisors indicated that they felt that they could do more for a veteran at an increased risk for suicide instead of immediately bringing in a licensed provider (eg, their clinical supervisor) to address the risk (eg, via a comprehensive suicide risk assessment [48]) if they had the necessary training (eg, “I feel like I can do more for suicidal veterans, but I’m not sure what I am allowed to do.”). Peer specialist advisors believed that they should have more autonomy when it comes to working with veterans at risk for suicide (eg, “We can adapt to what is needed in the moment ... that’s what we’re best at.”). These advisors expressed interest in continued participation in future phases of study, including providing informed consent to deliver the intervention and to share their experiences.

Integration of Recovery Themes in Suicide Prevention

Unique skills peer specialists bring to a suicidal crisis are discussions of recovery and recovery planning (eg, “...I’ve been there and, even if I don’t have the exact same experience, I can still share my story to show that recovery is possible...”). A suicide-focused recovery plan was welcomed by advisors (paired with the appropriate suicide prevention training) as it (1) is within their scope of practice to complete a recovery plan with a veteran and (2) would provide them an intervention that is focused on suicide when they encounter a veteran at an increased suicide risk. Advisors agreed that this type of plan would be useful for veterans before and after a suicidal crisis, suggesting that this intervention could be for veterans at varying risk levels. Establishing rapport at the beginning of the interaction with veterans, focusing on strengths (eg, “specifically, reasons for living”), and modeling effective communication of suicidal thoughts were desired components to include in this intervention.

Relatedly, in developing the design of this intervention, advisors made a series of requests based on the recovery model. First, they asked for the intervention to follow a similar order as other recovery-oriented interventions they deliver in VHA, such as Whole Health. They stated that the general format should start with psychoeducation, move into inspiring hope, and then focus

on recovery goals and social connection through daily action planning. Advisors noted that they liked “the option to have multiple versions” of certain materials. For example, the veteran could choose what format they prefer to use for their learning strategies (eg, post-it notes and mobile phone calendar). Finally, the advisors recommended a “triage approach” of what intervention material to focus on first (ie, asking about suicide) and then a hierarchy of recovery topics to target next in each appointment.

Difficulties Using a Suicide Safety Plan During a Crisis

In discussing the current standards of care for suicide prevention, the advisors reported potential difficulties with using suicide safety plans during a crisis based on their own lived experience of using a safety plan. Advisors expressed needing something shorter (eg, “a reminder of just my main reason for living and whom I am going to call”), instead of a 1-page or longer document when in a crisis. Advisors also suggested that this shorter plan should be recovery- and strengths-focused as well as “pocket-sized.” Wallet-sized hard copies and digital phone backgrounds with the pertinent information were discussed to have options to meet the needs of varying veteran preferences. Advisors expressed that while veteran patient treatment manuals are helpful for some, the option of translating any curriculum to memorable subelements may be beneficial especially when in a suicidal crisis. Relatedly, they suggested strategies for reminding a veteran to engage with their plan (eg, “Have you ever thought about the use of cell phones or alarms to help people with their daily goals? It’s something I try to use because I’m really good at getting lost in my mind.”). Ultimately, they requested to not have safety planning play a direct role in the intervention except for reviewing the veteran’s safety plan with them if they indicated that they were at higher suicide risk following VHA mandates.

Scientific Advisory Board Contributions

The scientific advisors’ recommendations were consistent in many respects to the VHA Peer Specialist Advisory Board’s contributions. They echoed the desire for peer specialists to play a valued role in suicide prevention and supported suicide prevention and intervention training for peer specialists within VHA (ie, theme 1). The scientific advisors focused on the peer specialists’ scope of practice within suicide prevention (ie, theme 2), which shaped the overall study design and outcomes as well as the intervention curriculum. There were no discrepancies between the advisory board’s feedback on the intervention.

In determining the role of peer specialists within suicide prevention (ie, theme 2), scientific advisors discussed the boundaries of VHA peer specialists’ scope of practice to address suicide risk (eg, promoting hope but not providing comprehensive suicide evaluations) and concerns from national advisors regarding the protection of peer specialists in this work. Possible iatrogenic effects to the peer specialists were considered paramount. Scientific advisors suggested peer specialists already hired at VHA as part of the Mental Health Care Line to serve as the peer specialists delivering the intervention in the study. The basis of this suggestion was made on funding availability as well as to further illuminate VHA peer specialists’ roles on

site, clinic feasibility, and future broader implementation needs. However, including peer specialists as participants in the study was an ongoing point of debate. Some scientific advisors believed that peer specialists should be treated as any other member of the research team—and therefore not participants in the study. Other advisors as well as the local IRB requested peer specialists delivering the intervention to be considered participants (ie, provide informed consent and data) to better learn about potential iatrogenic effects of peer specialists delivering a suicide prevention intervention. To settle this, both sides of the argument were presented to the VHA Peer Specialist Advisory Board, and it was agreed that peer specialists already hired within VHA will be consented participants as part of the study design and documentation of their roles will be pertinent outcomes to the overall study.

In terms of intervention materials and navigating challenges of current standards of care in suicide prevention (ie, themes 3 and 4), scientific advisors focused primarily on the need for compensatory cognitive strategies to increase salience and recall of intervention materials. Similarly, they provided formatting recommendations for the veteran workbook.

Preliminary Curriculum

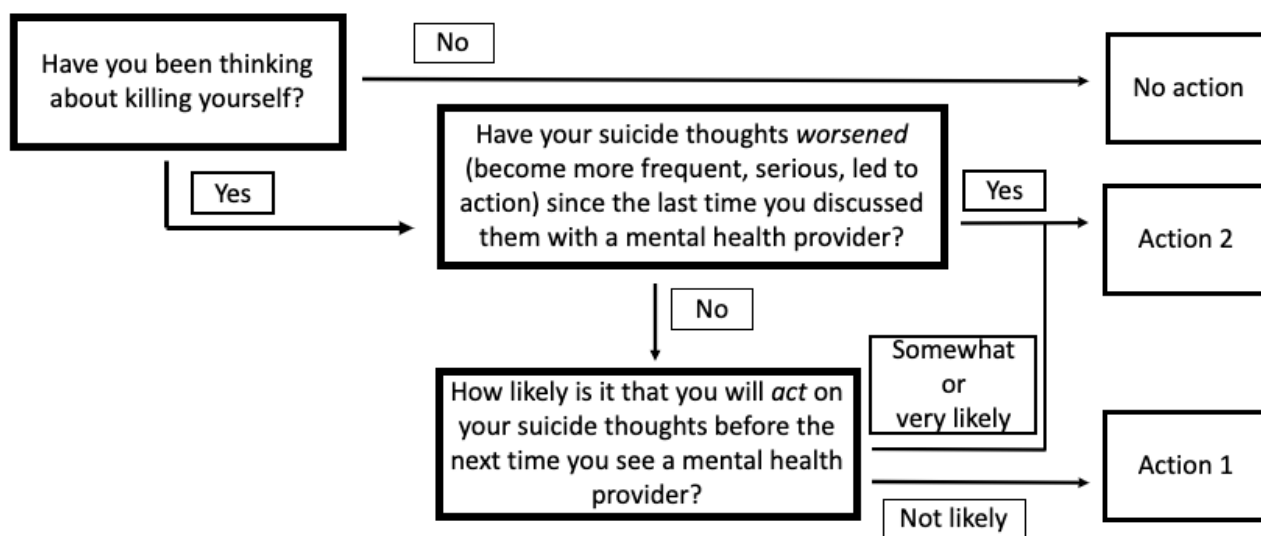
Overview

Based on the input from both advisory boards, we developed Suicide Prevention by Peers Offering Recovery Tactics (SUPPORT). The aims of SUPPORT are two-fold: (1) increase competence and confidence of peer specialists in suicide prevention and (2) assist veterans with SMI at increased suicide risk through the recovery process.

Training

The request for suicide prevention training by advisors led to the development of a training manual tailored to VHA peer specialists including two main sections: (1) a general suicide prevention training that can be a stand-alone training for any peer and (2) a training for VHA peer specialists in how to deliver a recovery-oriented, evidence-informed intervention for veterans with SMI at an increased suicide risk ([Multimedia Appendix 1](#)). The complete SUPPORT training includes two 4-hour training days. Adapting from other suicide prevention models for peer specialists [49], [Figure 2](#) demonstrates the procedure in which peer specialists can ask directly about suicidal thoughts and an algorithm for when to incorporate intervention by a licensed provider.

Figure 2. Peer specialist protocol for directly asking about suicidal thoughts and what to do next. PI: principal investigator.



No action = continue with the appointment.

Action 1 = review Veteran’s suicide safety plan with them, ensure they have contact information for their local regular mental health provider, the Veterans Crisis Line (988 press 1), and PI. Continue with the appointment. Inform PI after the appointment concludes.

Action 2 = alert on-call clinician (eg, PI) for further assessment with the person still present. You can complete Action 1 while waiting for on-call clinician.

Supervision and Consultation

As part of ongoing training, a study consultation group is also provided biweekly (timing based on the peer specialists’ request) after the complete SUPPORT training. The consultation group, comprising the peer specialists delivering SUPPORT, research staff, and a licensed clinical psychologist, serves as a dedicated time to discuss immediate concerns; receive feedback on SUPPORT appointments; discuss and process general concerns,

fears, and questions; and discuss implementation or other administrative topics.

Intervention Content

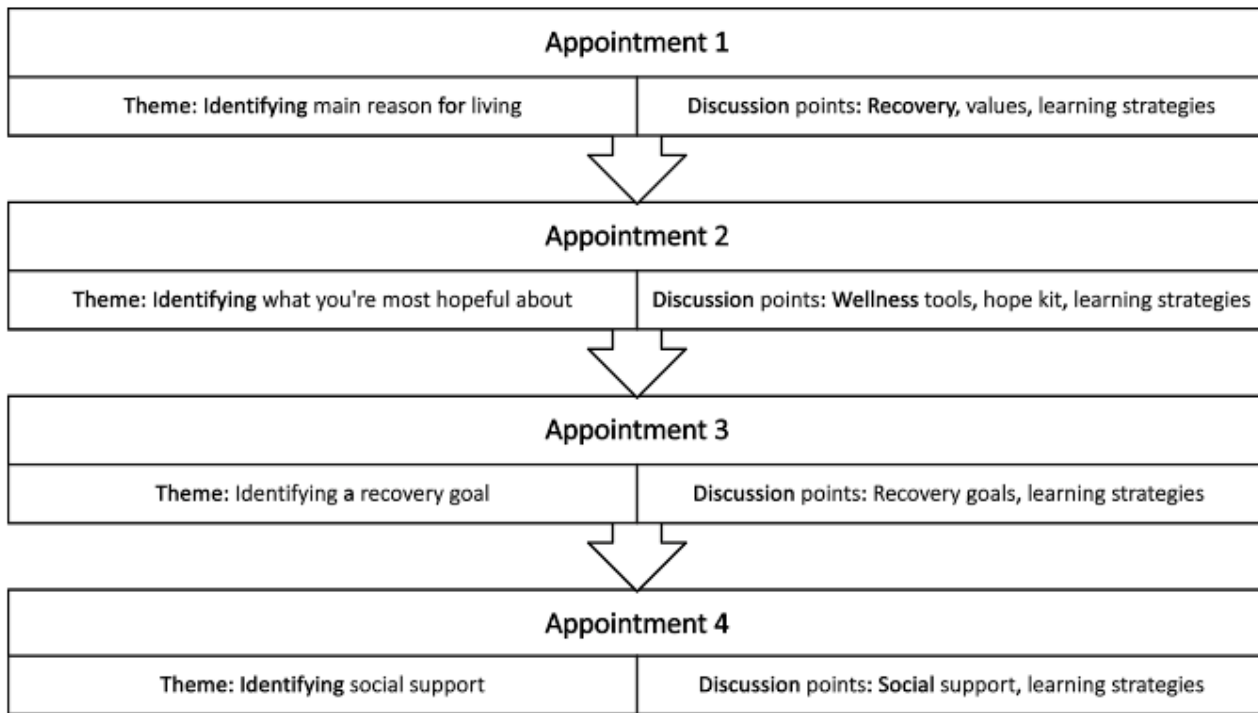
The SUPPORT intervention is designed to promote enhanced personal recovery, quality of life, and connectedness to foster effective management of veterans’ suicidal thoughts and behaviors ([Figure 3](#)). As is typical with other peer support services, the SUPPORT intervention augments and complements

ongoing care (eg, case management, individual therapy, and psychiatric medication appointments).

After completing a comprehensive mental health evaluation with a licensed VHA provider, the veteran will meet with their peer specialist for approximately four 50-minute appointments to discuss and mutually share elements of value-based living, recovery and action planning, and compensatory cognitive (ie, learning) strategies. Including learning strategies as part of the

SUPPORT intervention may improve learning of concepts, memory for intervention elements, prospective memory for symptom self-evaluations, review of intervention material, and promote general functional and social recovery. The final result is pocket-sized hard copy or digital set of 4 reminders for living (ie, the veteran’s main reason for living, what the veteran is most hopeful about, the veteran’s recovery goal, and who the veteran is going to call in a suicidal crisis).

Figure 3. Suicide Prevention by Peers Offering Recovery Tactics intervention preliminary intervention curriculum.



Discussion

Principal Findings

Over 18 months, the research team built trust and relationships with peer specialists and scientific advisors across the United States to design a suicide prevention intervention for veterans with SMI using the recovery model. Partnership engagement consisted of contacting potential partners via email to determine interest, building relationships with potential partners, creating 2 separate advisory boards, and meeting separately with both advisory boards to include their input and equal decision-making in the intervention development process. A peer specialist–delivered suicide prevention intervention and a suicide prevention training for VHA peer specialists were developed. This work adds to the literature of lived experience–driven intervention design and development in suicide prevention [30,31]. The steps reported here are intended to document the procedures taken in suicide prevention intervention development, specifically those led by peer specialists, and to be a source for future research developing and evaluating similar interventions.

Lessons Learned

This research paper depicts lessons learned, but 3 additional lessons are worthy of discussion. The first focuses on staffing.

Peer specialists, clinical supervisors, and leadership changes are necessary considerations in VHA training and intervention development work. This study saw turnover of local leadership, leading to delays in the community engagement process due to the uncertain structure of local peer support services. This process will continue to be carefully documented to support related work throughout the remainder of the study. Second, the research funding for this project precludes compensation of VHA employees for study activities. That is, peer specialists employed by VHA—the target population of advisors and deliverers of the intervention—were not eligible for study compensation. Other than monetary compensation, such as time off, should be considered. Third, limited models for advisor engagement exist [50], especially in suicide prevention intervention development [30,51]. Although there are relevant models to draw from in other areas [28,32,52], some of which focus on important diverse and underserved populations [53], and there is a need for clear documentation of partnership engagement in this intersection.

Limitations

While this study adds to the community engagement literature in suicide prevention intervention development studies, it has limitations. The advisory boards included a small number of individuals who were self-selected and, therefore, may differ from the larger population the study aims to serve. Due to IRB

constraints, the advisory board excluded veterans who were not peer specialists. To rectify this, veterans recruited as participants in the implementation phase will participate in qualitative interviews to include their perspectives in refining the intervention. Moreover, while initial advisors included veteran peer specialists outside of VHA, the final advisory board is made up of only VHA-employed peer specialists. Therefore, these findings may not generalize to other community or clinical settings where peer specialists are less common or may have different roles and levels of interaction with patients.

Conclusions

As Watling et al [30] suggested, a combined methodology is presented here. To further refine these materials, a 2-phase study

design that continues to involve these advisory boards is underway. In the remaining portion of phase 1, the research team will train VHA peer specialists via an open pilot trial and continue to monitor the role of the peer specialists as research team members and study participants. Individual semistructured qualitative interviews of the peer specialist and veteran participants will be conducted, and materials will be revised based on these interviews and ongoing input from both advisory boards. The open pilot trial of phase 1 is actively recruiting as of August 2023. This partnership approach to intervention development champions the crucial elements of including voices with lived experience of suicidal thoughts and behaviors in research design, testing, and implementation.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported in part by an award (IK2RX004239-01) from VA Rehabilitation Research and Development awarded to SAC. EWT gratefully acknowledges the support of a VA Rehabilitation Research and Development Research Career Scientist Award. The contents do not represent the views of the US Department of Veterans Affairs or the United States Government.

Conflicts of Interest

SAC discloses financial support from CAMS-care, LLC (a clinical training/consulting company), and from the Zero Suicide Institute. KLF discloses financial support from Social Wellness, LLC, and Emissary Health. MG discloses financial support from Boehringer Ingelheim Pharmaceuticals. There are no other conflicts of interest to disclose.

Multimedia Appendix 1

SUPPORT training manual preliminary curriculum for veteran certified peer specialists.

[[DOCX File, 29 KB - jopm_v16i1e56204_app1.docx](#)]

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Abbreviations

IRB: institutional review board

PI: principal investigator

SMI: serious mental illness

SUPPORT: Suicide Prevention by Peers Offering Recovery Tactics

VA: Veterans Affairs

VHA: Veterans Health Administration

WRAP: Wellness Recovery Action Plan

Edited by S Woods; submitted 09.01.24; peer-reviewed by J LaCroix, A Peeples; comments to author 22.02.24; revised version received 11.03.24; accepted 15.03.24; published 23.05.24.

Please cite as:

*Chalker SA, Serafez J, Imai Y, Stinchcomb J, Mendez E, Depp CA, Twamley EW, Fortuna KL, Goodman M, Chinman M
Suicide Prevention by Peers Offering Recovery Tactics (SUPPORT) for US Veterans With Serious Mental Illness: Community
Engagement Approach*

J Particip Med 2024;16:e56204

URL: <https://jopm.jmir.org/2024/1/e56204>

doi: [10.2196/56204](https://doi.org/10.2196/56204)

PMID: [38781010](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/38781010/)

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Original Paper

Shifting Grounds—Facilitating Self-Care in Testing for Sexually Transmitted Infections Through the Use of Self-Test Technology: Qualitative Study

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Abstract

Background: Chlamydia remains prevalent worldwide and is considered a global public health problem. However, testing rates among young sexually active people remain low. Effective clinical management relies on screening asymptomatic patients. However, attending face-to-face consultations of testing for sexually transmitted infections is associated with stigmatization and anxiety. Self-testing technology (STT) allows patients to test themselves for chlamydia and gonorrhea without the presence of health care professionals. This may result in wider access to testing and increase testing uptake. Therefore, the sexual health clinic at Odense University Hospital has designed and developed a technology that allows patients to get tested at the clinic through self-collected sampling without a face-to-face consultation.

Objective: This study aimed to (1) pilot-test STT used in clinical practice and (2) investigate the experiences of patients who have completed a self-test for chlamydia and gonorrhea.

Methods: The study was conducted as a qualitative study inspired by the methodology of participatory design. Ethnographic methods were applied in the feasibility study and the data analyzed were inspired by the action research spiral in iterative processes using steps, such as plan, act, observe, and reflect. The qualitative evaluation study used semistructured interviews and data were analyzed using a qualitative 3-level analytical model.

Results: The findings from the feasibility study, such as lack of signposting and adequate information, led to the final modifications of the self-test technology and made it possible to implement it in clinical practice. The qualitative evaluation study found that self-testing was seen as more appealing than testing at a face-to-face consultation because it was an easy solution that both saved time and allowed for the freedom to plan the visit independently. Security was experienced when the instructions balanced between being detail-oriented while also being simple and illustrative. The anonymity and discretion contributed to preserving privacy and removed the fear of an awkward conversation or being judged by health care professionals thus leading to the reduction of intrusive feelings.

Conclusions: Accessible health care services are crucial in preventing and reducing the impact of sexually transmitted infections and STT may have the potential to increase testing uptake as it takes into account some of the barriers that exist. The pilot test and evaluation have resulted in a fully functioning implementation of STT in clinical practice.

(*J Particip Med* 2024;16:e55705) doi:[10.2196/55705](https://doi.org/10.2196/55705)

KEYWORDS

chlamydia; sexually transmitted diseases; participatory design; self-test; qualitative; Chlamydia trachomatis; lymphogranuloma venereum; participatory; STD; STDs; sexually transmitted; sexually transmitted illness; sexually transmitted illnesses; STI; STIs; participatory; participation; self-testing; screening; health screening; asymptomatic screening; testing uptake

Introduction

Background

Chlamydia remains prevalent worldwide and is considered a global public health problem. However, testing rates among young sexually active people remain low. The majority of infected individuals are asymptomatic and potentially constitute a significant reservoir for transmission. In Denmark, far fewer men are tested than women despite men having the highest positivity rate in all age groups [1]. From 2018 to 2021, there was an increase in the positivity rate, and the largest increase was observed in 15- to 19-year-olds, where the positivity rate in 2021 was 36% for men and 26% for women. Remarkably, considerably fewer individuals were tested in 2020; however, the positivity rate was significantly higher than in 2019 [1]. This progression is worth taking seriously because untreated chlamydia can lead to complications, such as pelvic inflammatory disease and, in the worst-case scenario, ectopic pregnancies and infertility [2,3]. Thus, there is an urgent need to develop new ways to increase the testing uptake. In Denmark, general practitioners offer free testing and perform the majority of testing. Furthermore, 6 sexual health clinics in the country perform testing and screening for sexually transmitted infections (STIs). All of these testing options require that patients book an appointment and attend a face-to-face consultation, which may be a barrier for some patients because feelings of embarrassment and stigma are well-known deterrents to STI testing [4,5]. Young people, in particular, demand an alternative way of testing, with no explanation needed and minimal contact with health care professionals (HCPs) [6]. In Denmark, some municipalities offer home testing kits that can be ordered on the internet. Home tests are particularly popular among young people as they are perceived as easy and anonymous. However, the turnaround time for these tests is 10 days, plus delivery time, which is a challenge, as short waiting times are considered essential among young people who desire quick access to testing that can be integrated with school or work routines. Drop-in clinics are therefore popular and effective for detecting STIs at an early stage [7]. This knowledge has to be considered when developing new ways to increase testing uptake. In Denmark, testing uptake did not increase significantly despite national educational campaigns and programs by the Danish Health Authority. Thus, new innovative approaches are needed to reach the target group, and digital technologies may have the potential to support testing accessibility and meet challenges such as a lack of staff and emotional barriers linked to testing [8]. Therefore, we have designed and developed a self-testing technology (STT) that allows patients to be tested at a sexual health clinic through self-collected sampling without a face-to-face consultation, with no need to schedule an appointment. Instead, patients can use drop-in and visit sexual health clinics whenever they prefer.

Objective

This study aimed to (1) pilot-test STT used in clinical practice and (2) investigate the experiences of patients who have completed a self-test for chlamydia and gonorrhea.

Methods

Study Design

The research was conducted as a qualitative study inspired by participatory design (PD) methodology. In health science, PD is often conducted in three phases, which include (1) identification of needs, (2) design and development, and (3) test and evaluation [9]. Genuine participation is considered essential, and the co-design in PD has the potential to design and develop future technologies based on users' needs and adaptable to clinical practice. PD is characterized as a democratic research methodology in which mutual understanding emerges when all end users are involved in the change process [10]. Everyone affected by the technology gets a democratic voice and has a say and is therefore involved in its design. In this study, phase 1 consisted of literature studies, and the STT was designed based on research findings from several studies [6,11-14] that identified barriers in testing for STIs. Thus, the design and development of the STT was based on identified needs in the literature. In phase 2, a feasibility study was conducted to ensure the STT was feasible for clinical practice. It was considered an important step in the process because end users did not design the actual STT directly. However, the participant observations and structured interviews used to explore the patients' experiences of using the STT were based on one of PDs core values: having a say and thus, giving them a voice to affect the outcome. In that way, the STT was co-designed, adjusted, and adapted based on end users' experiences through the use of ethnographic methods. The further design and development phase was an iterative process that included end users and made necessary changes before implementation in clinical practice. In phase 3, a qualitative evaluation study was conducted to explore the users' experiences of using the STT.

While PD inspired the overall study, 2 separate studies were conducted and analyzed: 1 feasibility study and 1 qualitative evaluation study, which were closely related. This paper will present the studies separately, although within the same methodological frame inspired by PD.

Four research group members were employed at the outpatient clinic; they consisted of nurses and 1 medical doctor. One was employed at another department. All members were experienced researchers; 4 have a PhD and 1 has an a masters in nursing science.

Current Clinical Setting

The study was carried out at an outpatient clinic at a university hospital in Denmark, where patients can get free testing for STIs. A test requires a phone call to a secretary, who then will

book the patient for a face-to-face consultation at the clinic within a day or two. During the consultation, HCPs obtain a medical record and ask questions about sexual (risk) behavior and symptoms. Patients will then be tested. To receive the test result, patients need to call a nurse trained in venereology.

The Self-Testing Technology

During the COVID-19 pandemic, the university hospital placed several STTs on their property. HCPs used them for their mandatory COVID-19 throat swabs at the time. After the pandemic, the STTs were removed and no longer used. At the Department of Dermatology and Allergy Centre at the university hospital, the majority of patients tested for chlamydia and gonorrhea were young people with no symptoms who just wanted a check to be on the safe side. Having been introduced to the STTs, HCPs suggested using this technology to test and screen patients for STIs. Thus, an STT was rebuilt (Figure 1), and software was developed in close collaboration with the IT consultants that made its use possible for patients in clinical practice. The STT was placed at the outpatient clinic in a relatively quiet and undisturbed place. HCPs already trained in the field of venereology were introduced to the STT and the new workflow. The STT solution ensures anonymity and privacy in the way that users no longer need face-to-face consultation to test for chlamydia and gonorrhea. Instead, patients can use the drop-in facility and visit the sexual health clinic whenever

they prefer. They will have to perform the test themselves using written instructions or video information.

Under the new system, patients who wanted to get tested for chlamydia and gonorrhea would call a nurse trained in the field of venereology, who would conduct a short interview for the patient's medical records. The nurse would then set up the process in the electronic medical record that would give patients access to the STT using their personal identification number. Men were informed about having to self-collect a urine sample, and women about having to self-collect a vaginal swab. How to collect those samples was not elaborated because this information would be provided when patients used the STT. Patients were informed that they had 14 days to take the test within the opening hours of the outpatient drop-in clinic. Furthermore, they were informed about the location of the STT and that in case of a positive test result, they would receive an electronic letter in their secure personal digital mailbox. In case of a negative test, they would not be contacted but would have to check their test result on the Danish national portal for patient communication, a secure digital platform that contains all medical information linked to patients' personal identification numbers. The unique personal identification numbers of all Danish citizens allow us to link medical information in different IT systems in a secure way. When entering the STT system the users will use their unique personal identification numbers and the system will recognize the user as a legitimate user of the system.

Figure 1. The self-testing technology.



Recruitment

For the feasibility study, asymptomatic patients who attended a face-to-face consultation were asked if they were willing to use the STT instead. If patients agreed and gave their oral consent, they were asked to fill out a written consent.

For the qualitative evaluation study, patients were recruited at the STT, where written consent forms were available. Patients

who had filled out the consent forms were contacted by phone to schedule an interview. Patients were included using a purposive sampling strategy for both approaches to achieve diversity in sex, age, and geographical distance. All participants were older than 18 years, heterosexual, and were Danish-speaking.

Data Collection

The Feasibility Study

Participant observation and informal interviews were carried out for the feasibility study. The participant observation aimed to gain insight into patient experience while following the instructions on how to find and use the STT. The participant observations were conducted based on American anthropologist James Spradley's approach and thus concerned with a social situation [15]. An observational guide was developed based on Spradley's 9 dimensions (Table 1) of a social situation to ensure that data were collected systematically and to provide structure to the observations in order not to miss important data. The social situation observed was patients using the STT for the first time. According to Spradley, a social situation concerns three elements, that are (1) a place, (2) actors, and (3) activities, and in order to understand this social situation, it first has to be described. Thus, making inferences makes it possible to discover meaning [15]. Therefore, in this study, inferences were made in relation to what the participants did (cultural behavior), the things they used (cultural artifacts), and what they said (cultural

knowledge). The degree of participation can vary; however, passive participation was chosen in this study because the researchers might have influenced the outcome too much otherwise. Participants were asked to enter the front door, find their way to the STT, and take the test at the STT. Field notes were collected in a descriptive way to gain insight into possible obstacles and challenges while using the STT. After each session of participant observation, informal interviews with participants were conducted. Data were collected by the authors NTM and BT who are experienced in qualitative research. A structured interview guide was developed to obtain knowledge about the participants' experiences using the STT. Participants were asked about the challenges, the information provided, suggestions for improvement, and their sense of security in using the STT. In total, 13 patients, 6 men and 7 women aged between 21 and 46 years were invited, and none declined to participate. During the participant observations, field notes were written, and informal interviews were recorded. All data were transcribed verbatim. Participants were recruited at the outpatient clinic and consisted of patients who had scheduled an appointment for a face-to-face consultation.

Table 1. Spradley's 9 dimensions of a social situation.

Number	Dimensions	Place, actors, and activities
1	Space	The physical setting–location of the STT
2	Actor	Patients involved in the study–participants
3	Activity	Activities conducted by patients–using the STT
4	Object	Physical elements used by patients–the STT
5	Act	Individual actions taken by patients
6	Events	Context of the act–using the STT
7	Time	A sequence of events from beginning to end
8	Goal	What patients seek to accomplish–taking a self-test
9	Feeling	Emotions expressed by patients during the test

The Qualitative Evaluation

In total, 10 semistructured interviews were conducted with patients who had used the STT for the first time to explore their experiences and perceptions of the STT and, thereby, to gain insight into their experiences of having used it [16]. The interviews were carried out from October 2022 to January 2023 and were conducted at the location preferred by patients. An interview guide was developed to explore patients' experiences, impressions, and acceptance of the STT. The interview guide was developed to ensure that participants could share their experiences and perceptions on using the STT, how they experienced the information provided, what, in their opinion, could be improved and why, how they experienced the access

to STI testing in general, and wishes or requests they had for STI testing in the future. In total, 21 patients filled out a consent form, and 14 were contacted to schedule an interview. Of the 14 patients contacted, 1 did not show up for the interview, and 3 did not respond to our contact. In total, 10 patients aged between 18 and 32 years were included (6 females and 4 males). See Table 2 for participant characteristics. The interviews were conducted according to each participant's preference, either at the sexual health clinic (n=2) or by phone (n=8). After conducting these interviews, the authors agreed that data saturation was reached and no further interviews needed to be conducted. The semistructured interviews were conducted by NTM, who is highly experienced in qualitative research. All transcripts were recorded and transcribed verbatim.

Table 2. Qualitative evaluation study.

Participant characteristics	Values
Median age (range), years	25 (18-32)
Sex, n	
Male	4
Female	6
Employment status, n	
Employed	2
Student	8
Relationship, n	
Single	8
With partner	2
Previously tested, n	
Sexual health clinic	7
General practitioner	3
Checkpoint	2
No	1

Ethical Considerations

The study was approved by the Danish Data Protection Agency (journal number 22/30101), following the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki [17]. All patients received verbal and written information about the studies and signed an informed consent form before data collection. For the qualitative evaluation study, participants received information about confidentiality and that only the person performing the interview would know their identity. They were ensured anonymity in both data analysis and reporting of the results. In order to respect the privacy of the potential participants for the qualitative study, patients themselves initiated the recruitment process. The authors fully acknowledged that participants during the interviews would elaborate on sensitive topics, therefore we chose not to recruit patients face-to-face while they were getting tested at the STT, thus, prioritizing patients' interest and participating on a voluntary basis. Because patients were recruited during face-to-face consultations for the feasibility study, we did not collect other characteristics about the participants. Ethically, this seemed wrong since patients did not have time to think through whether they wanted to share more sensitive information with the researchers.

Data Analysis

The Feasibility Study

The analysis of the feasibility study was inspired by the action research spiral in iterative processes [18] using the steps, that are plan, act, and reflect. The participant observation was conducted as a cyclical approach, where the reflected findings were shared with the research team before the next participant observation. Data analysis thus acted to adapt and modify the STT. Thus, each new activity and modification was based on

shared reflections on the previous activity. These iterations were conducted until no further adjustments were required.

The Qualitative Evaluation

The semistructured interviews, which aimed to explore experiences of the use of the STT, were analyzed inspired by Ricoeur's theory of narrative and interpretation [19]. This is a 3-level analytical model that allows for interpretation of data collected through qualitative research methods such as semistructured interviews in order to gain insight into what patients experience [20]. This was carried out as a dialectical movement among three levels, which are (1) a naïve reading, (2) structural analysis, and (3) critical interpretation and discussion. First, all transcripts were gathered as one coherent text. Next, the transcripts were read and reread several times to get an initial impression of the text. This initial impression was the naïve reading and was written down. This step was performed by NTM. Then, a structural analysis was carried out where units of meaning (what the text said) and units of significance (what the text speaks about) were identified. Units of meaning were quotations from the data. Through a dialectical movement between understanding and explanation, by alternately distancing oneself from and coming closer to the text, a critical interpretation was possible and led to "units of significance." This step was performed in collaboration through reflections and discussions to ensure saturation, agreement, and following the research objective and finally led to the identification of patterns, 1 main theme, and 3 subthemes. (Figure 2). All themes were subsequently interpreted and discussed in relation to theory and previous research results as part of the critical interpretation to gain an even deeper understanding. An example of the analysis is provided in Figure 3. The Consolidated Criteria for Reporting Qualitative Studies (COREQ) guided the reporting [21].

Figure 2. Results, main theme, and subthemes.

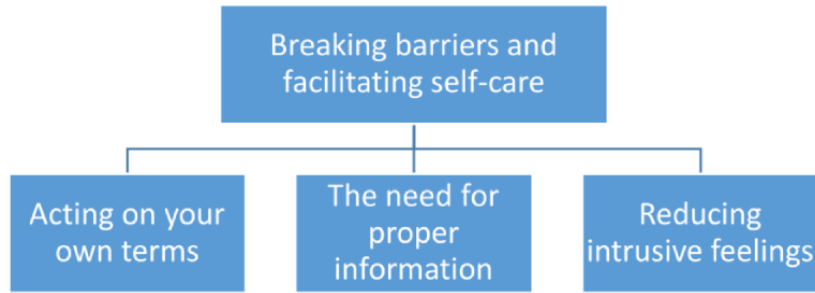


Figure 3. Example of the structural analysis.

Units of meaning What is said	Units of significance What the text is talking about	Themes or subthemes Emergence of key themes
<p><i>It feels a bit more anonymous when you come down and just take an envelope and test yourself without having the slightly awkward conversation with a doctor (6)</i></p> <p>↔</p> <p><i>So I avoided the awkwardness that can occur and the judgment one can encounter in the eyes of healthcare professionals. It was super easy and straightforward, it was actually very nice to experience (4)</i></p>	<p>Self-testing was experienced as an anonymous and discreet solution, that preserved privacy and removed the fear of an awkward conversation or being judged. Testing was associated with taboo and shame, and this experience was minimized with STT. The self-test took place in a discreet location, which promoted anonymity and privacy. Self-testing can therefore contribute to a greater willingness and sense of testing for STI.</p>	<p>Reducing intrusive feelings</p>

Results

Findings From the Feasibility Study

Patients had difficulties in finding the STT despite the signposting. Some had difficulties locating the STT because they had to enter through a door with a missing signpost. Others, following the blue arrows on the floor, entered the door but went straight into the toilet without looking up. Thus, the blue arrows on the floor were modified to point more directly at the STT. Furthermore, a signpost was added on the door patients had to enter. Patients had no problems scanning their social security cards; however, 2 patients could not print a requisition because of technical problems, and the HCPs had to print them. The reason for being unable to print the requisitions was technological, and the IT consultants analyzed these data and made the necessary changes at the STT. During the actual test, several problems occurred. Patients were insecure about which

bar code to place on the sample, as the requisition had 2. Furthermore, they were not provided with sufficient information on correctly placing the bar code. Some patients were unsure whether the liquid inside the tests should be poured out. After the test, some patients did not know what to do with their used requisition. Thus, the written information for patients was adjusted and made extremely explicit (Figure 4). It was added to the written information that (1) the liquid should stay in the sample bottle; (2) an arrow along with text that clearly showed what bar code to place on the sample; and (3) a picture of how to place the bar code along with text. These findings led to the final modifications of the STT and made it possible to implement it in clinical practice. Thus, the users were directly involved in the design process based on participant observations and structured interviews. These user experiences collected through ethnographic methods facilitated co-design and made the STT adaptable to clinical practice.

Figure 4. Example of revised instructions for male patients.

Instructions for men - urine test for chlamydia & gonorrhea

For patients
patienten først OUH



Unpack the sample set. Remove the lid from the sample bottle and place it in the container on the wall. The liquid should stay in the sample bottle.



Fill a cup with first-catch urine (1/4 full) and use the disposable pipette to transfer urine into the sample bottle.



Fill the bottle to the point where urine is visible between the two black lines.

Screw the lid onto the bottle, as tightly as possible.

Dispose of the trash in the garbage bin.

Wash your hands and clean the shelf.



Check your name and social security number on the requisition form.



Place the barcode vertically on the glass (the bottom barcode by the arrow).



Drop the sample bottle in the marked area on the stand. Dispose of the requisition slip in the shredder bin, which is located on the stand.

Findings From the Qualitative Evaluation

The naïve reading revealed that security was a central aspect for patients taking a test at the STT. Furthermore, it seemed that providing patients with the opportunity to take a test without having to face an HCP was experienced as a positive aspect.

Breaking Barriers and Facilitating Self-Care

Breaking barriers were experienced on both a psychological and organizational level, creating feelings of security. This feeling of security was the central advantage in performing self-tests for STIs and was thus included in all 3 subthemes. Feelings of security facilitated self-care.

Acting on One's Own Terms

The flexibility and convenience of acting on one's own terms were highlighted as significant factors in self-testing.

Convenience means something to many people. It's incredibly easy to just make a phone call and order a test. It also matters that you don't have a specific appointment time, but rather 2 weeks to get it done. I believe many people see this as an advantage. It makes it easy and manageable, so you get it done [9]

Being able to take the test when it “fits in” and on one's own terms could overcome barriers and give a sense of security and feelings of being independent of the system. For some, it made them more willing to get tested.

That was the easiest—I didn't have to make an appointment with my own doctor. I could just decide for myself when I had a gap in my schedule to get it done [8]

Self-testing was seen as more appealing than face-to-face testing because it was an easy solution that both saved time and allowed for the freedom to plan the visit independently. It was perceived as orderly and meaningful for its purpose, which could create motivation to self-care by getting tested, which increased the possibility of taking responsibility for one's sexual health. On the other hand, the experience of hassle and meaninglessness of a standard face-to-face appointment could lead to hesitant behavior.

The Need for Proper Information

The individual and illustrative instructions created a sense of security in performing the test correctly.

I found it to be very detailed and that it was very easy to follow the instructions and figure out what to do and in what order [9]

Being taken by the hand and guided throughout the test was perceived as important. Some individuals experienced insecurity about the procedure, especially if they had never tested themselves before.

It was probably a bit overwhelming, maybe because it was the first time. I just had to think about how to do it... not because it was difficult; I just had to figure it out [7]

Thus, security was experienced when the instructions were balanced between being detail-oriented while also being simple and illustrative.

For some, a phone conversation with an HCP before the self-test created a sense of security because they could ask questions and receive information that “prepared them” for taking the test. However, anonymity was challenged for others due to the phone call with an HCP.

Reducing Intrusive Feelings

Self-testing was experienced as an anonymous and discreet solution.

If you reduce the fear one may have, I believe it will make a difference. I easily believe that self-testing will encourage more people to get tested [7]

The anonymity and discretion contributed to preserving privacy and removed the fear of an awkward conversation or being judged by HCPs, thus reducing intrusive feelings.

Testing for STIs is associated with taboo and shame, and this experience was minimized when the test could be taken anonymously.

So I avoided the awkwardness that can occur and the judgment one can encounter in the eyes of healthcare professionals. It was super easy and straightforward; it was actually very nice to experience [4]

Many preferred using the self-test rather than going to their general practitioner because they only saw their doctor for other medical issues. This may be explained by the fear of being judged for their sexual behavior or irresponsibility in relation to unsafe sex.

For some, it took courage to get tested for an STI, and this courage was empowered when the test could be done anonymously. The fact that the self-test took place in a discreet and less crowded location promoted anonymity and a sense of privacy.

It feels a bit more anonymous when you come down and just take an envelope and test yourself without having a slightly awkward conversation with a doctor [6]

Discussing one’s sexual behavior was experienced as invasive and judgmental, which could lead to hesitation in getting tested. However, using the STT reduced these barriers, enhanced feelings of security, and, in that way, supported patient self-care.

Discussion

Principal Findings

The development of new technology will inevitably lead to changes elsewhere in the health care organization [22]. The co-design process that led to the development and implantation of the STT ensured that the solution was integrated into existing clinical workflows and that HCPs and patients supported it. These critical aspects must be addressed to ensure the adoption and implementation of new technologies for STI testing [23]. Khumalo et al [23] stated that if new technologies are implemented correctly, patients will be provided with autonomy and be empowered to take control of their sexual health because barriers toward testing, such as stigma, can be reduced. This is consistent with the findings of our study, where being tested for STIs was associated with taboo and shame. However, taking an anonymous test minimized this experience, enhancing feelings of security.

Self-testing was seen as more appealing than a face-to-face consultation because it was an easy solution that both saved time and allowed for freedom and flexibility to plan the visit independently. These aspects highlight the improvements in offering testing using the STT compared with existing home test kits. The STT gives patients the opportunity to be tested quickly and enables them to get a test result within 1 to 2 days, which is considered an important aspect of STI testing. [7]. Aicken et al [24] found similar findings in their study of a newly established e-Sexual health clinic. The participants in their study described that they chose to use the eHealth intervention because it was convenient and fit into their busy lifestyle, and it was considered both easy and discreet to use. Likewise, helpline contact was considered important and created a sense of security for the majority of patients; however, like in our study, anonymity was challenged for some due to a phone call with an HCP. This highlights the extent to which STI testing is connected to feelings of shame and stigma and, therefore, the need to constantly improve and develop the services for this group using co-design approaches in order to facilitate patient self-care.

Orem defines self-care as activities an individual initiates and performs on their own behalf to maintain life, health, and well-being [25]. This involves adaptations to health-related behavior and the ability to perform self-care activities, referred to as self-care agencies. Thus, nursing has to support or enhance the individual’s self-care agency in order to promote independence [26]. We found that using the STT was perceived as orderly and meaningful for its purpose, which could create motivation for self-care by getting tested, which enhanced the possibility of taking responsibility for one’s own sexual health. This highlights a certain paradox: the ability to perform self-care depends not solely on the individual but also on a health care system that has to adapt to users. The routines in clinical practice, such as only providing face-to-face consultations despite the well-documented barriers this creates, can lead to self-care deficits, not caused by the individual but by the system. Thus, providing patients with the appropriate intervention to address self-care deficits is not only the responsibility of

individual patients and HCPs but also the responsibility of the health care system. This study found that the STT solution provided patients with feelings of anonymity and allowed them to take the test on their own terms. This empowered patients because it gave them control and the ability to make choices, enhancing their confidence and feelings of self-determination. Furthermore, it underlines the possible impact technologies can have, such as enabling self-care for patients who may not be regarded as having self-care deficits. In that way, technology plays a crucial role in empowering patients in STI testing by providing them with tools and resources to take control of their health and well-being. By leveraging technology in these ways, health care systems can empower patients to be more proactive, engaged, and informed in managing their health and well-being. This, in turn, contributes to improved patient outcomes and a more patient-centered approach to health care, ultimately contributing to the prevention and early detection of STIs.

The STT described here is the first and only one of its kind used in STI testing in Denmark, and with the health care system under pressure, there is a need to explore new paths and seek innovative solutions. Furthermore, by addressing one of the significant threats to the health care system, the workforce shortage, this solution has increased patient satisfaction. It is important to have a range of different options and solutions to meet patients' needs, and the use of technology and self-testing can seamlessly coexist as an offering alongside more traditional consultation, as demonstrated by this study. While some patients easily adapt to new solutions, such as self-testing, others may need assistance. It is important that support, such as informational videos and helpline numbers, is integrated to ensure accessibility and understanding.

Considering the digital divide and health equality, it is important to ensure accessibility of the STT for diverse populations, including those with limited access to technology or low eHealth literacy. This has been an important focus area in the process of designing the STT and the STT provides the possibility to support a more traditional way of providing information and health care more flexibly. For instance, the solutions allow to provide information in different ways (videos, text, and personal information), to make sure that all needs are met. It has been an important focus area to make sure that a health care professional can be contacted for any need of support with respect to the STT and to allow patients to be tested without using the STT, but instead attending a face-to-face consultation if preferred.

Limitations

A limitation of this study is that it was single-centered and included only 13 patients in the feasibility study and 10 patients in the qualitative interview, which is a rather small sample size. However, this was a design and development process and an evaluation of technology to explore the experiences and perceptions of patients and the technology's adaptability in clinical practice. This favors a qualitative approach, and thus, the sample size seems adequate since qualitative research is concerned with deepening the understanding of a phenomenon rather than numerical representability [27]. The qualitative approach was used to obtain an in-depth insight suitable to the

aim and considered a main strength of this study. In addition, we aimed for maximum variation during recruitment, which is considered a strength [28]. In the qualitative evaluation study, we recruited heterosexual patients only and did not collect data about other risk factors; this could have an impact on the transferability of the findings. However, heterosexual patients comprise the main target group of those being tested at the sexual health clinic and, thus, contribute to a representative group. We acknowledge that STI testing intersects with various cultural beliefs and practices related to sexual health, influenced by social norms, religious teaching, sexual preferences, and stigma. In some cultures, discussing sexual health openly is considered taboo, leading to reluctance in being tested. In addition, barriers such as privacy concerns, fear of judgment, and accessibility may be some obstacles. The STT gives individuals the opportunity to get tested more anonymously, thus, circumventing potential barriers. However, the inclusion criteria for this study were heterosexual Danish-speaking participants, therefore the cultural aspects and how the STT accommodates diverse beliefs and practices related to sexual health needs to be investigated further.

In the feasibility study, we included patients who attended a face-to-face consultation and asked them if they would use the STT instead and that data would be collected through participant observation and a subsequent interview. We deliberately omitted to gather demographic data because the time to think over to agree to participate was sparse. This information may have strengthened the generalizability of the study; however, we chose to uphold research ethics [29]. Another limitation is that the perceptions and experiences of HCPs were not elaborated on, although the STT created a significant change in clinical practice. However, the STT was implemented quickly into clinical practice at the request of HCPs, which indicated that the STT was a demanded solution.

Future Perspectives

It would be interesting to evaluate the use of the STT over a longer time period, monitoring the number of users, their sex and age, whether they had used the STT before, as well as the number of positive samples. Our clinic has plans to further automate the STT. This will eliminate the need for a telephone conversation with an HCP and enhance users' anonymity. In addition, the STT should be expanded to users with a higher risk of STI infection, for example, pre-exposure prophylaxis users who are routinely tested for STIs regularly.

Conclusions

Based on PD, we have designed and developed an STT that allows patients to be tested at a sexual health clinic through self-collected sampling without a face-to-face consultation. Using the STT minimized feelings of shame and awkwardness, which is a well-known barrier to STI testing and can contribute to a greater willingness to live with STIs. Thus, accessible health care services are crucial in preventing and reducing the impact of STIs, and the SST may increase testing uptake as it takes into account some of the barriers that exist. More simplified and accessible chlamydia testing by the STT proved feasible. The feasibility study and qualitative evaluation have resulted

in a fully functioning implementation of the STT in clinical practice.

Acknowledgments

We thank all participants in the study, the patients for testing the STT and sharing their experiences, and the IT consultants for their engagement and commitment during the study.

Conflicts of Interest

None declared.

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Abbreviations

COREQ: Consolidated Criteria for Reporting Qualitative Studies

HCP: health care professional

PD: participatory design

STI: sexually transmitted infection

STT: self-testing technology

Edited by D van Leeuwen; submitted 21.12.23; peer-reviewed by S Mitra, A Hassan; comments to author 09.04.24; revised version received 18.04.24; accepted 22.05.24; published 14.08.24.

Please cite as:

Trettin B, Skjøth MM, Munk NT, Vestergaard T, Nielsen C

Shifting Grounds—Facilitating Self-Care in Testing for Sexually Transmitted Infections Through the Use of Self-Test Technology: Qualitative Study

J Particip Med 2024;16:e55705

URL: <https://jopm.jmir.org/2024/1/e55705>

doi: [10.2196/55705](https://doi.org/10.2196/55705)

PMID:

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Original Paper

Implementation of a Recovery College Embedded in a Swedish Psychiatry Organization: Qualitative Case Study

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Abstract

Background: Recovery colleges are service user-led educational interventions aiming at empowering people with mental health issues and promoting recovery through peer learning. Despite the increasing interest in recovery colleges in recent years and the demonstrated beneficial effects for users, there is limited research addressing aspects that influence their implementation. This knowledge is necessary for the successful integration of such interventions in various contexts.

Objective: This study aims to explore factors that influence the implementation of a recovery college embedded within a Swedish psychiatry organization.

Methods: A qualitative case study of a recovery college based on semistructured interviews with 8 course participants, 4 course leaders, and 4 clinical staff was conducted. The transcripts were scrutinized with conventional content analysis, and the interpretation of results was guided by the Consolidated Framework for Implementation Research.

Results: The findings highlight key areas that either hinder or promote the successful implementation of the recovery college. These areas included recruitment, resources, staff attitudes, and ways of organizing courses. Each area has elements that appear both as facilitators and barriers, demonstrating the duality of conditions.

Conclusions: Allocating dedicated resources, engaging individuals with service user experience as organizers who are willing to share their personal experience, having an open-door policy, creating an open space for participants to share their experiences, and offering practical advice and written material are useful to create favorable conditions for a recovery college to reach its goals of empowering psychiatry service users.

(*J Particip Med* 2024;16:e55882) doi:[10.2196/55882](https://doi.org/10.2196/55882)

KEYWORDS

mental health; educational intervention; recovery college; implementation research approach; qualitative research; coproduction

Introduction

Background

Many mental health service users have engaged in self-care with the aim of taking control over their lives despite diseases as well as turning to peer support. This started in the United States as a mental health consumer movement in the 1970s. In an *emerging issues* paper, Davidson [1] discussed how this

movement has been supported by changes in US legislation from the 1990s onward. He referred to longitudinal studies of patients with schizophrenia performed in the 1970s and 1980s that changed the previously pessimistic view on psychiatric disorders. This was well in line with the personal experience of people that they were, despite a psychiatric diagnosis, able to lead meaningful and productive lives. He also claimed that those studies showed that the capacity of patients to recover fully or

learn to manage their condition, in many instances developed outside formal treatment settings.

Perkins et al [2] differentiated this patient-driven self-management activity from professional psychiatric care by referring to those approaches as *educational versus therapeutic approaches*. Instead of focusing on problems and dysfunctions and labeling all activities as therapies, the recovery movement supports people to identify and develop their talents and skills, explore their possibilities, and focus on achieving ambitions and goals. It has, consequently, also been defined as an *assets-based* approach, aiming at developing the *recovery capital* of patients, defined as “the array of social, psychological and cultural networks beyond professional inputs” [3].

“Recovery colleges” are such educational activities that have proliferated in the United Kingdom. A network titled *Implementing Recovery through Organisational Change* coordinates about 40 recovery colleges that engage over 500 peer workers, promoting learning and self-management as core practices among patients with mental health conditions [4]. Recovery colleges are typically led by persons with lived experience as service users and they focus on sharing experience, support for coping, and skills training.

The interest in recovery colleges has increased over the years, more colleges have been established, and the number of reports on their outcomes keep growing. A recent systematic review concluded that “Recovery college attendance was associated with high satisfaction among participants, attainment of recovery goals, changes in service providers’ practice, and reductions in service use and cost” [5]. Attending a recovery college was described by participants as being useful in supporting recovery, leading to a decrease in service use [6]. Another study reported that well-being and personal resources were strengthened, and user satisfaction increased as the service provided was perceived as accepting and enabling. In addition, participants felt a greater sense of hope, confidence, and higher aspirations [7]. In focus group interviews, recovery college participants expressed that they had experienced a positive impact on their lives and had seen benefits brought by the college to the organization [8].

A systematic literature review analyzed outcomes of recovery college activities on mental health staff, mental health services, and the society at large [9]. Mental health clinical staff who participated in recovery colleges valued collaboration with service users and, as a result, gained a different perception of those service users and felt more passion and higher job motivation. Within mental health organizations, recovery college activities provided staff with a learning environment to practice coproduction with users. Recovery colleges involve agencies in the community and their staff in collaboration with service users, which has a positive effect on staff attitudes and public opinion [9].

Some impact studies have included process evaluations with information on program content and resources used. Those tend to focus on improvement opportunities, such as standardizing course processes and planning for longer courses [10]. Hall et al [11] represented 1 group of a few researchers addressing the implementation of a recovery college. They found “delays in the development of some key policies and procedures, including

the enrollment and attendance information, standardization of evaluation measures and course standardization” [11]. The reasons for these delays were lack of resources, funding, and staffing; staff turnover; and less defined staff roles. Some staff felt uncertain about coproducing with persons with lived experience and the quality of external expert input. Slade et al [12] found similar attitudinal problems among staff, characterizing those as “abuses of recovery colleges.” Staff might feel that recovery colleges are a fad, that those would not benefit their patients, and that psychiatry services would be sufficient to address their problems.

In summary, these studies on the outcomes of recovery college activities show high satisfaction among participants, experiencing a greater sense of hope, confidence, strengthened personal resources, and a positive impact on their lives in general. Finally, participants had reduced their use of formal services. Mental health professionals with experience in recovery colleges valued collaboration with service users and reported, as a result, feeling more passion and higher job motivation. The collaboration between recovery colleges and agencies in the community had a positive effect on the staff of those agencies and public opinion. However, some challenges were also reported. Lack of resources, funding, and staff attitudes would delay the launch of a recovery college. Some staff members felt that the activity would not benefit their patients beyond that of formal psychiatry services.

When setting up a recovery college, prospects for success would be enhanced by a clear conceptualization of the college, an integration between the college and the host organization, and attention paid to the power imbalance between providers and patients [13]. These observations refer mostly to the design of the educational activity, whereas information on the way in which plans have been carried out and adjusted to fit local conditions and contexts is lacking. Such approach is referred to as *implementation*, which preferably should be studied with an *implementation research approach* [14]. Hence, implementation includes not only the introduction of an intervention but also the continuous adaptation and optimization of it within the organizational context.

This Study

Given the scant literature and the importance of understanding the context, we set out to specifically study the *implementation* of a recovery college that is embedded in a psychiatry organization. Elsewhere, recovery colleges are typically freestanding centers. We took advantage of the fact that we had access to 1 recovery college at a psychiatry clinic, called *Patient School*, in Region Stockholm, Sweden. We have recently analyzed the value of this Patient School, as described elsewhere [15]. Hence, the aim of this study was to explore factors that influence the implementation of the Patient School within this psychiatry organization.

Methods

Study Design

This is a qualitative inductive study based on semistructured interviews conducted using a coproduced approach [16,17]. The

research team included persons with formal experience of research (health care professionals and other academically trained individuals), those with lived experience of being a patient in a mental health care facility, and those presently working in the psychiatry organization. The team of authors cocreated all different aspects of the research process, including reflexive discussions on how team members' different perspectives have affected the research process. The COREQ (Consolidated Criteria for Reporting Qualitative Research) guidelines have been followed to support the transparency and quality of this research [18]. To strengthen the focus on the implementation process, the analysis and the interpretation of the data were guided by the updated Consolidated Framework for Implementation Research framework, as proposed by Damschroder et al [19].

Context

The psychiatry organization provides both inpatient and outpatient services to the Region Stockholm population and is part of its public health care. It has consistently led efforts in fostering user participation and organizing user-centric initiatives within the mental health sector of this region. Since 2007, the psychiatry organization has appointed dedicated *user-involvement coordinators* on a full-time basis. By 2016, the organization expanded its approach by incorporating peer-support workers, known as *staff with user experience*, who serve as mentors for patients in psychiatry units. User-involvement coordinators conduct regular surveys among users to gather insights and relay this information to the psychiatry organization's management. In addition, a user-involvement coordinator holds a position in the organization's Patient Safety Group and presides over the User Council, which includes members from patient organizations and the management team. The founders of the Patient School were working within the organization as user-involvement coordinators or staff with user experience. The Patient School was established in 2018 by the user-involvement coordinators and offered initially to outpatient users. The clinical manager, who the lead user-involvement coordinator reported to, endorsed the plan and anchored it with the full senior management team of the organization. The Patient School gatherings take place in psychiatry care facilities with the support of the management and with professional staff contributing.

As guiding principles for the Patient School, they agreed upon (1) promoting recovery; (2) placing the activity in facilities within the psychiatry organization with the support of its leadership; (3) choosing employed user-involvement coordinators and staff with user experience as coordinators; and (4) while encouraging sharing of personal experience, avoiding suggesting those as generalizable recommendations.

Before launching the first Patient School program, the course leaders had visited recovery colleges in England, acquiring inspiration from that experience. They then formed a working group to ensure they all had the same vision for the program. All leaders were present at every meeting during the first round of Patient School so that they would all teach the course the same way. After that, the work was divided, and leaders were

assigned sessions with specific themes so that not all leaders had to be present every time.

As previously described by Reinius et al [15], the Patient School was founded in 2018 for both inpatient and outpatient units. However, information about the Patient School was originally circulated at outpatient departments (ambulatory mental health centers). All participants so far have been recruited this way.

In total, 12 courses were offered, with close to 70 course participants. The Patient School consists of a series of five workshops offered over 5 weeks covering the following themes: (1) psychiatry: how does it work? (2) recovery: what is helpful? (3) other resources in society, (4) relations and disclosure, and (5) personal tools. The course leaders invited, to each workshop, health care personnel from the psychiatry organization or researchers to act as coleaders and substance matter experts.

The study is part of the *Patients in the driver's seat* partnership research program, situated at Karolinska Institute exploring patient-driven innovations to promote self-care and cocare [20].

The choice of themes to include in the course curriculum was based on views expressed by psychiatry service users in *Patient forums*, organized by the user-involvement coordinators planning the Patient School. Some of those were related to *patient competence*, that is, knowledge about the health care system and laws and regulations needed to be able to *navigate the system*. Patient School participants (service users) were asked for feedback, both orally and in surveys, and the content was adjusted accordingly. Participants in previous courses were engaged to be mentors to new participants and participated alongside them. These mentors shared their observations and gave useful feedback.

Participant Recruitment

The data used for this study were gathered as part of a larger research project as described in the study by Reinius et al [15]. In total, 45 participants in the Patient School who had provided contact information during or after completing the school were invited by MR to participate. In total, 7 clinical staff who acted as experts as well as 6 course leaders (user-involvement coordinators and staff with user experience) were also sent invitations. Apart from one who is a coauthor with user experience (IHR), no previous relationships with IHR were established before the commencement of the study. MR was introduced as a researcher interested in exploring participants' views about the Patient School. The timeline of respondent recruitment is presented in [Multimedia Appendix 1](#).

Ethical Considerations

Ethics approval was granted by the Regional Ethical Review Board of Stockholm (Dnr 2019-03849 with amendment Dnr 2020-04604). All procedures followed were in accordance with the ethical standards of the responsible committee for human experimentation (institutional and national) and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2000. Informed consent was obtained from all patients for being included in the study. The data are anonymized, and no compensations were provided to participants in this study.

Data Collection

A researcher trained in qualitative methodology and interview technique was responsible for developing a semistructured interview guide, and it was discussed, revised, and received approval from the entire team. The interviews were conducted over the telephone by the same researcher MR from her office. The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. The respondents had received written information in advance and were able to ask questions before the interview started. An interview guide was designed in discussions within the research team, including members who had been involved as course organizers. Their experience was important in identifying different items of the implementation process that could be used in follow-up questions. However, the interviews started with open-ended questions, such as “according to you, what is needed for the Patient School to be carried out? and probes such as can you tell me more about that?” The data collection stopped when no more aspects connected to the study aims were identified, that is, when data saturation was reached.

Data Analysis

The transcripts were subjected to conventional content analysis using an inductive approach [21]. For this manuscript, interview data were analyzed with particular focus on aspects of implementing the Patient School. First, MR read through all transcripts several times to reach immersion and formulated meaning units to cover all sections of the text that responded to the aim and defined 2 main themes (ie, barriers and facilitators). Barriers refer to obstacles and difficulties when organizing courses, and facilitators refer to conditions that make implementation easier or promote perceived successes. MB read 5 transcripts to verify the preliminary categorization.

The selected meaning units were checked against the original transcript, labeled, grouped, and posted on a Miro dashboard by MM. MB, MMC, TS, and IHR participated in 4 analysis workshops that started with all participants reading the meaning units in silence and making notes on their first impressions,

thoughts, and initial analysis. The preliminary labeling and categorization were discussed in the full team, and agreement was reached on defining subcategories. All authors reviewed initial findings and suggested revisions until a consensus was reached. MMC then returned to the full data related to the selected meaning units to select representative citations. To validate those, LA read all the transcripts and confirmed the preliminary analysis. In this way, data analysis was performed by all team members participating while also protecting the integrity of the interviewees. As it was felt that member checking would have run the equal risk of individual interviewees being identified, the procedure was not performed.

LA was responsible for manuscript writing and composition. She drafted and revised the manuscript based on critical input from the other authors. Of crucial importance were user-involvement coordinator members' comments, which guided the contextual interpretation. All authors approved the final manuscript.

Results

Overview

In total, 16 individual interviews were conducted from March to May 2021 (lasting between 25 min and 75 min) with 8 (50%) course participants, 4 (25%) course leaders, and 4 (25%) clinical staff who had participated in the Patient School as invited experts.

The findings highlight key areas that either hinder (barriers) or promote (facilitate) the successful implementation of the Patient School within the psychiatry organization. These areas encompassed *recruitment, resources, staff attitudes, and ways of organizing courses*. The findings are structured around these distinctive subthemes. Each subtheme appears both as a facilitator and a barrier, demonstrating opposite conditions. Our comprehensive summary of the findings is described in [Textbox 1](#).

Textbox 1. Summary of barriers and facilitators for the implementation of the Patient School based on interviews with course leaders, participants, and staff and course documents.

Barriers

- Recruitment
 - Lack of contact with fellow service users
 - Lack of knowledge and understanding of the Patient School and its benefits among clinical staff
- Resources
 - Patient School not included in the reimbursement system
 - Focus on service production and less time for staff to support Patient School
 - Lack of a dedicated venue
- Negative attitude among staff
 - Negative stance toward staff with user experience and patient involvement
 - Change resistance—fear of heavier workload
 - *Wrong to teach a person to be a patient*
- Ways of organizing course
 - Course leaders spending too much time describing their own experience left little space for participants
 - Some participants dominated too much
 - Some experts not appreciated by participants

Facilitators

- Recruitment
 - Everybody can join the Patient School
 - Active information to patients from staff
- Resources
 - User-involvement coordinators and staff with user experience as course leaders
- Positive attitude among staff
 - Patient satisfaction and perceived value of Patient School increases staff motivation to support Patient School
- Ways of organizing course
 - Course leaders sharing their own experience encouraged participants
 - Moderator giving everybody space
 - Participant feedback paid attention to
 - *Open door policy* (everybody is welcome)
 - Appreciated course material

Recruitment

Recruitment barriers for the Patient School were primarily attributed to limited contact between patients and staff with user experience as well as user-involvement coordinators and inadequate information dissemination by staff. The staff were described to have an essential role in recruiting patients and conveying the value of the Patient School. Participants acknowledged that not all patients had the opportunity to meet with staff with user experience and user-involvement coordinators directly, highlighting the importance of regular

staff interactions with patients to disseminate information about Patient School and assist in recruitment efforts:

[In order for the patient school to be implemented, it is necessary] that [staff] want to participate, of course. Participate both with us and to help get information out so that people will be interested in it. So a collaboration is required. [Interviewee #10]

Ensuring that information about Patient School was available in wards and outpatient departments was described to be essential for successful recruitment. Although written materials

were accessible in the clinics, participants viewed verbal reminders by staff as a necessary complement. However, the lack of active information about Patient School to patients from staff was described as a barrier by several participants. One staff interviewee explained that, although reminding patients about Patient School would be helpful, it was easily forgotten about.

Some participants highlighted a lack of knowledge and understanding about Patient School among other staff. Interviewed staff described uncertainty about its structure and a lack of adequate information about how to provide patients with information about Patient School. Consequently, this led to feelings of insecurity when discussing the Patient School with patients.

The lack of an information channel about the Patient School was believed to contribute to a low understanding of Patient School among staff. Course leaders believed that it was difficult to spread information about Patient School to staff and that it would have been valuable if information of Patient School benefits would have been shared with them. They expressed concern that patients who did not have the opportunity to meet with a user-involvement coordinator or staff with user experience might miss out on being informed about Patient School:

What can be an obstacle, then, is...that they, patients, have not met us, and are not informed by staff, i.e. their contacts at outpatient care, that the Patient School exists. [Interviewee #3]

Recruitment was facilitated by adopting an inclusive approach, wherein all outpatients at the clinic who were willing and capable of participating in structured group events were welcomed to participate. It was also seen as a future enabling factor to further spread the Patient School across all clinics in the region. That was desired by both staff and course leaders and could help both increase the size of groups that were felt to be too small and minimize frequency of waiting lists, which sometimes occurred. It was also believed that if patients from other clinics were recruited, it would help spread the word about Patient School. However, some interviewed staff raised concerns about mixing participants from different stages of recovery in the same sessions. They believed that there was a risk that people who had progressed on their path to recovery might have a flashback. This was confirmed by 1 staff member:

Those who leads it [the Patient School] should have knowledge about whether there's a participant there who if something comes up that makes them feel bad, or triggers a flashback...that they can handle it. I think that whoever it was that was leading it, was very receptive to how people were feeling and how they reacted to what was said. It's important to have the right person leading it. [Interviewee #12]

Some participants made suggestions for the future improvement of the Patient School and expressed appreciation for the attentiveness of the course leaders to their feedback. For instance, a proposal was made to link participants' care plans with the course program, which could create added value. Another proposal was to involve former participants to visit the Patient School, share their experiences, and aid course leaders.

Those alumni would shadow a course leader for some time to learn the dynamics of the Patient School and afterward contribute as assistants to a course leader.

Resources

The success of Patient School was described as relying on essential resources, including the availability of user-involvement coordinators and staff with user experience, time, suitable venues, and funding. The integration of Patient School in the regional health care reimbursement system was seen as the most important promoting factor, and if it was not, Patient School would not be able to evolve, let alone survive. The absence of Patient School from the reimbursement system was thus highlighted as a significant barrier to its implementation:

But I think the priority would probably be to try to approach the clients or those who manage that part, and see if there is any order, some type of compensation we can get as a business, to hold the Patient School. Because I think it's more essential for us to survive. [Interviewee #7]

Participating course leaders described that with earmarked funding, more course leaders could be hired, which would increase the number of sessions, lecturers with care provision commitments could be recruited, and a spread of Patient School across clinics would be possible. Another improvement would be to include Patient School education as a service to be reimbursed, in parallel with clinical services. The lack of these preconditions contributed to an undersupply and a long waiting list for participants to join Patient School at the clinic.

Participating course leaders emphasized that, at present, Patient School is held in the clinic's facilities and the venue must be booked in competition with other activities. Course leaders stressed the need for improved access to clinic facilities, of which some could be specifically dedicated to Patient School. When requesting the venue, course leaders were sometimes met with resistance, which was seen as a direct effect of Patient School not being a part of the reimbursement system. Patient School competes with other initiatives that generate income for the clinic, which often were given first access.

Course leaders explained that they needed more time allocated to Patient School and to planning Patient School workshops. Some described that a dedicated budget for hiring expert lecturers would ease the burden on course leaders. Other course leaders stated that almost all clinics have used user-involvement coordinators and highlighted that to expand Patient School to additional sites would require either allocation of more staff or more active collaboration between user-involvement coordinators.

Staff Attitudes

Several barriers connected to staff and managers' attitudes were highlighted by course leaders. Some described a noticeable reluctance among staff toward including staff with user experience in health care in general. As the Patient School was initiated by user-involvement coordinators and staff with user experience, this affected staff attitude toward Patient School. A drastic example of the consequence of a negative attitude was

told by course leaders. On some occasions, staff falsely claimed to have reserved the facility where Patient School was to be held. This behavior was perceived by some course leaders as an indirect expression of staff's doubts about the value of the Patient School. Course leaders felt that some managers also were critical of the Patient School and misunderstood its purpose:

Then there have been some attitudes...obstacles too. There have been certain...Some managers, who have thought that no, should you really teach people to be patients? [Interviewee #7]

A viewpoint expressed by some course leaders was that managers appeared to prioritize financial considerations over quality aspects. They suggested that managers perceived Patient School as less significant, as it does not generate income for the provider.

According to course leaders, there existed a degree of reluctance among staff toward Patient School among some staff. They had experienced that staff had actively singled out aspects of Patient School to criticize. This attitude was felt to mirror the fear of an increased workload triggering change resistance. One staff interviewee stated that during Patient School sessions, patients were encouraged to actively engage in care planning and participate in their care, such as by reading their medical records:

There are people who believe it's, unnecessary, to remind that one can read one's medical record, I heard from a colleague once, since the patient had expressed concerns (about a note and its content). I believe it's evident that patients should be able to read their medical record, and at the same time, also to use it as a tool, as I do. However, not everyone likes it...So, of course, it's true that some find it worrying that...patients, are well-informed and also that they have demands. [Interviewee #10]

In contrast, facilitators included the perceived value of the Patient School, which not only influenced the general staff attitude toward Patient School but was also said to impact their willingness to recruit patients to participate. Patient satisfaction with the Patient School was described as a motivating factor leading to the dissemination of information about the program. For example, 1 staff interviewee took the initiative to frequently remind colleagues to inform patients about Patient School. In addition, 1 course leader suggested that staff on some occasions should accompany their patients to Patient School workshops, allowing them to gain firsthand experience of the Patient School and realize its value.

Ways of Organizing the Course

The role of course leaders and the collaboration between them and participants were widely acknowledged as a cornerstone of a successful Patient School. Among the challenges encountered was the issue of equal participation during discussions. Some participants recognized their tendency to dominate discussions, hence limiting contributions from more quiet peers. The role of course leaders was thus emphasized as vital to directing the discussion, introducing clear topics, and helping participants to

maintain focus. One staff interviewee highlighted the importance of the course leaders' competence in directing the conversation:

I believe they were very competent at leading...you need the right person to lead it, someone with knowledge who is responsive and can evaluate how the information is being received by participants...And could interfere if a participant started to talk too much...and quickly redirect the conversation. [Interviewee #10]

Participants expressed their appreciation of the skills of course leaders as moderators and mentioned that they had high trust in them. Course leaders highlighted that they made sure that everyone had a chance to speak and that all topics were covered. By sharing their own experiences, course leaders encouraged patients to speak up. Those features were seen as facilitating the successful implementation of the Patient School. Conversely, the role and behavior of course leaders were sometimes described as a barrier. Initially, course leaders at times focused too much on sharing their own experiences. This trap was avoided by creating clear agendas for sessions. Furthermore, course leaders described that to enhance coherence and promote improved group dynamics the following policy was implemented: if a participant missed the 2 first meetings, they had to quit the course.

As employees of the psychiatry organization, course leaders knew what psychiatry has to offer. Having user experience, they also succeeded in presenting a balanced view of life. In addition, by countering negative stories with positive examples, they wished to provide a nuanced perspective on the life situation of a user, contributing to the perceived value of Patient School:

Course leaders try to balance each other with examples we take from our own lives. That if someone has a very negative experience of a single event...maybe someone else has a more positive picture. And then we sort of try to balance that with the fact that it can look different. [Interviewee #7]

Participants shared various additional observations of a positive experience related to the Patient School. Participants expressed their satisfaction with the course material and believed that the 5 meetings, which had different foci fit well together and progressed in a logical order. They also valued the fact that course leaders were in the position to contact clinical staff and facilitate medical interventions when needed. The practice of course leaders working in pairs was also appreciated, as it enables the leader to have a private encounter with a participant when needed without disrupting discussions within the rest of the group. Furthermore, a guest lecturer providing expert insights was something described as beneficial. In contrast, on 1 specific occasion, a guest lecturer was critical of psychiatric care, which was considered less constructive.

The Lens of an Implementation Research Framework

Overview

To further highlight the primary focus of the study, the implementation of the Patient School program, the Patient School was analyzed using the additional information provided in the context in relation to the five dimensions of the

Consolidated Framework for Implementation Research [19]: (1) intervention characteristics as defined by the *content* of the Patient School, (2) its outer setting, (3) inner setting, (4) individuals, and the (5) implementation process.

Patient School Content

The aim of the Patient School was to promote recovery and to reach out to service users by placing itself in facilities within the psychiatry organization and to charge user-involvement coordinators and staff with user experience to organize and lead the school workshops.

Each school course consisted of five workshops offered over 5 weeks, titled (1) psychiatry: how does it work? (2) recovery: what is helpful? (3) other resources in society, (4) relations and disclosure, and (5) personal tools. Health care staff from the psychiatry organization and researchers were invited as either coleaders or subject matter experts.

Outer Context

The outer setting of the Patient School was the Region Stockholm, Sweden, a comprehensive psychiatry organization, covering in-hospital care as well as outpatient services. The commitment of the organization to use patient-centered practices and ensure user influence and involvement was shown by the employment of persons with user experience as part of the permanent staff.

Inner Setting

The inner setting was the outpatient departments offering facilities for inpatients and outpatients to join the Patient School, organized by the salaried staff with user experience. The school was backed by supporting clinical staff, informing them about the Patient School, and participating in the active recruitment of participants. A barrier was the lack of earmarked funding and dedicated venues.

Individuals

The individuals involved were high-level managers having instituted the functions of user-involvement coordinators and staff with user experience and supporting their various initiatives. The school organizers benefited from their own user experience as well as being salaried staff of the organization. Clinical staff that had positive attitudes to user involvement participated in recruiting participants as well as contributed with information and expert advice. Finally, service users were active participants, sharing their experiences, and supporting the continuous improvement of school activities by giving regular feedback.

Implementation Process

The implementation process was characterized by the school content, covering practical information on services and support available, as well as skills training, and the creation of a safe environment for sharing experience by the example of the course leaders. Success factors facilitating the implementation process were an *open door policy* psychiatry staff actively informing service users of the Patient School, the lived experience of the course leaders, positive attitudes among some professional staff, and course leaders' attention to participant feedback. Barriers

to successful implementation were a lack of dedicated resources, negative attitudes among some staff who had doubts about the benefits of the Patient School, and instances where course leaders or participants dwelled too much on sharing personal experiences, thus impeding an open discussion and reflection process.

Discussion

Principal Findings

In our study, focusing on the implementation of a recovery college-like Patient School organized by persons with user experience within a psychiatry organization, we identified activities and attitudes that had both positive and negative impacts, that is, that could be both hindering and promoting factors. In terms of *recruitment*, the lack of both knowledge about the Patient School among staff and contacts with user-involvement coordinators and staff with user experience were barriers, whereas staff actively informing potential participants, the information provided during other user-activating courses, and the open-door policy created opportunities to reach out to potential participants more broadly. As to *resources*, educational activities such as the Patient School were not included in the reimbursement scheme for the psychiatry organization and were consequently felt to compete with service provision generating income, thus reducing the possibility for staff to contribute and salaried staff with user experience to take on organizer duties. In contrast, dedicated funds for the Patient School would remove those barriers and make it possible to pay honorariums to external experts. A dedicated venue would also be helpful to course organizers. Negative *attitudes among staff* were demonstrated as a negative attitude toward employees with user experience and suspicions about the value of the Patient School, change resistance, and negative views on patient involvement and empowerment in general. Staff who saw evidence of the value of the Patient School had a positive attitude and recommended patients to join the school. The *ways of organizing* the school had negative as well as positive consequences. When course leaders spent too much time on their own experiences and let a single participant dominate the discussions, other participants felt uneasy. In contrast, those course leaders who shared their own experiences encouraged participants to express their own concerns. Course leaders who gave everybody space and paid attention to participant feedback were appreciated. However, some expert contributions being out of touch with Patient School principles were seen as disturbing, whereas the course material was assessed as proper and useful. In summary, course leaders, participants, and staff identified the following facilitators of successful implementation: active recruitment of participants at wards and outpatient departments, information freely available in the same locations, a dedicated budget and venue for course activities, active moderation of discussions during courses, responding to participant needs, adjusting the group dynamics, and paying attention to the feedback by course participants.

The Patient School was favorably assessed by participants, staff, and organizers as shown in a previous report by Reinius et al [15]. The perceived value was enhanced by the willingness of

peer organizers to share their own experiences, thus creating a sense of belonging and a forum for sharing experiences with like-minded people. In that environment, new knowledge, practical skills, roles, and attitudes were acquired. These experiences felt empowering, and they decreased stigma and reassured participants that one's identity is not defined by mental health issues.

The thick description of the Patient School based on the comprehensive data reported enables an attempt to present a tentative explanation for these positive outcomes. One way of conceptualizing such a *program theory* is to build on the analysis performed by using the Consolidated Framework for Implementation Research framework [19].

The regional psychiatry organization offered a favorable *outer setting* as demonstrated by its long-term commitment to patient-centered practices and ensuring user influence and involvement. An equally favorable *inner setting* was the outpatient departments providing facilities for the Patient School and allowing their salaried staff with user experience to organize the school, although the lack of dedicated funding and venues was seen as impeding school activities. *Individuals* contributing to the Patient School's success were the user-involvement coordinators and staff with user experience as course organizers, clinical staff with positive attitudes to user involvement who helped to recruit participants and provide those with information and expert advice, and, finally, service users actively participating and sharing their personal experience. The *implementation process* was guided by the school content, providing practical information on services and support available as well as skills training. The willingness of the course leaders to share their experiences as service users was instrumental to creating a safe environment for participants, enabling them to openly discuss and reflect.

As emphasized in the *Introduction* section, although there are a number of evaluation studies reporting the benefits of recovery colleges and educational activities, implementation processes and experiences are rarely described. However, we find some support for our tentative explanatory model. The *enabling environment* of a recovery college has been said to be a key driver of positive experiences among users and families. Challenges are delays in course standardization and enrollment and attendance procedures. Such barriers can be overcome with a supporting outer setting as well as an inner setting with dedicated staff with user experience and supportive clinical staff [13].

On a more overarching level, the importance of certain characteristics of outer and inner settings has been reported. When assessing several recovery programs, Whitley et al [22] found 4 cross-site themes with an impact on success or failure. They were leadership, organizational culture, training, staff, and supervision. Moreover, they have implications for the implementation process. Other authors highlight the importance of values. Program aims and policies but also practices such as recruitment, staffing, and documentation should be *recovery compatible* [23].

A more practical approach, as used by Smith-Merry et al [24] in Scottish recovery activities, gives useful hints on

implementation processes as well. They recommend the application of 4 recovery technologies: recovery narratives (as practiced in the Patient School), the *Scottish Recovery Indicator*, which measures the extent to which services are implementing a recovery-oriented practice model, a structured tool for service users to manage their own recovery, and peer support. While we did not explore the direct influence of the Patient School on the clinical practice, findings indicate that those elements might be found in the Patient School implementation program. The Patient School provided, for example, participants with tools and practices to cope with their challenges and those were assessed in discussions during the sessions. Exchange of lived experience and peer support was a central part of the program.

Finally, not surprisingly, issues on planning and resources are also raised in the literature. Burhouse et al [25] emphasized that when organizing a recovery activity as a continuous improvement, project time for planning is warranted, and *sustainability planning needs resources from the start*. The authors also emphasize the importance of finding a robust measure of the long-term cost-benefit to ensure support from decision makers.

Strengths and Limitations

This study has strengths as well as weaknesses. It describes a case from 1 psychiatry organization in Sweden and is based on a limited group of interviewees. Attempts to transfer the findings to other contexts must be done with caution [26]. However, this study is focused on the context and processes of implementation, which is an angle seldom chosen in studies evaluating recovery colleges and other educational interventions in psychiatric care. Despite being, in essence, a case study, it adopts a framework, widely used in implementation research, enabling us to present a tentative explanatory model for a recovery college, experienced as being valuable by participants. It shows what features in the context might contribute to the positive impact, as well as the importance of individuals such as organizers with user experience, preconditions in terms of resources, and specifics of the implementation process, the most important being an *open door policy* and *giving everybody space*. Other sites and organizations would be well-advised to pay attention to these features when organizing recovery colleges aiming at strengthening psychiatry service users' self-management skills and reducing their sense of stigma. Future studies performed in other contexts and comparing different sites would develop and deepen the understanding of the successful implementation of recovery colleges.

Conclusions

Conditions that will support recovery colleges to reach their goals of empowering psychiatry service users include, first, allocating dedicated resources and engaging, as organizers, individuals with user experience who are willing to share their personal experience. An additional benefit is provided by these organizers working in-house as salaried employees. It is equally important to have an open-door policy, create an open space for participants to share, and offer practical advice and written material that are felt to be useful. Future studies comparing various sites would enhance and broaden our comprehension

of the effective implementation of recovery colleges across different contexts.

Data Availability

The data sets generated during and analyzed during this study are not publicly available due (due to the nature of this research, interviewees of this study did not agree for their data to be shared publicly) but are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Conflicts of Interest

None declared.

Multimedia Appendix 1

Timeline of respondent recruitment.

[[DOCX File , 14 KB - jopm_v16i1e55882_app1.docx](#)]

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Abbreviations

COREQ: Consolidated Criteria for Reporting Qualitative Research

Edited by M Hudson, K Fortuna; submitted 28.12.23; peer-reviewed by S Soklaridis, A Nordin; comments to author 01.02.24; revised version received 01.03.24; accepted 09.07.24; published 12.09.24.

Please cite as:

Al-Adili L, Malmqvist M, Reinius M, Helispää Rodriguez I, Stenfors T, Brommels M

Implementation of a Recovery College Embedded in a Swedish Psychiatry Organization: Qualitative Case Study

J Particip Med 2024;16:e55882

URL: <https://jopm.jmir.org/2024/1/e55882>

doi: [10.2196/55882](https://doi.org/10.2196/55882)

PMID:

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Original Paper

The Effect of Using a Client-Accessible Health Record on Perceived Quality of Care: Interview Study Among Parents and Adolescents

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Abstract

Background: Patient-accessible electronic health records (PAEHRs) are assumed to enhance the quality of care, expressed in terms of safety, effectiveness, timeliness, person centeredness, efficiency, and equity. However, research on the impact of PAEHRs on the perceived quality of care among parents, children, and adolescents is largely lacking. In the Netherlands, a PAEHR (Iuvenelis) was developed for preventive child health care and youth care. Parents and adolescents had access to its full content, could manage appointments, ask questions, and comment on written reports.

Objective: This study aims to assess whether and how using this PAEHR contributes to perceived quality of care from a client's perspective.

Methods: We chose a qualitative design with a phenomenological approach to explore how parents and adolescents perceived the impact of using a PAEHR on quality of care. In-depth interviews that simultaneously included 1 to 3 people were conducted in 2021. In total, 20 participants were included in the study, representing parents and adolescents, both sexes, different educational levels, different native countries, and all participating municipalities. Within this group, 7 of 13 (54%) parents had not previously been informed about the existence of a client portal. Their expectations of using the client portal, in relation to quality of care, were discussed after a demonstration of the portal.

Results: Parents and adolescents perceived that using Iuvenelis contributed to the quality of care because they felt better informed and more involved in the care process than before the introduction of Iuvenelis. Moreover, they experienced more control over their health data, faster and simpler access to their health information, and found it easier to manage appointments or ask questions at their convenience. Parents from a migratory background, among whom 6 of 7 (86%) had not previously been informed about the portal, expected that portal access would enhance their understanding of and control over their care processes. The parents expressed concerns about equity because parents from a migratory background might have less access to the service. Nevertheless, portal usability was regarded as high. Furthermore, both parents and adolescents saw room for improvement in the broader interdisciplinary use of Iuvenelis and the quality of reporting.

Conclusions: Using Iuvenelis can contribute to the client-experienced quality of care, more specifically to perceived person centeredness, timeliness, safety, efficiency, and integration of care. However, some quality aspects, such as equity, still need

addressing. In general, client information about the portal needs to be improved, specifically focusing on people in vulnerable circumstances, such as those from migratory backgrounds. In addition, to maximize the potential benefit of using Iuvenelis, stimulating a person-centered attitude among professionals is important. Considering the small number of adolescent participants ($n=7$), adding quantitative data from a structured survey could strengthen the available evidence.

(*J Particip Med* 2024;16:e50092) doi:[10.2196/50092](https://doi.org/10.2196/50092)

KEYWORDS

electronic health record; EHR; personal health record; child health services; child health; child welfare; adolescent health services; pediatrics; parent; care quality; perceived quality of care; patient experience; client perception; quality of care; parent; adolescent; patient portal; client portal; qualitative study

Introduction

Background

In the implementation and optimization of health care services, assessing the quality of care is an important topic. Quality of care is a broad concept, and it encompasses various aspects of health care. Most commonly used is the Institute of Medicine's definition of quality of care, which distinguishes 6 different domains: safety, effectiveness, timeliness, patient centeredness, efficiency, and equity [1]. Patient safety refers to the notion that provided care should prevent patients from harm [1]. Effectiveness reflects the use of appropriate interventions and treatments [1]. Timeliness refers to delivering health care services on time [1]. Patient centeredness is about tailoring care to the unique patient's needs and preferences and engaging them and their proxies in decision-making [1,2]. Efficiency deals with how well resources are used and about avoiding waste [1]. Equity ensures everyone has equal access to the best possible care, independent of personal characteristics or geographic location [1]. Traditionally, quality of care has been approached from a professional's perspective, aiming to increase the likelihood of desired health outcomes. In 2015, the World Health Organization (WHO) reformulated the term patient centeredness into person centeredness, emphasizing that patients are more than just their health condition and proposing a broadened scope for health and well-being [3]. With this pivot shift from conventional biomedical health care models to a more holistic approach, patient experiences have become an important health care quality outcome, and patient-reported experiences have evolved into important indicators for quality of care [4,5].

Patient-accessible electronic health records (PAEHRs) are assumed to enhance the quality of care because they provide users with information about their health and health care [6-8]. Information can be provided in a one-way manner, by sharing health data in a patient portal or interactively when the system supports messaging between patient and care provider [9-12]. Either way, providing patients with their health data promotes empowerment and enhances people's engagement in their care plans [6,7,13]. Consequently, health consciousness (ie, the inclination to take health actions), therapy adherence, and self-management of health improve, all of which contribute to better health outcomes [8,9,13-16]. Moreover, transparency of PAEHRs is reported to enhance patient safety, for instance, because patients can identify errors in their health records and have them corrected [12,17,18].

PAEHRs in Adolescent Health Care

The growing body of literature reporting the effect of using PAEHRs on quality of care predominantly stems from adult health care. Research on the impact of using PAEHRs on the quality of care among children, adolescents, and their parents is limited because the development of PAEHRs for these target groups is delayed by age-specific challenges regarding autonomy and confidentiality [19,20]. Meeting these challenges during the development of PAEHRs is important because research shows that adolescents only share information with professionals who assure their confidentiality [21-23].

The protection of confidentiality and access to health information differs depending on the country or state. While there are different legal measures in place to safeguard confidentiality, all health care systems face the challenge of transferring access rights from parents to adolescents [20,24,25]. Initially, parents have the right to their child's health information, but as children grow into adolescence, and therefore in capacity and autonomy, these rights are transferred to the adolescent [26,27]. This transfer, varying across and within countries, can be gradual, with both parents and adolescents having access, or occur at a specific age [20,24,25]. Solutions for the emerging autonomy and confidentiality issues aim to balance adolescent autonomy and confidentiality with parental involvement [26-28]. In the United States, laws explicitly safeguard parents' rights to access their children's health information [25,29]. Contrastingly, countries such as Canada, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, and most Scandinavian nations more strongly emphasize the rights of adolescents, depending on their capacity and maturity [24,30]. Restrictions on access to health information for both parents and adolescents vary globally, from shared access during a specified period to no access at all during adolescence [20,24]. The age at which adolescents can access their health information differs from any age in Finland and Estonia to 18 years in Austria and New Zealand [20,24]. Consent from either the adolescent or the parent may be necessary, with certain jurisdictions permitting adolescents to restrict parental access [20,25].

Objectives

In the Netherlands, a PAEHR named Iuvenelis has been developed for children, adolescents, and their parents. Iuvenelis is used in an interdisciplinary manner in preventive child health care and youth care. It is accessible to adolescents aged ≥ 12 years and to parents of children aged from 0 to 16 years. Investigating the impact of using Iuvenelis on perceived quality

of care among adolescents and parents will contribute to knowledge about using PAEHRs in an age group that is evolving toward autonomous adulthood. This study aimed to investigate how Dutch parents and adolescents visiting preventive health care and youth care perceived the impact of using a client-accessible interdisciplinary health record on quality of care, exploring both the experiences of active users and the expectations or first impressions of nonusers.

Methods

Research Design

A qualitative design with a phenomenological approach was chosen to explore how parents and adolescents perceived the impact of using Iuvenelis on the quality of care [31]. A total of 12 in-depth interviews with 1 to 3 people simultaneously were conducted between October 11 and November 25, 2021. We reported our qualitative study according to the COREQ (Consolidated Criteria for Reporting Qualitative Studies) [32]. [Multimedia Appendix 1](#) contains the completed COREQ checklist for this study.

Study Setting

The Dutch North Veluwe region consists of 6 municipalities. These municipalities commissioned 2 organizations providing preventive child health care to children aged 0 to 3 years and children aged 4 to 18 years and 1 organization providing youth care to integrate their services in the Centre for Youth and Family (CJG). The CJG is a network organization that houses professionals from the 3 parent organizations involved. Since 2015, the CJG has provided preventive health care to all 38,000 children aged from 0 to 18 years in the region and provided additional youth care for children and families with behavioral or sociopsychological problems [33]. Both preventive child health care and youth care refer to parents, children, and adolescents as clients rather than as patients. Using a participatory approach, the CJG in 2016 developed a quality standard for their services, following the European “Quality 4 Children” protocol [34]. In dialogue sessions with parents and adolescents, they jointly wrote a document that defined quality of care from a client’s perspective [35]. The document establishes 3 core values for quality—“child-centredness,” “partnership between family and professionals,” and “families in charge when decisions are made”—and describes the corresponding supportive professional behavior for each value [35]. Supporting the integration of services, the electronic health record “Iuvenelis” was built, to which all CJG professionals report. Furthermore, to support client autonomy and collaboration between professionals and families, Iuvenelis includes a tethered client portal in which parents and adolescents

can read everything professionals report, such as visit notes, measurements, test results, and referrals. They can manage appointments, send secure messages to professionals, ask questions, comment on written reports, and request corrections of errors. Compliant with Dutch legislation, adolescents receive automatic access to the portal at the age of 12 years [36]. At the same moment, the portal closes for parents, who have a legal right to access Iuvenelis until their child is 16 years of age. However, this right can only be effectuated when their child personally grants permission. When parents are granted access to their child’s record between 12 and 16 years of age, their child can still have single visit reports shielded from them. Iuvenelis was introduced in September 2019.

Study Population and Inclusion

The study included the parents of children aged 0 to 16 years and adolescents aged ≥ 12 years, living in the North Veluwe region, further referred to as clients. Clients who visited the CJG in September 2021 were invited personally by CJG professionals, and some general characteristics were reported, such as sex, age, educational level, and native country. Clients who expressed interest in participating were contacted by email or phone to explain the nature and purpose of the interview and to make an appointment. Where feasible, clients were invited to join focus group interviews at a CJG location. Those unable to attend a group session were offered an individual or dual interview live at the location of their choice or on the web. Purposive sampling ensured a varied group representing both sexes, parents and adolescents, various educational levels, active users of Iuvenelis and nonusers, both visitors of preventive health care and youth care, and inhabitants from all participating municipalities. We included parents from native Dutch and migratory backgrounds. In this paper, we use the term migratory background for immigrants who moved to the Netherlands, regardless of their command of the Dutch language. In total, 12 interviews were conducted with 20 participants. Apart from 7 (58%) individual interviews, 2 (17%) double and 3 (25%) triple interviews were conducted. Except for 1 (8%) triple interview with a mother and her 2 teenage children, group interviews consisted of only parents or only adolescents, and respondents did not know each other.

Data Collection

To create an interview topic guide ([Multimedia Appendix 2](#)), a working session was convened with an interdisciplinary expert panel of 8 professionals. On the basis of the CJG quality standard and the overarching Institute of Medicine framework [1], they explored what aspects of client-perceived quality of care could be influenced by using Iuvenelis. [Textbox 1](#) presents the main topics from the semistructured interview guide.

Textbox 1. Client interview main topics, with sample questions from the interview guide.

General

- Are participants acquainted with Iuvenelis?
- How have their experiences been in general?
- If they were not acquainted, what are their first impressions?

Safety

- How do participants feel about security of their data?
- How do participants feel about detecting errors?
- How do participants value the view log?

Effectiveness

- How do participants experience completeness and understandability of reports in Iuvenelis?
- How do participants value professional expertise?

Timeliness

- How do participants experience the possibility of 24/7 access to their health data?
- How do participants experience the possibility to manage their own appointments?
- How do participants experience the possibility to ask questions at their convenience?

Person centeredness

- To what extent do participants perceive an influence of using Iuvenelis on client-professional collaboration or communication?
- To what extent do participants perceive an influence of using Iuvenelis on equal relationship?
- To what extent do participants perceive an influence of using Iuvenelis on sense of ownership?

Efficiency

- How do participants experience collaboration between disciplines through Iuvenelis?
- How do participants experience the use of interdisciplinary shared care plans?

Equity

- How do participants experience ease of access and ease of use?
- How do participants experience comprehensibility of record content?
- Were participants informed about the existence of Iuvenelis?

All participants were interviewed once by an experienced female interviewer (JB). For the first 6 of the 12 (50%) interviews, a female research assistant (CA_dM) assisted as an observer and note-taker. Individual interviews lasted 30 to 60 minutes, and double and triple interviews lasted 90 minutes. When the participants were not acquainted with the client portal, the first part of the interview was used to demonstrate its functionalities in real time, followed by the main interview, which then focused on expectations and first impressions instead of experiences. Every interview was audio recorded, supplemented by note-taking, and by video recorded for web-based interviews.

Data Analysis

The interviewers transcribed all interviews verbatim for analysis. A member check was conducted with all participants to affirm transcript accuracy. Data were analyzed in ATLAS.ti (version 9; ATLAS.ti Scientific Software Development GmbH). On the basis of the topic list with the 6 domains of quality of care as a

framework, a preliminary codebook was written. In accordance with best practices, data collection and analysis were conducted in an iterative, cyclical process, checking for data saturation. The interviewing authors (JB and CA_dM) conducted a thematic analysis, rereading and coding all transcripts independently [37,38]. After coding a full transcript, the 2 researchers discussed discrepancies in coding until consensus was reached. Simultaneously, in a continuous process, additional codes were added to the codebook, coding definitions were refined, and transcripts were recoded when necessary. Saturation was discussed during analysis and was reached after 12 interviews. Subsequently, JB and CA_dM grouped all codes into major themes and discussed the interpretation of themes with all authors.

Research Team and Reflexivity

The interviews were conducted by a researcher working as a policy advisor at the CJG and a research assistant, both trained

in qualitative research. Although 1 interviewer worked in the CJG, no working relationship had been established with any of the participants before the study. Every interview started with an introduction of the interviewers and an explanation of the study goal. Combining an experienced researcher with inside knowledge of the CJG and Iuvenelis (JB) with a young researcher from outside the CJG (CAAdM) had 2 advantages: first, when present during the interviews with adolescents, the younger researcher could identify easily with the participants and vice versa; second, during analysis, comparing observations and discussing interpretations from both inside and outside perspectives enriched the process of interpretation and limited the risk of bias.

Ethical Considerations

The study was carried out following relevant guidelines and regulations, complying with the Netherlands Code of Conduct for Scientific Practice. On these grounds, the research protocol was approved by the Social Sciences Ethics Committee of Wageningen University (2018-24-Benjamins). All participants received an invitation beforehand with information about the study and gave explicit verbal consent at the beginning of the interview. Each interview was recorded and transcribed verbatim, including verbal consent.

Results

General Characteristics

Of the 20 participants, 13 (65%) parents and 7 (35%) adolescents were interviewed individually (n=7, 35%), in pairs (n=4, 20%) or in triplets (n=9, 45%). Initially, 23 participants were included, of whom 3 (13%) dropped out due to agenda mismatches. The participants represented both sexes, parents, and adolescents from different educational levels, from native Dutch and migratory backgrounds, and from all involved municipalities and also represented those making use of preventive child health care and youth care services. All adolescents were making use of youth care services. (Table 1).

A total of 35% (7/20) of the participants were not acquainted with the client portal before the interview, and 85% (6/7) of them were from a migratory background. Of the participants who were acquainted with the client portal, 46% (6/13) had received information from a CJG professional and, 54% (7/13) had discovered the portal through a questionnaire about Iuvenelis. In total, 30% (6/20) of the participants came to the CJG office, 50% (10/20) of them were interviewed in their own homes, and 20% (4/20) of the participants had web-based interviews.

Table 1. Characteristics of participants in the client interviews.

	Parents (n=13), n (%)	Adolescents (n=7), n (%)	Total (N=20), n (%)
Sex			
Male	2 (15)	2 (29)	4 (20)
Female	11 (85)	5 (71)	16 (80)
Educational level			
High	3 (23)	2 (29)	5 (25)
Middle	4 (31)	3 (43)	7 (35)
Low	6 (46)	2 (29)	8 (40)
Native country			
Netherlands	6 (46)	7 (100)	13 (65)
Kosovo	1 (8)	0 (0)	1 (5)
Syria	1 (8)	0 (0)	1 (5)
Afghanistan	2 (15)	0 (0)	2 (10)
Thailand	2 (15)	0 (0)	2 (10)
Sudan	1 (8)	0 (0)	1 (5)
Municipality			
Oldebroek	1 (8)	1 (14)	2 (10)
Elburg	1 (8)	0 (0)	1 (5)
Nunspeet	2 (15)	1 (14)	3 (15)
Harderwijk	5 (38)	3 (43)	8 (40)
Ermelo	3 (23)	2 (29)	5 (25)
Putten	1 (8)	0 (0)	1 (5)
Visiting preventive child health care or youth care			
Preventive child health care	10 (77)	0 (0)	10 (50)
Youth care	3 (23)	7 (100)	10 (50)
Acquainted with the portal			
Yes	6 (46)	7 (100)	13 (65)
No	7 (54)	0 (0)	7 (35)

Interview Outcomes

A code tree (Multimedia Appendix 3) was created with branches for all 6 aspects of quality of care: safety, effectiveness, timeliness, person centeredness, efficiency, and equity [1]. One additional theme emerged, related to professional attitude and behavior. Because this theme is linked with person centeredness, we divided the theme of person centeredness into 2 subthemes: client perspective and professional attitude. Most expressions from the participants could be coded in the domain of person centeredness (668/1749, 38.19%), followed by safety (382/1749, 21.84%), equity (337/1749, 19.27%), timeliness (158/1749, 9.03%), and efficiency (135/1749, 7.72%), whereas effectiveness was mentioned the least (69/1749, 3.95%). When experiences across quality-of-care domains were compared, it appeared that positive experiences were expressed for person centeredness, safety, and timeliness, whereas the domains equity and effectiveness evoked predominantly expressions of concerns. The participants expressed mixed feelings about the domain

efficiency. In the following paragraph, more in-depth analyses of the participants’ reflections on individual dimensions of quality of care will be presented, starting with the domain that generated the highest number of codes.

Person Centeredness

Subtheme A: Client Perspective

Both parents and adolescents reported that rereading information in the client portal contributed to person centeredness because it helped them to *recollect* what had been discussed during a visit, to *get an overview* over a longer period, and to *prepare* for the next visit:

Sometimes it is so crowded in my head. Then I start thinking: what was it all about? [Mother, 2 children, respondent 7.2]

It’s more like when I am struggling with something that we have discussed earlier that I think: Hey, wait a minute. Didn’t we already talk about this once?

And I can reread our conversation. [Female adolescent, aged 17 years, respondent 10]

Using the client portal to get an overview was even more important for the parents with a migratory background, although only 1 of them had been using the portal before the interview. However, after watching the portal demonstration and accessing their own child's health record, all parents from a migratory background considered access to the client portal to be very valuable. They expected that both rereading and reading with others would be vital. Rereading, and using a web-based translation tool when they did not comprehend the Dutch text, would help them to get a *better understanding* of what was discussed during a previous visit. A total of 50% (3/6) of the mothers with a migratory background had partners who understood Dutch better than they did. Rereading together after a mother's visit to the CJG would *provide* the father with all relevant *information* and would help the mother *recollect* what was discussed or provide her with information that she had not grasped yet during the visit:

This one (client portal), this is good! My husband always asks: "How big was his head, how tall was he and how many kilos." And then I go: "Oh my goodness, I forgot! Do I need to memorize that?" Now I can say: "Hey, you can log in and see for yourself what has happened." [Mother, 1 child, respondent 2.1]

Involving relatives in one's care was an aspect of person centeredness that not only the parents with a migratory background reported as a benefit from access to the client portal. Most parents valued that a partner who had not been present at the physician's visit could read the notes afterward. For adolescents, it felt easier to have parents read a visit report than to recall the whole conversation themselves, although they also valued the possibility of actively withholding information from their parents if they wanted to. Finally, rereading with relatives or friends was reported as helpful as well, when *preparing* for a next visit, or when *decisions* had to be made about the care process:

I have a Syrian friend who does not speak Dutch. Her daughter has a growth problem. I helped her and we took the information from the growth chart in this portal, bringing it with us to the hospital. [Mother, 3 children, respondent 11]

Being able to reread information, the parents and the adolescents felt *well informed* and *engaged* in their care plan. They also valued being part of the reporting process, discussing beforehand what should be reported and how. The combination of reporting together and rereading information enhanced their sense of *ownership* and contributed to *equal client-professional collaboration*:

Now I know, because I can check myself, when my children need vaccinations [Father, 5 children, respondent 3.2]

You construct the report together, so to speak, and you can both navigate the plan a little. [Mother, 2 children, respondent 7.3]

Both parents and adolescents would like to have *more ownership* than was facilitated by the client portal. Some parents expressed the need to *add* more *information* to Iuvenelis to create a full overview of all health and welfare issues concerning their child. Adolescents wanted to be more in control of who accessed their health records; they wanted to *actively give access* to professionals or at least be able to see beforehand who had access to their record instead of reading afterward in their view log who had accessed their health information:

At least I want to see beforehand which professional is authorized to access my health record, instead of seeing who has accessed my record afterwards. [Male adolescent, aged 17 years, respondent 5.1]

Subtheme B: Professional Attitude

Numerous participants emphasized that a *professional attitude* was an important underlying condition to deliver person-centered care and to experience the possible benefits of using Iuvenelis. The transparency of Iuvenelis contributed to a sense of *trust*, but only if professionals reported respectfully, showing that they did take clients seriously. Being able to see in a view log who accessed your health record was considered reassuring and enhanced trust. A mother stated the following:

You should consider very carefully how you report, because you are inviting me: "Go ahead, read it." You are giving full access to the health record. [Mother, 2 children, respondent 7.3]

On the other hand, trust could be damaged if professionals did not report respectfully or did not respect a client's privacy. After experiencing numerous instances where professionals were speaking about her, 1 parent chose not to access the client portal, to protect herself from losing trust in her current care provider:

I have decided that I trust "X" completely. Why should I read my health record when I do not need to and take the risk to read something that might harm that trust? [Mother, 2 children, Respondent 9]

Safety

Both parents and adolescents were satisfied with the *security* of their *health data* and the way professional authorization was organized. They generally valued the possibility to see in their view log who accessed their health record. Adolescents all valued their *right to decide* about access for their parents. Knowing how safety was warranted was an important factor contributing to their *trust* in the system:

This afternoon I saw that someone had accessed my daughter's record. But I remembered I approved that person. It's nice to know that my approval is needed beforehand. [Mother, 4 children, respondent 7.1]

I had problems with my parents, and I don't know if that's still in all those documents. Then it is nice indeed that you can decide, what they can and can't see. [Male adolescent, 17 years, respondent 5.1]

However, half of the portal-using participants were well informed about the privacy and data security measures, and knew where to find the view log. For 1 adolescent, the view log

was a reminder that professionals were discussing her situation without her being present, which she did not appreciate:

Although I like seeing who has accessed my health information, it also gives me stress. Because once they discussed my condition in a meeting with several people and I was not there. They were talking about me without me, so to speak, and that's not okay. When I check the view log that situation comes back in mind. [Female adolescent, aged 18 years, respondent 5.2]

Can other people [outside the CJG] see my child's record? How do I know that you don't give it to other people? Because everything is web-based. [Mother, 1 child, respondent 2.1]

Correcting errors is generally considered a part of the element "safety" [12]. Throughout the interviews, 2 adolescents and 3 parents encountered registration errors or missed appointments without follow-up when checking their portal. They said identifying errors did not upset them. Quite the reverse; they appreciated the possibility to detect errors, report them, and have them corrected. Moreover, being able to correct mistakes increased their sense of ownership over their care process. The parents said it was important to correct found errors, whereas adolescents said they would not ask for correction:

Sometimes things go wrong. For example, E had missed a vaccination. So now we can check the record ourselves and see which vaccination he needs. [Father, 5 children, respondent 3.2]

Equity

Independent of their native country and educational level, participants thought very positively of the client portal's usability. The portal was experienced as easy-to-use and intuitive. The parents and the adolescents could log on to the system easily using digital ID, because people had familiarized themselves with this verification procedure during the COVID-19 pandemic. Usability on mobile phones was also considered good:

Logging in with DigiD makes things easier actually, solving the whole hassle of passwords. [Mother, 4 children, respondent 7.1]

For me, it must be well-organised and then it's good. The way it is constructed right now, it's clear, uncluttered and you can read everything. I think I will look more often. [Mother, 2 children, respondent 7.3]

The parents and the adolescents also considered most recorded content *comprehensible*. However, some portal features, for example, vaccination overview and planning appointments, required explanation, and the parents and the adolescents sometimes encountered jargon or incomprehensible abbreviations:

I understood most things I read. But I thought about some information from when I was a little kid, some expressions: that must be only for doctors. [Female adolescent, aged 18 years, respondent 12]

The most serious concern expressed by parents was that not all clients were informed *equally* about the existence of Iuvenelis. A total of 7 (35%) out of 20 participants had not received any information about Iuvenelis before the interview, and 86% (6/7) of them were from a migratory background. One parent from a migratory background did use the client portal to manage appointments but was not aware that she could also reread visit reports:

If I had not been here, I would not have known anything about it at all, and that's a shame. [Mother, 1 child, respondent 2.3]

The parents presented many options for improving communication. Emphasizing the importance of providing more equal information to all population groups, 1 parent offered to participate in information meetings with mothers from migratory backgrounds:

Some mothers (with a migratory background) are unsure about their language proficiency. For them, it is easier to do it through the internet. [Mother, 3 children, respondent 11]

Timeliness

The client portal's 24/7 accessibility did not contribute to *faster* access to care. However, it did provide parents and adolescents with the opportunity to ask questions or schedule appointments easily and at their *convenience*. Especially, parents valued this opportunity as *time saving*, including the immediate access to their health information without the interference of a CJG professional:

Suppose I get very anxious during the weekend about certain behaviour I observed. I would prefer to search for information right then and there, instead of sending an email and waiting several days until someone responds. I think it's a plus that I can check the client portal and ask my questions immediately. [Mother, 2 children, Respondent 7.3]

I rescheduled my appointment once through the portal. Very convenient and timesaving! [Mother, 2 children, respondent 7.2]

Efficiency

In Iuvenelis, all CJG professionals had access to all relevant information stored in the same place, which was considered an advantage contributing to efficiency. Consequently, the parents and the adolescents did not have to repeat their stories when visiting a new professional in the CJG:

I think it is very convenient when you visit several people in the same period that all information is in one place. So, they can make use of each other's information. [Female adolescent, 15 years, respondent 6]

However, both parents and adolescents saw room for improvement in expanding Iuvenelis toward other care providers and in a more active role for themselves in uploading information from other care providers in their client portal. They felt that if all their health data were stored in one place and accessible to all their care providers, it would be easier for both

care providers and clients themselves to create a clear overview and manage their care:

I hope lines between all professionals will be shorter. Eventually, I hope my children will have all their health data in this record, that this will be their complete and only health record. [Mother, 2 children, respondent 8.3]

Effectiveness

Parents and adolescents did not associate using Iuvenelis with effectiveness. Although a fully accessible health record allows clients to engage in the management of their care process, none of the participants commented on the actual care process and whether the right choices had been made.

Parents and adolescents did comment on the process and quality of reporting: they felt that reporting quality could be improved. Some reports contained mistakes, and some were incomplete or missing. One parent expressed the concern that reports were sometimes prejudiced, elaborating on risk factors and neglecting protective factors:

They only report what is wrong. Do you know what could really help? If you would read in your child's record what is going well if someone would write down what a lovely little boy he is. [Mother, 2 children, respondent 9]

Discussion

Principal Findings

With this study, we explored how parents and adolescents visiting preventive health care and social care perceived the quality of care when using Iuvenelis. Both the experiences of active users and the expectations or first impressions of nonusers were included. The results suggest that using Iuvenelis contributed to some, but not all, aspects of quality of care. On the positive side, parents and adolescents felt better informed and expressed more engagement in the care process than before introduction of Iuvenelis. They felt more in control of their health data, reported having faster and simpler access to their health information, and found it easier to manage appointments or ask questions at their convenience. Portal usability and data safety were regarded as high, and interdisciplinary collaboration in Iuvenelis was considered to enhance efficiency. The parents from a migratory background expected that portal access would give them a better understanding of and more control over their care processes.

However, parents expressed concerns about possible unequal access due to a lack of information for the parents from a migratory background. Furthermore, both parents and adolescents saw room for improvement in the broader interdisciplinary use of Iuvenelis. Finally, they felt that effectiveness could be improved by more complete reporting regarding protective factors as well as risk factors.

Comparison With Prior Work

Overall Contribution to Quality of Care

Previous research investigating quality of care in relation to using PAEHRs predominantly focused on adult health care. These studies reported largely the same outcomes as our study, although described from a care provider's perspective. Using a PAEHR was reported to contribute to person centeredness [7,39,40], safety, and efficiency [16,39,40]. Contrary to this study, prior studies also show a positive impact of using a PAEHR on effectiveness [16,39,40]. Some studies report that patient portals enhance timeliness through messaging functionalities or quicker access to results [41-45].

Person Centeredness and Professional Perspective

Some participants emphasized the importance of a person-centered professional attitude, which they considered fundamental for Iuvenelis' contribution to quality of care. When professionals reported respectfully in Iuvenelis, this enhanced the client's trust in their care providers, whereas earlier experiences with professionals not respecting a client's privacy damaged that trust. An extensive review by Scholl et al [46] generated a patient-centered care model that places a professional's attitude central in the delivery of person-centered care. In this model, delivering patient-centered care relies on professionals embracing a person-centered attitude characterized by respecting a patient's unique preferences and needs, building a professional-patient relationship based on equality, and viewing a patient's health from a biopsychosocial perspective [46]. Leeuwis and Aarts [47] stated that complex interventions, such as technological innovations, usually require change on different levels. These changes, on a technological, organizational, and professional level, are considered interdependent [47]. In this case, implementing a PAEHR to enhance person centeredness is not only about introducing the technological tool; the implementation needs to address professional attitude and behavior as well. In turn, changes in professional behavior and attitude require adjustments at the organizational or institutional level. These interdependencies should be anticipated when organizations start implementing a PAEHR, and the necessary changes on an organizational and professional level should be planned and facilitated in addition to the development and implementation of the tool itself.

Equity

Equity emerged in this study as an issue of concern because most participants with a migratory background appeared to be unaware of the existence of a client portal, as opposed to 1 participant with a native background. Diving a bit deeper into this, anecdotal evidence may suggest that professionals hesitated to inform clients about the existence of the client portal when they noticed that a client's knowledge of Dutch was limited. Unawareness of the existence of a patient portal has been reported as a main barrier for using a patient portal [48,49] and could be resolved by provider encouragement, which is an important contributor to portal use [50-52]. However, when providers selectively encourage certain groups of people to use a patient portal and neglect others, they could enhance disparity. Previous research shows that persons living in vulnerable

circumstances, such as lower-educated people or persons from a migratory background, make less use of patient portals than average [17,42,53-58]. The literature on the digital divide reports that social exclusion can lead to digital exclusion and that the introduction of new technology then might unintentionally reinforce already existing health disparities [59-61]. In total, 2 studies investigating a provider's role in patient portal use reported that professionals play a role in this reinforcement: higher-educated and White patients were more likely to report being encouraged by health care providers to use a client portal than lower-educated patients and patients from migratory backgrounds [50,51]. Antonio et al [62] stated in a review that "healthcare providers' prejudgments may further exclude populations that are already underserved."

This is an important issue to address because research shows that people, especially those living in vulnerable circumstances, experience benefits from using a PAEHR [42,43,63,64]. In our study, parents from migratory backgrounds reported that rereading their health information and sharing it with family members or friends would provide them with a better understanding of the care process and would increase their engagement in care. We concluded that ensuring that all clients are equally informed about the existence of a client portal is not only necessary to prevent further disparities but could even diminish existing disparities [65]. This may require adapted measures for specific population groups, for example, using informal meetings with the parents from migrant backgrounds to inform them in their language about Iuvenelis. In addition, professionals need to be made aware of the risk of the digital divide and of their crucial role in conquering this phenomenon.

Confidentiality

On the basis of the known bottlenecks to developing PAEHRs for adolescents [26,27], we expected data safety, confidentiality, and privacy to be an issue of concern for at least some of our participants. However, surprisingly, participants did not express concerns about their data safety. Adolescents did value highly how their confidentiality was protected and reported that this contributed to their trust in their care provider. Comparably, recent studies investigating adolescent use of PAEHRs suggest that adolescents are not concerned about their confidentiality when using a PAEHR [8,13,18,23]. A recent review investigated the experiences of parents and adolescents using a PAEHR in hospital, primary, and mental health care settings versus the expectations of parents and adolescents without access to a PAEHR. In this review, the authors found that parents and adolescents without access to a PAEHR anticipated confidentiality issues when using a PAEHR, whereas parents and adolescents using a PAEHR did not experience these issues [66]. In a similar vein, research that compared professionals' general concerns about using PAEHRs beforehand with experiences after a period of using a PAEHR shows that anticipated worries were not always justified. For example, an expected increase in workload and excessively anxious patients did not occur after introducing PAEHRs [67-69]. Confidentiality issues could have been one of the expected problems that did not evolve. Another explanation of the contrast between expected bottlenecks and real experiences may be that the explicit focus in the literature on confidentiality issues has

initiated specific awareness for this topic during the development of Iuvenelis and has led to the implementation of successful solutions.

Integrated Care

The participants considered the interdisciplinary use of Iuvenelis a contribution to efficiency and even expressed a need to expand the use of Iuvenelis to other disciplines outside the CJG. This would allow them to view all their health data in one place. Parents and adolescents stated that, in their opinion, this would contribute to efficiency. However, with their remarks, participants draw upon an additional aspect of quality of care, integrated care, that the WHO has added recently [1,70]. The WHO defines integrated care as "providing care that is coordinated across levels and providers and makes available the full range of health services throughout the life course." The parents and the adolescents even challenged the CJG organizations to extend opportunities for interdisciplinary collaboration within Iuvenelis, facilitating them to gather all their health information here. With that challenge, the parents and the adolescents confirmed the value of the Dutch aim for integrated care in child health care and youth care [71]. This aim is also reflected in the recently established Healthy and Active Living Agreement between the Dutch government, municipalities, and public health associations [72], although it is not yet common practice throughout the country.

Differences Between Parents' and Adolescents' Experiences

Although parents' and adolescents' perceptions were similar in many aspects, differences were reported as well. Parents considered it more important to correct errors than adolescents and valued the web-based option to ask questions and manage appointments more highly than adolescents. Comparably, recent studies among adolescent patients show that adolescents are less likely to speak up about mistakes in their records than their parents [73,74], and are more reluctant to send direct messages in the PAEHR to their caregivers than adults [13,23]. Both parents and adolescents liked to share record content with their close ones, but adolescents also valued the opportunity to shield specific content from their parents when needed. Adolescents considered deciding who had access to their health information vital to exercising ownership over their health information. In line with this, a recent review reports that teens believe they should have control over what remains confidential in their medical records and what their parents can access through proxy portal accounts [23].

Strengths and Limitations

Recruiting a well-balanced group of participants in this qualitative study was a strength of this study, compared to our previous studies on Iuvenelis, where adolescents were represented in small numbers and participants with migratory backgrounds could not be included [75,76]. The inclusion of the most important characteristics in this study enabled us to explore different client perspectives. Choosing a qualitative research design made it possible to collect rich, in-depth information about the client's expectations of and actual experiences with using Iuvenelis.

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, organizing focus groups proved to be difficult. Although some triple interviews could be organized, most participants were interviewed individually or in couples. Consequently, our study lacked some of the interaction that is usually generated in larger groups, which could be considered a limitation [77]. We partly managed to overcome this limitation because we collected and analyzed data in a continuously iterative process. This meant that topics that were brought up in the first interview could be explored further in the following interviews.

As JB had a role as a policy advisor in the CJG, she was able to introduce the participants to Iuvenelis who were not yet acquainted with the client portal, which allowed us to include more parents with a migratory background and to add valuable information to our data. However, combining a portal demonstration with an interview about how clients perceived the quality of care using this portal might have created a respondent bias: the interviewer's positive attitude toward the client portal could have evoked socially desirable answers. To enhance trustworthiness, the interviewers followed the interview guide as closely as possible, allowing some adaptation to the conversational flow. A member check was conducted, transcripts

were coanalyzed with a researcher with no connections with Iuvenelis or the CJG, and reporting followed the COREQ checklist [32,78].

Conclusions

Using Iuvenelis is expected to contribute to experienced quality of care from the perspectives of both parents and adolescents, specifically to the aspects of person centeredness, timeliness, and safety. Parents and adolescents feel better informed, experience a greater sense of ownership, and are satisfied with data security and portal usability. Clients also report that using Iuvenelis contributes to integrated care. Some quality aspects, however, such as equity in portal access, still need addressing. In general, client information about the portal needs to be improved, specifically focusing on people in vulnerable circumstances, such as those from migratory backgrounds. In addition, to maximize the potential benefit of using Iuvenelis, stimulating a person-centered attitude among professionals is important. With our study, we have investigated parents' and adolescents' perspectives regarding all domains of quality of care. However, considering the small number of adolescent participants, adding quantitative data from a structured survey could strengthen the available evidence.

Data Availability

As interview transcripts contain sensitive information, these will not be published in a separate data set.

Authors' Contributions

JB, EdV, and AH-N conceived and designed the study. JB and CAdM collected and analyzed the data. JB drafted the manuscript as first author. All authors provided critical feedback, helped shape the analysis and manuscript, and have read and approved the final manuscript.

Conflicts of Interest

None declared.

Multimedia Appendix 1

Completed COREQ (Consolidated Criteria for Reporting Qualitative Studies) checklist.

[[DOCX File, 29 KB - jopm_v16i1e50092_app1.docx](#)]

Multimedia Appendix 2

Interview topic list.

[[DOCX File, 18 KB - jopm_v16i1e50092_app2.docx](#)]

Multimedia Appendix 3

Codetree, displaying all applied codes, grouped in colours around every single aspect of quality of care.

[[PDF File \(Adobe PDF File\), 652 KB - jopm_v16i1e50092_app3.pdf](#)]

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Abbreviations

CJG: Centre for Youth and Family

COREQ: Consolidated Criteria for Reporting Qualitative Studies

PAEHR: patient-accessible electronic health record

WHO: World Health Organization

Edited by S Woods; submitted 10.07.23; peer-reviewed by J Hagström, Y Chu; comments to author 30.08.23; revised version received 11.12.23; accepted 20.03.24; published 23.04.24.

Please cite as:

Benjamins J, de Vet E, de Mortier CA, Haveman-Nies A

The Effect of Using a Client-Accessible Health Record on Perceived Quality of Care: Interview Study Among Parents and Adolescents
J Particip Med 2024;16:e50092

URL: <https://jopm.jmir.org/2024/1/e50092>

doi: [10.2196/50092](https://doi.org/10.2196/50092)

PMID: [38652532](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/38652532/)

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Original Paper

Getting to Know Your Patient: Content Analysis of Patients' Answers to a Questionnaire for Promoting Person-Centered Care

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Abstract

Background: Person-centered care (PCC) encourages patients to actively participate in health care, thus facilitating care that fits the life of the patient. Therefore, health care professionals (HCPs) need to know the patient. As part of a broad policy for improving PCC, a digital questionnaire (“We would like to know you”) consisting of 5 questions has previously been developed to help HCPs to get to know the patient with the help of patient and staff involvement.

Objective: The purpose of this study was to provide insight into the content and aims of the questionnaire to understand its potential and usability.

Methods: We conducted a qualitative, retrospective content analysis of patients' answers using NVivo Pro (QSR International). The questionnaire was used in the outpatient neuro-oncology department of a Dutch academic hospital.

Results: Of 374 invited patients, 78 (20.9%) completed the questionnaire. We selected a sample of 42 (54%) of the 78 patients. Patients used a median of 16 (IQR 7-27) words per question, and most answers were easily interpretable. When asked about important activities, social activities, sports, or maintaining a normal life were most frequently mentioned. Patients wrote about fear of the disease, its possible influence on life, or fear of the future in general. Patients wanted HCPs to know about their care and communication preferences or shared personal information. They formulated expectations about effective treatment, communication, and the care process.

Conclusions: The questionnaire seems usable because patients provide interpretable answers that take little time to read, which HCPs can use to personalize care. Our study shows the potential of the questionnaire to help deliver PCC.

(*J Particip Med* 2024;16:e48573) doi:[10.2196/48573](https://doi.org/10.2196/48573)

KEYWORDS

person-centered care; shared decision-making; patient engagement; positive health

Introduction

Background

Person-centered care (PCC) is a model of care in which the active participation of patients in their own health care is encouraged. PCC is about providing holistic care to patients and not only about focusing on the patient's disease to facilitate

high-quality health care. A holistic view, taking the socioeconomic environment and psychological status into consideration, is important to obtain an overall understanding of the patient's illness and is necessary for high-quality care [1].

Several definitions of PCC have been presented in the literature. Morgan and Yoder [2] defined PCC as follows: “PCC is a holistic (bio-psychosocial-spiritual) approach to delivering care

that is respectful and individualized, allowing negotiation of care, and offering choice through a therapeutic relationship where persons are empowered to be involved in health decisions at whatever level is desired by that individual who is receiving the care.” Street [3] defines PCC using the combination of four domains: “(1) biopsychosocial approach to medical care, (2) patient as person/sharing power and responsibilities, (3) therapeutic alliance, and (4) coordinated care.” Listening to patients’ needs, values, and important topics is essential in health care. In the oath that new physicians take, they pledge to acknowledge patients’ values and needs and, in the Dutch oath especially, to listen to their patients [4,5].

Therefore, it is essential for a health care professional (HCP) to get to know the patient and to enhance communication with the patient to improve the mutual understanding of health care options and preferences. The acknowledged communication model to incorporate patients’ perspectives is shared decision-making (SDM). However, using SDM does not always mean that care is person centered. Generally, in SDM, discussing the patients’ preferences occurs after the HCP explains the available options and discusses the pros and cons [6]. SDM can result in a conversation where the HCP simply offers information and choices and cannot see the available options from the patient’s perspective [7]. Previously conducted studies have shown that health care interventions based on the patient narrative and getting to know the patient can be used to stimulate PCC in health care [8-10]. In addition, we have reason to believe that it is important to start the medical encounter by identifying what matters to the patient [11], so that the patient and the HCP together can decide which option is best in the patient’s context [7,12,13]. Barry and Edgman-Levitan [12] state that it is about teaching HCPs how to be effective partners in care. They specifically mention the potential of health care technologies that focus on better understanding patients’ experiences and eliciting patients’ needs and preferences.

In a large, Dutch academic hospital, as part of standard care in neuro-oncology, a technological initiative was introduced to facilitate PCC in daily health care. On the basis of the needs and preferences of stakeholders, patients, and HCPs of the hospital, a new, digital patient questionnaire “We would like to know you” was implemented, consisting of 5 questions. The aim of this initiative was to gather the health care preferences and needs of patients in a manner that would enable HCPs to seamlessly incorporate these needs and perspectives into medical consultations. It also aimed to provide patients the opportunity to express what they considered important for them. The initiative focused on enabling HCPs to use this information to make the consultation more receptive to patients’ contexts, needs, and preferences. [Multimedia Appendix 1](#) shows the format of the questionnaire administered to the patients.

Objective

An evaluation is needed to obtain information about the usefulness of this PCC tool in health care. Insight into the content of the patients’ written answers and its possible relevance for getting to know the patient is currently lacking. It is unknown whether respondents are able to answer the questions and whether these answers are interpretable. This

study filled this knowledge gap by evaluating patients’ answers to the questionnaire “We would like to know you.”

Methods

We conducted a retrospective content analysis using a qualitative, narrative research method to explore in depth the content of the questionnaire “We would like to know you” (hereafter, referred to as “the questionnaire”).

Context

The questionnaire was developed at a large university medical center in the Netherlands. It was introduced in December 2020 as part of standard care in the outpatient neuro-oncology clinic. This department specializes in oncological diagnostics and treatment of the central nervous system.

The questionnaire was developed before commencing this study as part of a broad policy of the academic hospital to improve and facilitate PCC in daily health care practice. An internal assessment was conducted using personal interviews and a patient participation network meeting from December 2020 to April 2021. The personal interviews focused on what patients thought was important personal information to share with their HCPs. They were also asked how they wanted to share this information. HCPs answered questions about how they wanted to receive patient narratives. Overall, 21 individuals were interviewed: 10 (48%) patients and 11 (52%) HCPs. The questionnaire was further developed at a network meeting for patient participation. At this meeting, 22 members were present: 6 (27%) patients; 10 (45%) hospital employees, including HCPs; 4 (18%) students; and 2 (9%) members of the hospital’s client council. In addition, input from a neuro-oncology patient panel (n=10) was collected. Overall, 7 (70%) patients, 2 (20%) HCPs, and 1 (10%) researcher were present. All members of this panel were patients currently in treatment at that time or patients who had been treated for a neuro-oncological disease. A selection of 4 possible PCC interventions was discussed. The group decided to use the questionnaire and further discussed whether the topics of the questions and the additional information buttons were suitable for the context of the neuro-oncology.

This input was used to develop the questionnaire. No alterations to the questions were made based on the discussion.

The Research Instrument

In this study, the questionnaire was further developed in the neuro-oncology patient panel (n=11). Overall, 8 (73%) patients or former patients, 2 (18%) HCPs, and 1 (9%) researcher participated. Again, the content of the questions and the information buttons were discussed. In addition, the format was further discussed. No alterations regarding the questions and information buttons were made. During the meeting, special attention was given to optimize the questionnaire so that it could easily be used by the patients in the clinical context and was embedded in the existing health care pathway.

This study’s questionnaire consists of 5 questions and an information button for each question. These information buttons were added to help patients answer the questions when they

needed guidance. The 5 questions of the questionnaire and the content of the information buttons are presented in [Table 1](#).

Table 1. Questions of the “We would like to know you” questionnaire.

Questions	Information buttons
1—What are important activities, now or in the future?	You can think of work, hobbies, or other ways you like to spend your time (traveling, sports, family and friends).
2—Which people are important in your life, and why are they important?	You can think of your partner, children, family, neighbors, friends, or people from your community, health care center, city, or other organizations.
3—What are you worried about concerning your health?	You can think of symptoms, fatigue, fear of pain, or concerns about specific things you might not be able to do in the future.
4—What do you think is important that your health care professionals know about you?	You can think of everything in relation to your care or treatment, like: do you want your doctor to address you with sir/madam or do you prefer an informal way of communication? Do you want your doctor to show pictures to explain something? Do you always want to bring a certain person to the consultation?
5—What do you expect from your treatment at the [large academic hospital]?	You can think of the results of your treatment, a regular contact person that you can always call or ask a question via e-consultations or anything else.

An internal assessment was conducted between December 2020 and April 2021. Overall, 2 HCPs of the neuro-oncology ward personally selected patients for the questionnaire based on the presumed diagnosis of a primary brain tumor and similarity of health care pathways, which included consultations with a nurse specialist, a neuro-oncologist, and a neurosurgeon. Selected patients received an invitation to answer the questionnaire together with a general introduction e-mail from the outpatient clinic before their first appointment at the hospital. From May 2021, patients were automatically selected through an electronic health record labeling system (diagnosis-treatment combination) that used the label of primary brain tumors.

The selected patients received an invitation through the hospital’s electronic personal patient portal. Patients could answer the questions on a voluntary basis, either individually or with the help of relatives, before the first hospital visit and during the entire treatment process. It was possible to answer the questions multiple times. After submission of the patient’s answers, the content of the questionnaire was accessible to HCPs involved in the patient’s care through the personal electronic health record. During internal staff meetings, the HCPs were instructed to read the patients’ answers before the consultation and were expected to address the relevant topics derived from the patients’ answers during the consultation.

Data Collection

The data consisted of patients’ written responses to the questionnaire submitted in the period between December 2020 and August 2021. In September 2021, an HCP involved in the treatment of patients at the neuro-oncology department received a list of patients’ hospital identification numbers provided by the hospital’s IT department, which automatically registered the names of the patients who completed the questionnaire. The list consisted of patients who had started to fill in or completed the questionnaire. Because of the HCP’s involvement in treatment of the patients, the HCP had access to the electronic health records of the listed patients.

Patients’ written answers to the questionnaire were included using a sampling strategy that was based on choosing every second questionnaire on the list provided by the IT department during 3 sessions. The HCP accessed the written patient answers

through the electronic health record and extracted data by pseudoanonymizing them into plain text fragments. To protect privacy, the treating HCP (TS) provided the researchers with anonymized patients’ answers, excluding information such as names, locations, and work specifications. Patients’ characteristics were collected by the treating HCP and were also presented to the researcher (JHKB).

The questionnaires were included based on their number and eligibility. They were eligible when the patients’ written answers were submitted between December 2020 and August 2021 and if the patients were still under treatment at the neuro-oncology department. The HCP did not extract written patient answers if the main treating physician was not from the neuro-oncology department. If written patient answers were not eligible, the HCP used the patient’s identification number next on the list and assessed whether the written patient answer to the questionnaire was eligible.

Data Analysis

The aim of the analysis was to understand how patients interpreted the questions and whether their answers would help HCPs to get to know their patients. Therefore, we used a content analysis approach to study the answers provided by patients [14]. We decided that the level of analysis was themes and predefined a set of categories based on the 5 questions in the survey. A researcher (JHKB) with qualitative research experience collated the answers of patients by survey question and read the answers carefully. The aim was to identify how the patients used the categories (survey questions), which would allow us to decide the usefulness and interpretability of the survey questions. Therefore, the collated answers were coded, and themes were identified. A coding tree was developed using NVivo Pro (QSR International), allowing for both deductive (predefined categories based on survey questions) and inductive codes. The inductive codes were added to reflect themes the respondents frequently addressed; they were added throughout the coding process. Practically, the first author conducted most of the work but did so in collaboration with the other authors (HWW, JJMvD, and AJ). Another researcher (HWW), skilled in narrative research, coded half of the patients’ answers independently to allow for coder triangulation. Double-coded text and the resulting coding trees were discussed, and a final

tree was agreed upon. In the next step, the codes were grouped: codes were merged into existing higher-level codes, or new higher-level codes were created to group lower-level codes. Saturation was achieved at the level of main themes. The preliminary results were also discussed with the patient panel.

The quotations used in this paper were translated into English; the original quotes were in Dutch.

Ethical Considerations

Owing to the anonymized and retrospective nature of the study, ethics approval from the REC was not necessary according to Dutch law.

Results

Description of the Sample

According to the IT register, 374 patients received an invitation to complete the questionnaire between December 2020 and August 2021. Overall, 20.9% (78/374) of the patients completed the questionnaire and saved their written answers. Between December 2020 and April 2021, when patients were personally selected by HCPs for the questionnaire, 41, (41/374, 10.9%)

patients received the questionnaire, 54% (22/41) answered the questions, and none (0/41, 0%) completed the questionnaire more than once.

From May 2021 to August 2021, a total of 333 (333/374, 89%) individuals were automatically provided access to the questionnaire based on a financial label of the diagnosis-treatment combination in their electronic health record. Of this group, 16.8% (56/333) of the patients completed it.

A sample of 42 (54%) written answers was selected from 78 completed questionnaires. Of this sample of 42 patients, 1 (2%) had not completed a single question, 3 (7%) answered 4 questions, and 1 (2%) answered only question 1. All 5 questions were answered by 88% (37/42) of the patients. All patients (42/42, 100%) completed the questionnaire for the first time, and none of them (0/42, 0%) completed the questionnaire more than once. The characteristics of the 42 patients are presented in [Table 2](#). Log data were not registered by the hospital. Therefore, information about patients' duration for completing the questionnaire, how often and for how long the information button was used, and how often and for how long an HCP looked at the questionnaire could not be collected.

Table 2. Patient characteristics (n=42).

Characteristics	Values, n (%)
Sex	
Male	20 (48)
Female	22 (52)
Age group (y)	
<40	8 (19)
40-50	4 (10)
51-60	16 (38)
>60	14 (33)
Type of disease	
Meningioma	8 (19)
Glioma	26 (62)
Glioblastoma	19 (45)
Brain metastases	5 (12)
Other	2 (5)
Unknown	1 (2)
Recurrence of the disease	8 (19)

General Impression About the Written Answers

The average use of words was quite similar for all 5 questions, but there was a spread in the number of words that patients used. The numbers are presented in [Table 3](#). Almost all patients were able to answer the questions and provided personal information.

Most patients' answers were intelligible and interpretable. In some cases, the interpretation was more difficult. For example, a person did not use punctuation, and another person seemed distrustful, possibly as a consequence of their neurological condition.

Table 3. Word count.

Questions	Average length of answers (words) ^a	Number of words used, median (IQR)	Spread of words ^b , range
1—What are important activities, now or in the future?	25	12 (7-29)	1-298
2—Which people are important in your life, and why are they important?	25	15 (6-24)	0-218
3—What are you worried about concerning your health?	27	17 (8-25)	0-220
4—What do you think is important that your health care professionals know about you?	33	16 (9-38)	0-280
5—What do you expect from your treatment at the [large academic hospital]?	20	17 (7-24)	0-90

^aValues are rounded to the nearest whole number.

^bVariation between the number of words used in the written answers.

Nearly all patients stayed close to the topic of the questions. Only in a few cases, a part of the answers entailed a topic that did not directly relate to the question and included extra, personal information. Overall, 4 (10%) of the 42 answers were elaborate, consisting of >200 words.

Most patients described things that were specific to their situation. They provided additional information, such as the name and age of their children, specific activities, personal concerns, or information about their individual situation. Some patients wrote more concisely, using general language.

Question 1: What Are Important Activities, Now or In the Future?

When answering the first question, many people wrote about leisure activities and other social activities. Sports and family activities were mentioned most frequently. Slightly less than half of the respondents wrote about their job as an important activity. Some described driving a car or doing housework independently. A part of the respondents wrote about activities they wanted to do or keep doing in the future:

Being able to keep doing the daily housework chores including buying groceries. Exercise and cycling and going for a walk. Going on a trip with the camper (I do not drive myself). Maintaining social relationships and participating in the [organization]. [Participant 18]

Some patients did not mention a specific activity but wrote about "maintaining normal activities" or "being independent."

Question 2: Which People Are Important in Your Life, and Why Are They Important?

The people considered to be most important were the partner, children, family, and friends. Other people mentioned were colleagues, neighbors, and other acquaintances.

More than half of the patients provided a reason why particular people were important. Respondents noted different reasons, varying from "loving the person," "being physically and/or mentally supported by them," or "having fun together":

My (grand)children ([number of] sons, [number of] daughters in law, [number of] grandchildren, [number] on its way). They are my everything, I am

incredibly proud of them. [They give me] support and care with lots of things, vice versa. [Participant 14]

Question 3: What Are You Worried About Concerning Your Health?

The most frequently expressed worries were about the possible influence of the disease on the patient's life. Some patients were concerned about their health declining in general. People were worried about the development of specific physical complaints, such as brain damage, decrease in energy level, or neurological deficits. Some explicitly mentioned that they were worried about how treatment would affect their lives; others mentioned the possible influence of the disease on their loved ones. In addition, some wrote about the fear of cognitive impairment, fear of "not being themselves anymore," or being scared to "lose control of their minds." In addition, the influence of the disease on undertaking activities was mentioned. People worried about whether they would still be able to do their job, live independently, or stay mobile:

My disease and the uncertainty it brings. Will I be able to do my job the way I used to do it? How will the process [of working again] go? Will I be my old self regarding my energy level and will I be a nice partner for my girlfriend and a good father for my son? [Participant 7]

Some worried about the disease itself. They felt that the tumor was a "thing" that was not supposed to be there and used language that referred to their disease as an entity on its own.

Some answers were about "getting better." People were worried about whether the disease was curable and whether "everything would be alright" or that they may not have "enough time." Furthermore, a general fear about what the future has in store was seen.

A few of the patients shared that they had no concerns, and a person explicitly did not answer the question because they wanted to stay positive. Some patients wrote the worries that they prioritized:

Physical [issues] do not bother me too much at the moment, I can cope with anything as long as I can be myself and my brain keeps working properly. Another great worry is that soon I won't be able to function

anymore and so as a freelancer I won't have a job, income or insurance. [Participant 31]

Question 4: What Do You Think Is Important That Your HCPs Know About You?

Preferences regarding health care were frequently mentioned. An important topic was communication preferences. Respondents wrote about “clear or transparent communication” and “explaining medical information,” sometimes with pictures. Some noted that they wanted “to be addressed casually.” A number of patients wanted to take someone with them to the consultation:

I want to be addressed informally[.] I like it when people use humor and make jokes, also about my disease and treatment[.]...I want people to be honest with me and my partner about the treatment and prognosis[.] Openness and honesty is important to me. [Participant 10]

In addition to discussing communication preferences, patients provided insight into their needs from and attitude toward treatment and overall health care. Some wrote that they would do anything to stay as healthy as possible, whereas a patient described the importance of having a choice:

I do not want to get every treatment, I want to think about the treatment and I want to have a choice... [Participant 3]

In addition to preferences, some provided HCPs with personal information. They described how they felt, for instance, being nervous or feeling shocked by the test results. Patients also wrote about their social situation, personal characteristics, previous diseases, or current physical situation.

Question 5: What Do You Expect From Your Treatment?

Approximately half of the patients wrote about expectations regarding their treatment goals. Some wrote about “the removal of the tumor” and the hope for “curing the disease”, or they wanted “the treatment to be effective”. A few were afraid of possible side effects:

First of all the removal of the [disease]. And that the treatment does not cause long-term harmful side effects. I don't want to suffer from nasty side effects of a treatment like I did [number] years ago. [Participant 13]

Some mentioned that they hoped to “go back to their normal lives” or wanted to “maintain quality of life.” Wishes regarding the end of life were also written. Some wanted their HCP to be professional or wanted their close ones to be involved in their care. A few specifically expected guidance from HCPs throughout the care process.

Communication was mentioned as an important topic in the answers to both questions 4 and 5. Some patients expressed their desire for “clear, transparent” communication or wrote about a regular point of contact:

It is nice to talk to the same person every time, but I am aware that this is not always possible. I always

want to know what is going on with me, openness and clarity. Even if you cannot give me an answer yet, otherwise I cannot deal with it, let alone accept “it.” And yes, I want to be able to contact you for when I am having questions, it doesn't really matter how. [Participant 14]

Information Button

Some written answers used the same words or suggested the same topics as those in the text of the information button ([Table 1](#)). For question 4, approximately one-third of the patients specifically mentioned their wish to bring someone to the consultation. Others wrote that they wanted to be addressed informally or wanted an HCP to show pictures while explaining the medical information.

Slightly less than half of the respondents wrote about the result of the treatment while answering question 5, and a few patients mentioned a regular contact person. A person seemed to directly react to the information button:

I already have a regular contact person, very nice. Pull out all the stops to get better. [Participant 9]

Discussion

Principal Findings

This study showed that patients addressed a variety of topics related to their care. Frequently mentioned topics for important activities were leisure activities, such as social activities or sports. Some mentioned their job, and others wrote more generally about maintaining normal activities. Many respondents said that their partner, children, other family members, and friends were important people. If patients provided a reason why these people were important to them, they often wrote about loving the person or feeling supported by them. The possible influence of the disease on their health was a concern expressed most frequently by the patients. The written answers contained concerns about the effect of the disease on their physical and mental health or the effect on undertaking activities. Getting better in general was also an issue that was mentioned. For some, the tumor itself, being a thing that does not belong in someone's head or body, made them anxious. Others wrote about fear of the future in general. The respondents wanted their HCP to know about their health care preferences, such as their treatment goals or communication preferences. Others shared information about their personal life, such as their social situation, personal characteristics, or physical situation. Expectations regarding effective treatment and the care process, including HCPs' attitudes, the involvement of close ones, and decision-making, were emphasized.

This content appears to be relevant for health care, even if it is not always surprising. The addressed topics show similarity with the important factors regarding patients' perception about high-quality communication [15-18]. The questionnaire provides an opportunity for patients to think about what they consider important for their health care. Moreover, it can help HCPs to follow up on these topics during the consultation. The questionnaire can be a starting point for HCPs to explore patients' wishes, needs, and preferences relevant for a

person-centered approach to care, allowing for a phenomenological approach to illness, to supplement the traditional, naturalistic medical approach.

Our results show similarities to the results of the study by Zwakman et al [19]. Zwakman et al [19] conducted a content analysis of a preference form as part of advance care planning for patients with advanced stage cancer. The preference form has questions that are comparable with questions 1, 3, 4, and 5 of this study. Both in the study by Zwakman et al [19] and in this study, maintaining a normal life and doing everyday activities were important topics. Moreover, patients valued spending time with family and friends. In both studies, patient populations expressed concerns about the effect of the treatment and the disease's progression. Furthermore, staying independent and clear communication were important topics. However, in our study, respondents wrote less about end-of-life arrangements and alternative treatment options, possibly owing to the difference in treatment phase. Patients expressed a more precise expectation regarding their care in our study, perhaps because the question was asked more directly.

Overall, approximately 20.9% (78/374) of patients completed the questionnaire. Between December 2020 and April 2021, the percentage of completed questionnaires was higher, namely 54% (22/41). In this first phase, an internal assessment was conducted, in which the questionnaire was actively promoted. The low response percentage after April 2021 suggests that HCPs' awareness is important and can stimulate patients to complete the questionnaire, making the questionnaire potentially more usable. Other reasons that could have influenced the response percentage were unawareness of the patient portal, difficulties in finding the questionnaire, or not wanting to answer the questions.

The selected sample showed an average word count of approximately 26 words per question, and the median number of words used was between 12 and 17. Time constraints for HCPs are a known barrier to the implementation of PCC interventions [20,21]. In this sample, patients mostly used a limited number of words, making it easy to read quickly for HCPs. Most patients were able to respond to the 5 questions and wrote an interpretable answer. Most stayed close to the topics of the questions, and some patients wrote additional information.

The information button was developed to provide guidance to patients. Our results suggest that the information buttons might influence the patients' answers. The respondents sometimes write about particular topics mentioned in the information

button, such as bringing a person to the consultation, explaining medical information with pictures, talking about a regular contact person, or having expectations about the result of treatment. Altering the text of the information button could improve the relevance of the information the questionnaire yields regarding daily health care. An example could be adjusting the information button's text for question 4 by adding treatment preferences as a suggested topic.

Strengths and Limitations

The strength of this study lies in the data and the thoroughness of the content analysis. Apart from the anonymized parts of the text, we used the patients' exact words and punctuation as the treating HCP would read it. Moreover, we assessed the answers to the questionnaire regarding concise versus detailed writing and digression from and elaboration about the topic and estimated the ease of interpretation.

This study also had some limitations. First, this patient population is specific. Patients with neuro-oncological conditions have a very serious, often life-limiting disease that requires high-intensity care. It is possible that other topics found in this study may be different for other patient populations. Second, patients included in this study were affected by different histological diagnoses with therefore different prognoses and treatments for their diseases. In this study, this was not analyzed specifically. Third, our sample size of 42 patients is limited. Nevertheless, it still provides useful insights and can help to elucidate the questionnaire's ability to improve PCC in daily health care.

Conclusions

This questionnaire helps to stimulate patients to write about things that they consider important. By reading the patient's answers before the consultation, HCPs can start the medical encounter with more insight into what matters to the patient. This is a major component of what determines the quality of care according to patients [22] and thus may facilitate care to become truly person centered.

This study can help the further development and implementation of the questionnaire, for instance, by adjusting the information buttons. For future studies, it may be important to repeat the questionnaire later in the care process to evaluate the possible changes in patients' answers. The questionnaire could benefit from future studies that focus on the experiences of patients and HCPs with the questionnaire, its possible effect on the medical consultation, and the evaluation of facilitators of and barriers to its implementation in daily health care practice.

Data Availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Authors' Contributions

JHKB contributed to the design of the study, collected the data, analyzed and interpreted the data, drafted the paper, and approved the final paper as submitted. HWW contributed to the design of the study, analyzed and interpreted the data, critically reviewed and revised the paper, and approved the final paper as submitted. TS contributed to the collection of the data, critically reviewed and revised the paper, and approved the final paper as submitted. AJ drafted and edited the paper with a special focus on

methodology and approved the final paper as submitted. JJMvD contributed to the design of the study, interpreted the data, drafted and edited the paper, and approved the final paper as submitted.

Conflicts of Interest

None declared.

Multimedia Appendix 1

Format of the "We would like to know you" questionnaire administered to patients.

[[DOC File , 81 KB - jopm_v16i1e48573_app1.doc](#)]

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Abbreviations

HCP: health care professional

PCC: person-centered care

SDM: shared decision-making

Edited by J Wald; submitted 01.05.23; peer-reviewed by A Oostdyk, M Wright, R Marshall; comments to author 30.06.23; revised version received 08.11.23; accepted 03.01.24; published 04.03.24.

Please cite as:

Bergers JHK, Wessels-Wynia H, Seute T, Janssens A, van Delden JJM

Getting to Know Your Patient: Content Analysis of Patients' Answers to a Questionnaire for Promoting Person-Centered Care
J Particip Med 2024;16:e48573

URL: <https://jopm.jmir.org/2024/1/e48573>

doi: [10.2196/48573](https://doi.org/10.2196/48573)

PMID: [38437017](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/38437017/)

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Original Paper

Investigating Patient Satisfaction Through Web-Based Reviews of Norwegian Dentists: Quantitative Study Using the Meaning Extraction Method

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Abstract

Background: Challenging encounters in health care professions, including in dentistry, are relatively common. Challenging encounters can be defined as stressful or emotional situations involving patients that could impact both treatment outcomes and patients' experiences. Through written web-based reviews, patients can share their experiences with health care providers, and these posts can be a useful source for investigating patient satisfaction and their experiences of challenging encounters.

Objective: This study aims to identify dominant themes from patient-written, web-based reviews of dentists and investigate how these themes are related to patient satisfaction with dental treatment.

Methods: The study data consisted of 11,764 reviews written by dental patients, which included 1- to 5-star ratings on overall satisfaction and free-text comments. The free-text comments were analyzed using Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count software, and the meaning extraction method was used to group words into thematic categories. These themes were used as variables in a multilevel logistic regression analysis to predict patient satisfaction.

Results: Eight themes emerged from the analyses, of which 6 (75%)—*explanation* (odds ratio [OR] 2.56, 95% CI 2.16-3.04; $P < .001$), *assurance* (OR 3.61, 95% CI 2.57-5.06; $P < .001$), *performance assessment* (OR 2.17, 95% CI 1.84-2.55; $P < .001$), *professional advice* (OR 1.81, 95% CI 1.55-2.13; $P < .001$), *facilities* (OR 1.78, 95% CI 1.08-2.91; $P = .02$), and *recommendation* (OR 1.31, 95% CI 1.12-1.53; $P < .001$)—increased the odds of high patient satisfaction. The remaining themes (2/8, 25%)—*consequences of treatment need* (OR 0.24, 95% CI 0.20-0.29; $P < .001$) and *patient-centered care* (OR 0.62, 95% CI 0.52-0.74; $P < .001$)—reduced the odds of high patient satisfaction.

Conclusions: The meaning extraction method is an interesting approach to explore patients' written accounts of encounters with dental health professionals. The experiences described by patients provide insight into key elements related to patient satisfaction that can be used in the education of dental health professionals and to improve the provision of dental health services.

(*J Particip Med* 2024;16:e49262) doi:[10.2196/49262](https://doi.org/10.2196/49262)

KEYWORDS

internet use; Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count; LIWC; patient satisfaction; patient preference; challenging encounters; preventive dentistry; population surveillance

Introduction

Challenging Encounters and Patient Satisfaction

Challenging encounters in health care are not uncommon [1,2] and can be defined in various ways by individual health care providers [3]. Situations such as dealing with violent patients, “breaking bad news,” and managing demanding family members are examples of challenging situations mentioned by health care providers [4,5]. Health care providers have also referred to patients they perceive as challenging as the source of conflict, and anxious or angry patients are most often mentioned as challenging [4,6]. Studies have also defined challenging encounters as situations where patients are “causing negative feelings in physicians” [7], and challenging encounters between health care providers and patients have been linked to increased burnout and stress among health care providers [2,8]. This issue is also highly relevant in dentistry, and dentists have reported that up to 25% of their daily encounters are perceived as challenging [6]. While studies have addressed how health care providers define and experience challenging encounters, the patient experience has been explored to a lesser extent. Whether a patient has experienced a challenging encounter could be researched through use of patient satisfaction measures.

Patient satisfaction has been defined in many different ways in research through the years. In a recent literature review [9], three main definitions of patient satisfaction were identified: (1) the patients’ experience based on their expectations of a health care service and how the service met their expectations, (2) patient satisfaction defined as feedback forming the basis for the improvement of health care services, and (3) patient satisfaction defined as the patients’ perception of health care providers’ ability to provide proper care and the quality of the interpersonal relationship. Research investigating patient satisfaction has revealed inconsistent results regarding the establishment of important determinants [10]. This might be due to differing definitions of the concept of patient satisfaction among studies [9,10]. In addition, in most studies, patient satisfaction is generally reported as high; however, this could be an overstatement due to limitations in the data collection instruments, and it has been suggested that including measurements of patient dissatisfaction in the instruments may help produce a more correct picture [10]. Arguably, there is a need to include issues relevant to patients that are not predefined by health care personnel or researchers [9]. A recent literature review has criticized current methods for evaluating patient satisfaction in health care, arguing that they seem to have been adopted from consumer satisfaction models and could therefore be inappropriate in health care settings [9]. Research has shown that the most important predictor of patient satisfaction is high-quality patient communication [11]. In addition, what seems most important to patients when indicating satisfaction is the relationship between the patient and the health care personnel, as well as the perceived social abilities of the health care personnel [12]. Furthermore, a link has been found between patient satisfaction and the performance of dental health professionals [13]. Other issues, such as the availability of services (including short waiting times, access to local hospitals, and ample parking) and the technical performance of the health

care personnel, seem to matter less while still remaining important determinants of patient satisfaction [12].

Internet Research and Health Care Services

The internet provides almost unlimited user-generated content available for research, and for health researchers, it presents the opportunity to investigate the general public’s opinions and knowledge on a myriad of topics, including those related to health [14,15]. These data also enable research on social interactions (eg, the interactions between caregivers and users in web-based treatment procedures [15] through the use of natural language processing [NLP] [16]). NLP refers to the use of computational models on natural text materials to study associations between language and other variables, including the prediction of behavior or other outcomes. It is used widely in several disciplines (eg, opinion mining in sales and marketing services [14] as well as research on user-written reviews of experiences and products [17]). The methods within the field of NLP can also be used to investigate interesting health-related aspects, such as the detection of signs of clinical depression [18] and social anxiety [19]. In the broader context of health care, topics such as users’ opinions, experiences, and health literacy and competence are relevant to investigate with NLP [15]. In addition, patient-written reviews of health care services could present a major source of information relevant to health care workers.

There are currently many websites that provide patients with the opportunity to rate and write about their experiences with health care providers. While the use of social media as a platform for health communication is generally considered a powerful tool for both patient and health care providers [20], web-based reviews of health care services and health care providers might provide unique insight into the experiences of patients and their evaluations of the quality of health services [20]; for example, in recent research investigating the web-based reviews of an obstetric care clinic, it was found that patients’ experiences of the quality of the facilities and the perception of staff as comforting and providing high-quality care were associated with increased patient satisfaction [21]. Compared to other means of providing feedback to health care professionals, web-based reviews have benefits such as perceived anonymity and freedom from potentially negative consequences of evaluating figures of authority. Further benefits can be related to the social dimension of disseminating one’s views, experiences, and opinions to peers [20]. However, some challenges are also apparent, such as the subjectivity and contextual nature of web-based reviews [22] as has been found for other web-based evaluations related to health care [23].

Web-Based Evaluations of Dentists

While numerous studies have examined web-based ratings of physicians [9], few have examined web-based ratings of dentists. In a study of web-based evaluations of dentists in Germany, it was found that rating scores were largely positive and that younger or female dentists provided the most positive ratings [24]. In addition, differences in ratings emerged among clinical specialties, with pediatric dentists receiving better ratings than orthodontists [24]. Furthermore, a study published in the United States showed that younger or female dentists received the best

web-based reviews, as did dentists where patients experienced shorter waiting times [25]. Studies also point to specific topics that seem to influence evaluations, such as experiences of discomfort perceptions of a lack of professional ethics [25], and topics that might be specifically related to challenging encounters or negative evaluations of dentists on the web [26]. Interestingly, negative web-based reviews about dentists, while uncommon [24,26], are perceived as more trustworthy than positive reviews [27].

Considering these findings and challenges, this study aims to investigate how the content of web-based reviews of dentists in Norway can be used to predict patient satisfaction and challenging encounters, indicated by high and low rating scores, respectively, through the following steps: (1) identify dominant themes discussed by patients in their reviews and (2) investigate the dominant themes and their relationship with patient satisfaction and challenging encounters as rated by the patients.

Methods

Overview

The data were extracted from a Norwegian website that helps patients connect with health care professionals by the administrators of the website and made available to us as a downloadable data dump [28]. On this website, there is an option for patients to write about their experiences regarding receiving health care from dentists, general practitioners, physical therapists, and other health care professionals. A total of 11,764 patient reviews of dentists posted during the period from February 2013 to June 2020 were included in the data set. The patients rated their overall experience using 1 to 5 stars (1=*very unsatisfied* and 5=*very satisfied*) in addition to providing written comments. Patients could also rate other aspects of treatment, such as service, price, and treatment comfort. In addition, information about the date of the post and self-reported visiting frequencies was included. However, in this study, only the written comments and overall rating scores were used in the analysis.

Language Analysis and Theme Extraction

The language analysis tool Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC; version 2022) [29] was used to analyze the text data. The LIWC is designed to measure psychometric properties in language. As noted by Boyd [30], LIWC analysis typically works best with texts exceeding 50 words (shorter texts with a minimum of 10 words may still yield some insights, but the results may be less accurate). This is because LIWC dictionaries work by calculating the relative percentage of a word's occurrence in a body of text. In our analysis, the Norwegian LIWC 2007 dictionary was used [31]. By applying the meaning extraction method (MEM) through the LIWC's built-in meaning extraction helper, we could determine the dominant word categories used in the reviews. A detailed description of the principles behind the MEM can be found elsewhere [30]; however, in the following subsections, we will describe the process in detail as it relates to this data set.

Analysis Inclusion Criteria: Text Length and Word Frequencies

The free text of the comments section of the 11,764 reviews was run through the meaning extraction helper. Each review consisted of a header and a main comment. In the analysis, all words with raw frequency of >2% were retained. The decision to use 2% instead of 5%, as recommended by Boyd [30], was due to the large number of small texts in our data set. Specifically, we found that a large number of words would appear in <5% of the material because each comment was analyzed as a single text. Hence, a 5% cutoff would exclude too many words, whereas the cutoff value of 2% provided sufficient removal of uncommon words. Each comment posted on the aforementioned Norwegian website needed to be at least 100 characters long, including punctuations and spaces. Even so, to avoid including text that would not provide any meaningful information to the content analysis (eg, exclamatory remarks such as "Great dentist!" with no further information other than signs or emojis), the inclusion criterion for the length of reviews included in the analysis was set to >5 words. To ensure meaningful results, the header was removed from further analysis because it often duplicated words used in the main comment. This could have created a false emphasis on certain commonly used phrases.

Lemmatization List and Stop List

The MEM relies on the process of lemmatization, which requires a lemmatization list and a stop list. These were created following the recommendations from previous research [30,32,33]. The lemmatization list converts commonly used words to their word stem to count words correctly (Multimedia Appendix 1). The stop list omits words from further analysis, and the words chosen to be omitted would typically be words that were of no interest to the research question, such as the names of geographic locations, the word "dentist" (as we would expect it to be present in almost all comments), or numerical words. In addition, some function words, such as selected personal pronouns, conjunctions, and prepositions, were omitted ahead of analysis because they appeared often and could therefore dilute important content words. Examples of function words and other words omitted can be found in the stop list (Multimedia Appendix 2). Words included in the analysis were verbs, adjectives, adverbs, nouns, and all function words that were not included in the stop list. Care was taken not to omit too many words to preserve the rawness of the data. In addition, because internet-based language often adopts an informal, conversational style, resembling speech [34], we needed some function words to be retained, although some recommend that they be removed completely [30].

Exploratory Factor Analysis

The results provided from the MEM were used to perform an exploratory factor analysis [35] using SPSS (version 28.0; IBM Corp). The MEM analysis provided a binary matrix for all reviews, which included a value of 1 if the words appeared in the review and 0 if not. The Bartlett test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sampling adequacy were performed to test whether the MEM results were suitable for factor analysis. Varimax rotation was used to extract uncorrelated factor items

with a factor loading threshold set to >0.2 based on the recommendations made by Markowitz [33]. Determining the number of factors to extract was based partly on an inspection of the scree plot (ie, the identification of the elbow of the plot) and eigenvalues (>1), as well as on the proposed factors' interpretability. Words that had cross-loadings of >0.2 were omitted.

The words contained within the factors were then added to the Norwegian LIWC dictionary [31] as separate word categories. The complete data set was run through the LIWC analysis using the modified dictionary. The LIWC gives information for each review in terms of the percentage of words that matches the dictionary word categories.

Multilevel Logistic Regression Analysis

To determine how the retrieved factors could predict patient satisfaction, a 2-level (dentist and review) random intercept logistic regression model was built, with *high patient satisfaction* as the outcome. *Patient satisfaction* was the overall rating variable recoded to a binary variable, whereby ratings of either 4 or 5 stars signified *high patient satisfaction*, and ratings of 1, 2, or 3 stars signified *low patient satisfaction*. The 8 factors (the aforementioned 8 themes) were entered as covariates recoded into binary variables—*frequent use* versus *infrequent use* or *use* versus *no use*—with the median as cutoff value (with median=0 being recoded as *no use*). A multilevel analysis was chosen as the reviews were not statistically independent variables because

they could be commenting on the same dentist. The multilevel logistic regression analysis was performed in MLwiN (Centre for Multilevel Modelling, University of Bristol) [36]. The results are reported as regression coefficients, odds ratios (ORs), and respective 95% CIs. The variance partition coefficient (VPC) was also reported. The VPC estimates the proportion of the total variance in positive versus challenging encounters attributable to differences among dentists. The VPC is given as $\sigma^2_{u0}/(\sigma^2_{u0}+\Pi^2/3)$ [37].

Ethical Considerations

All reviews were posted on the Norwegian website [28] voluntarily, and the data set provided by the website administrators contained only anonymous data. The study was approved by the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (468642).

Results

Overview of the Data

A description of the demographics of the data set can be viewed in Table 1. The mean word count of each review was 48.9 (SD 39). More than nine-tenths of the reviews (10,977/11,764, 93.31%) had a high rating score (4-5 stars), whereas the remaining reviews (687/11,764, 5.84%) had a low rating score (1-2 stars). A total of 2950 dentists had received a rating in our data set, and the mean number of reviews per dentist was 3.9.

Table 1. Age and sex distribution of dentists and patients.

	Dentists (n=2950), n (%)	Patients (n=11,764), n (%)
Age (y)		
<20	0 (0)	64 (0.54)
20-30	74 (2.51)	2017 (17.15)
31-40	710 (24.07)	1947 (16.55)
41-50	823 (27.90)	1417 (12.05)
51-60	591 (20.03)	1098 (9.33)
>60	751 (25.46)	755 (6.42)
Missing	1 (0.03)	4466 (37.96)
Sex		
Male	1597 (54.14)	3407 (28.96)
Female	1328 (45.02)	4235 (36)
Missing	25 (0.85)	4122 (35.04)

Exploratory Factor Analysis

The exploratory factor analysis identified 8 factors (Textbox 1) that will be described in the following subsection. The Bartlett test of sphericity was significant ($P<.001$), and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.66.

The factors extracted together explained 13.2% of the sample variation, and they were thematically labeled based on a theoretical understanding of the words they contained: *consequences of treatment need, explanation, assurance, facilities, recommendation, patient-centered care, professional advice, and performance assessment.*

Textbox 1. Factors and factor loading (%) for words from the exploratory factor analysis.

Consequences of treatment need (eigenvalue: 3.205)

- Receive: 0.479
- Tooth: 0.478
- Must: 0.421
- Become: 0.421
- Come: 0.356
- Go: 0.350
- Caries: 0.314
- Sat: 0.296
- Because of: 0.283
- Back: 0.274
- Bad: 0.273
- Same: 0.261
- Ache: 0.258
- New: 0.254
- Wanted: 0.249
- Day: 0.244
- Pain: 0.242
- Anesthetics: 0.241
- Where: 0.239
- Enough: 0.225

Explanation (eigenvalue: 2.087)

- To do: 0.632
- Explain: 0.571
- Why: 0.386
- Good: 0.258
- Tell: 0.249
- Thorough: 0.205

Assurance (eigenvalue: 1.863)

- Feel: 0.881
- Safe: 0.676
- Take care of: 0.613
- Hands: 0.369

Recommendation (eigenvalue: 1.777)

- Recommend: 0.787
- Strongly: 0.484
- Warm: 0.466
- Could: 0.375
- Absolutely: 0.230
- Really: 0.226
- Unbelievable: 0.201

Facilities (eigenvalue: 1.671)

- Modern: 0.774
- Equipment: 0.751
- Premises: 0.507

Patient-centered care (eigenvalue: 1.571)

- Take: 0.789
- Consideration: 0.453
- Care: 0.433
- Patient: 0.263

Professional advice (eigenvalue: 1.511)

- Give: 0.505
- Advice: 0.403
- Information: 0.337
- Treatment: 0.325
- Very: 0.263
- Profoundly: 0.223
- Pleased: 0.217
- Amazing: -0.230
- Professional: 0.200

Performance assessment (eigenvalue: 1.456)

- Quick: 0.495
- Efficient: 0.428
- Nice: 0.348
- Wisdom tooth: 0.260
- Job: 0.241
- Forthcoming: 0.234

Dominant Themes Identified by the Analysis

Consequences of Treatment Need

The theme *consequences of treatment need* seemed to contain words related to the patients' need for treatment, with mentions of dental health issues such as dental caries ("tooth" and "caries"). In addition, other words associated with this theme seemed to express the urgent need to obtain an appointment ("must," "receive," "new," "come," and "go"), as well as words that might be related to an explanation of what happened ("back," "because of," "same," and "where"). The word "must" could be related to the feeling of a lack of self-agency and self-determination in the situation, for example, in this quote, where the patient might have felt that they had no control of the situation:

When I first got there, she seemed friendly, but that was before the treatment started. During treatment she had no consideration and continued even though I was crying in the chair. [Example 1]

In this theme, many words were action related (verbs), in the sense that something happened or certain actions were performed ("go," "receive," and "become"); for instance, patients would sometimes explain the turn of events resulting in a dentist appointment or their reasons for either seeking dental treatment or writing about the dental encounter. Arguably, it could also be the case that these words were related to the feeling of unmet expectations ("wanted" and "enough"). Typically, patients would often describe themselves as experiencing dental anxiety, which contributed to an uncomfortable treatment situation:

He got annoyed and asked very rudely what my problem was. Well yeah mister I have dental phobia! DO YOU EVEN KNOW SOME PEOPLE SUFFER FROM THIS? I stopped the treatment and paid 450 NOK for him to be rude to me. Still on the lookout for a good dentist who can deal with people like me. Don't go to him if you have this phobia! [Example 2]

Explanation

The theme *explanation* contained words such as “explain,” “tell,” and “why.” From the other prevalent words in this theme (“thorough,” “good,” and “to do”), it could be argued that patients used these words to describe instances where the dentist thoroughly explained the treatment or other topics, as exemplified by this quote:

[Name] adapts the treatment, stops and gives you small breaks during treatment, check that you feel okay, she is very good at explaining what is going to happen and what she does during treatment. [Example 3]

Assurance

The theme *assurance* contained words related to safety and care (“safe,” “take care of,” “hands,” and “feel”) as experienced in relation to the encounter between patient and dentist:

You feel like you are in good hands. A cheerful and pleasant lady! Your dental fear disappears when you sit down and she begins to talk. [Example 4]

Facilities

The theme *facilities* contained the words “modern,” “equipment,” and “premises,” which indicates that patients specifically noticed the environment of the dental clinic:

Shows and explains to you using modern equipment. I strongly recommend him. [Example 5]

Got no information about cost and got yelled at for not using them last time (dental emergency office—I have a regular dentist) bragged about the expensive equipment, where I had to pay 900 NOK for a picture I didn't need. [Example 6]

Recommendation

The theme *recommendation* contained words related to the need to disseminate the patients' views of the dentist to others, with words such as “recommend” and “strongly”:

I recommend him to everyone I know with toothache. [Example 7]

I strongly recommend this dentist! [Example 8]

Patient-Centered Care

The theme *patient-centered care* contained words related to patient-centered care or the experience of empathetic behavior from the dentist (“take,” “care,” “patient,” and “consideration”). It would be tempting to think that this theme would be linked to *high patient satisfaction*, but the words could also be used to express how the patient would have liked to be treated; for instance, in the following quote, we see how the words related to patient-centered care were used when the patient expressed experiencing a lack of patient centeredness:

It is distressing that there are dentists that have so little consideration for their patients. When you are in a vulnerable situation beforehand, then this is the last thing you need. It is not just teeth they are working with, but humans! [Example 9]

In any case, we noted that patients often wrote about patient centeredness and found it important to experience that the staff and dentist were comforting.

Performance Assessment

The theme *performance assessment* contained words describing the perceived performance of the dentist, an inference to how they performed and the quality of the performance. Here, we find words such as “nice,” “quick,” “efficient,” and “wisdom tooth.” Patients writing the reviews seemed to value their time, and efficient dentists (those completing procedures quickly) were viewed more favorably than dentists perceived to be inefficient at managing their time:

Removed all 4 of my wisdom teeth in a total of 31 (!!!) minutes. 18 minutes the first time and 13 minutes the second time. Do I have to say more? Great experience! [Example 10]

I was not impressed when I went to [name]. I think he spends too much time treating relatively simple issues. Had some complications with a dental restoration that he did which never really got better. [Example 11]

Interestingly, dentists who were perceived as careless or too quick may risk increasing the likelihood of posttreatment issues for patients:

Rushed through the appointment, did not wait long enough to let the anesthetics kick in and drilled right into the nerve, so my head exploded. My dental anxiety that [name; in the same building] had cured came back. [Example 12]

Patients value high-quality work and might feel more pleased with treatment if the dentist acts professionally, is competent, and achieves efficiency without compromising the quality of the treatment.

Professional Advice

The theme *professional advice* consisted of words related to providing information and clinical advice to patients, such as “give,” “advice,” and “information.” It also contained quality assessments of how the advice was perceived or provided, as we can infer from the words “amazing,” “professional,” “pleased,” “very,” and “profoundly.” Patients clearly appreciate professional advice on how to take care of their oral health and their treatment options:

Experience this dentist as skilled, thorough and detail oriented. Gives good information about follow up treatment and what to do at home. [Example 13]

[Name]'s ability to inform about how to treat the post-treatment complications was bad, and the recommended measures had no effect. [Example 14]

Professional, nice and efficient. Good at explaining and I felt safe and taken care of. I got sufficient information ahead of treatment on recommended procedures. Was happy with their follow up on me during treatment and afterwards as well, and how efficient and professional the work was done. [Example 15]

In addition, patients would sometimes express concerns about professionalism, for instance, when they perceived that the personal beliefs of dentists were indistinguishable from professional medical advice:

She tried to push life-threatening antivaccination propaganda on me, without me even bringing up the subject, and what in God's grace does a dentist know about vaccines? And be careful with the double standards all the time she offers Botox treatment (Botox is a nerve toxin). [Example 16]

Predicting Patient Satisfaction

To predict patient satisfaction based on the dominant themes, a multilevel logistic regression analysis was performed (Table 2; Figure 1). Of the total explained variance, 28% was attributable to the differences among dentists (VPC=0.28).

The regression analysis showed that when the patients used words related to *explanation*, the OR for a high satisfaction

score (4 or 5 stars) was 2.56 (95% CI 2.16-3.04; $P<.001$). In addition, if words related to *assurance* were used, the OR was even higher (3.61, 95% CI 2.57-5.06; $P<.001$) for a high satisfaction rating. The odds of a high satisfaction rating also increased with the frequent use of words related to *facilities*, *professional advice*, and *performance assessment* by a factor of 1.77 (95% CI 1.08-2.91; $P=.02$), 1.81 (95% CI 1.55-2.13; $P<.001$) and 2.16 (95% CI 1.84-2.55; $P<.001$), respectively, compared to infrequent use of the respective word categories. This was also the case if patients used words connected to the theme *recommendation*, which increased the odds of the patient being satisfied with dental treatment by 31% compared to when no words related to *recommendation* were used ($P<.001$). By contrast, when patients used words related to the *patient-centered care* theme, the odds of a high satisfaction rating were reduced by 38% ($P<.001$). Similarly, for the theme *consequences of treatment need*, the frequent use of words connected to this theme reduced the odds of a high satisfaction rating by 76% ($P<.001$).

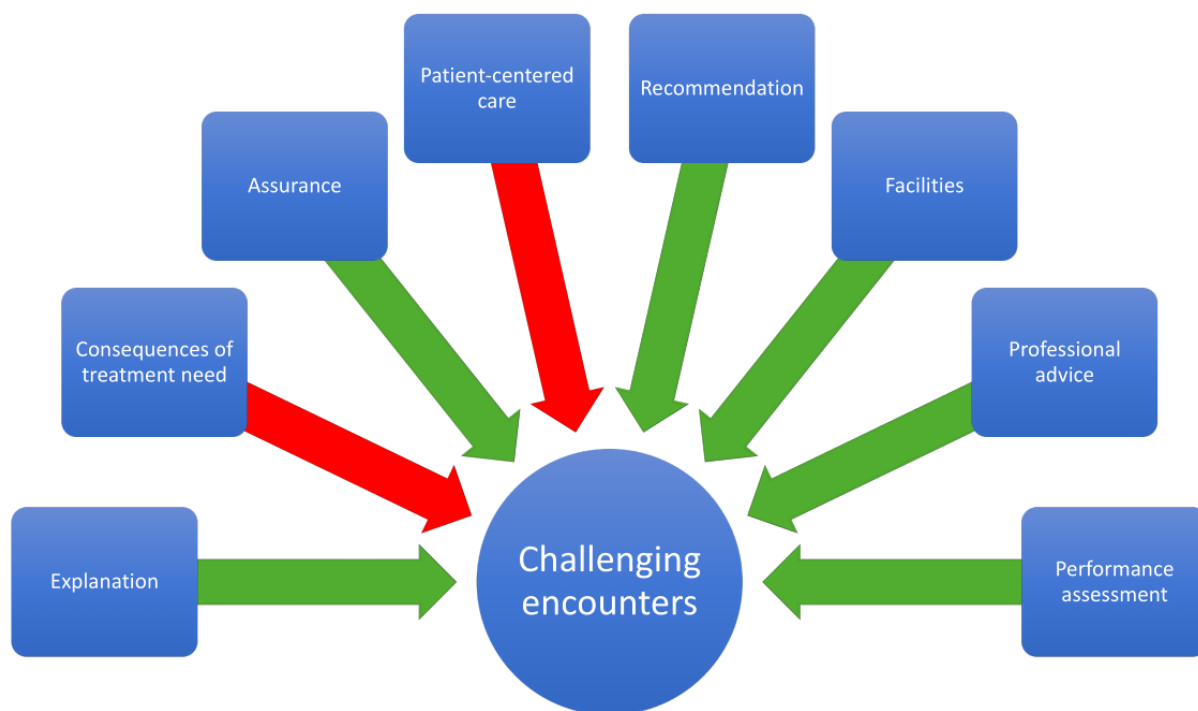
Table 2. A multilevel logistic regression analysis predicting patient satisfaction from dominant themes.

	B (SE)	Odds ratio ^a (95% CI)	P value
Fixed effects			
Intercept, β_{0j}	2.47 (0.11)	N/A ^b	N/A
Themes			
Consequences of treatment need (frequently used vs infrequently used)	-1.43 (0.09)	0.24 (0.20-0.29)	<.001
Explanation (frequently used vs infrequently used)	0.94 (0.09)	2.56 (2.16-3.04)	<.001
Assurance (used vs not used)	1.28 (0.17)	3.61 (2.57-5.06)	<.001
Recommendation (used vs not used)	0.27 (0.08)	1.31 (1.12-1.53)	<.001
Facilities (used vs not used)	0.57 (0.25)	1.78 (1.08-2.91)	.02
Patient-centered care (used vs not used)	-0.48 (0.09)	0.62 (0.52-0.74)	<.001
Professional advice (frequently used vs infrequently used)	0.60 (0.08)	1.81 (1.55-2.13)	<.001
Performance assessment (use vs no use)	0.77 (0.08)	2.17 (1.84-2.55)	<.001
Random effects			
Dentist-level variance	1.13 (0.13)	N/A	N/A
Variance partition coefficient	0.28	N/A	N/A

^aOdds ratio for the patient experiencing a positive encounter when words from the themes are present in the review.

^bN/A: not applicable.

Figure 1. The dominant themes identified and their relation to the challenging encounter. The green arrows indicate that the factor decreases the likelihood of a challenging encounter, while the red arrows indicate that the factor increases the likelihood of a challenging encounter.



Discussion

Eight themes were identified related to patient reviews of encounters with dental health professionals: 6 (75%) were linked to higher patient satisfaction scores and the experience of a positive dental encounter, while 2 (25%) were linked to lower patient satisfaction scores and the experience of a challenging dental encounter.

Principal Findings

If words related to the themes *explanation*, *assurance*, *recommendation*, *performance assessment*, *facilities*, and *professional advice* were present, patients were more likely to rate their experience as satisfying. Conversely, the use of words from the themes *consequences of treatment need* and *patient-centered care* reduced the likelihood of patients rating their experience as satisfying. In the following subsections, we will discuss the results and their implications.

Challenging encounters have been defined earlier in this paper as situations resulting in aversive feelings for dental health professionals [7] and as encounters involving conflicts between the perspectives of dental health professionals and those of the dental patient. In this study, we were interested in the challenging encounter from the dental patients' perspectives, and it was assumed that when patients provided low satisfaction ratings, it indicated the experience of a challenging encounter. Conversely, high satisfaction ratings, it was assumed, indicated the absence of a challenging encounter.

Consequences of Treatment Need

The theme *consequences of treatment need* contained words that could be interpreted as a reflection of unmet expectations, and we found that this theme was associated with an increased

probability of experiencing a challenging encounter. Previous research suggests that some patients might have unrealistic expectations of dental treatment outcomes [38], and it is likely that a disjunction between treatment expectations and perceived treatment outcomes could influence the satisfaction with dental treatment, as indicated by a previous study [19]. However, Yao et al [38] suggest that the studies investigating dental treatment expectations in relation to patient satisfaction do not properly define the term "expectations" and that the results from the studies are diverse and difficult to interpret. This is supported by a recent literature review, which found it difficult to propose a link between patient satisfaction and expectations and suggested that this could be because "expectations" as a concept is not consistently defined in the literature and furthermore that it might be only indirectly associated with patient satisfaction [9].

On the basis of the words used in the *consequences of treatment need* theme, we found that the patients discussed reasons to seek dental health care (eg, "pain" and "caries"), as well as challenges that might have developed (eg, complications and disappointment regarding the outcome). In addition, the patients sometimes expressed feelings that could indicate a lack of self-agency (eg, words and expressions such as "had to," "because," and "caries"), which would indicate that the patients felt that they *had* to see the dentist because of a dental issue or some external cause. Motivations for seeking dental treatment could play a major role in how patients experience the dental treatment. One could envision that the dental encounter would be experienced differently based on the source of the patient's motivation (eg, based on the motivational locus: internal vs external). This closely resembles key features of a problem-oriented visiting pattern, which refers to patients only seeking dental help when faced with acute circumstances (eg,

pain or fractured teeth). This type of attendance has been associated with increased risk of tooth loss [39] and reduced oral health-related quality of life [40] compared to regular attendance. A Finnish study investigating dental patients' perception of their dentist's explanation during treatment found that patients with a problem-oriented visiting pattern and that perceived their economic situation as difficult were more likely to feel dissatisfied with their dentist's explanation skills [41]. It has also been found that individuals with a fear of dental treatment tend to delay treatment and more often report poor oral health [42,43], implying that these patients could often have a problem-oriented visiting pattern. Therefore, it is not very surprising that this theme increases the risk of experiencing a challenging encounter. This could have been avoided if the patients had visited their dentist more often. Different intervention strategies have been used aimed at motivating patients to visit their dentist regularly (eg, community-based dental campaigns and a reduction in expenses) [44]. A recent literature review found that regular attendance could be increased if patients had the opportunity to visit a dental anxiety clinic and receive dental check-ups for free [44]. Such interventions could prove valuable to reduce challenging encounters in the clinic from the patient's perspective.

Patient-Centered Care

The theme *patient-centered care* was related to lower satisfaction with the dental encounter. Initially, this might seem odd because we would expect patient centeredness in dental health care to be a positive element. However, in this case, we would argue that the patients would primarily use words related to this theme when they discuss the lack of patient centeredness, which could again be similar to the notion of unmet expectations. In any case, it is clear that the patients in this study are concerned with patient centeredness in a dental context, which is in support of other findings suggesting that dentists need to improve their communication skills and be empathetic when cooperating with patients [45]. Furthermore, research has shown that dental students' self-reported empathy may diminish with increased patient interaction [46]. Even so, a study investigating a patient-centered training program and its effects on dental students' self-reported empathy has revealed promising results to halt this concerning trend [47]. Other research implementing communication training programs in dentistry show that applying active training methods, such as role play and patient treatment experience, as well as acquiring behavioral or psychological knowledge alongside attending more traditional didactic lectures, was most effective in improving dental students' communication skills [48].

Assurance and Explanation

The theme *assurance* was associated with higher patient satisfaction, supporting results from other studies that have proposed a link between higher patient satisfaction and the perception of caring or comforting staff behavior [21]. This supports the idea that in dental encounters, patients might be in need of assurance and comforting behaviors because they might perceive that they have little control over the situation. The establishment of trust between the dentist and the patient has long been regarded as an essential part of treatment, with a

corresponding impact on treatment outcomes [49]. Therefore, behaviors associated with *assurance* could help prevent a challenging encounter. It has been found too that when patients perceive their dentists' *explanation* skills as good, they indicate greater satisfaction with treatment [50,51]. The relationship among the dental health professionals involved in the treatment seems to influence patient satisfaction [52], as well as the dental assistant's knowledge of the patient's needs [51]. Investing time in careful explanations before and during treatment could be a useful way to prevent challenging encounters and increase patient satisfaction.

Professional Advice

Dentists have a professional responsibility to teach patients how to take care of their oral health. The theme *professional advice* could be interpreted as the patients' perception of this teaching practice. It could also be viewed as proof that patients welcome professional advice regarding how to take care of their oral health. Oral health literacy is the individual's ability to obtain, understand, and use oral health information [53,54]. According to a recent literature review, it consists of three important aspects: (1) the individual's capacity to access health information through basic information acquisition skills (eg, the ability to read, an understanding of numbers, and the capability to interpret facial expressions), (2) the individual's ability to use the information (eg, informed decision-making), and (3) oral health maintenance abilities (eg, self-regulation and goal achievement) [55]. The patient's perception of the dentist's ability to communicate and provide useful information about the patient's oral health is therefore dependent not only upon the skills of the dentist but also on the patient's oral health literacy. Dentists should consider that health information can be difficult to access and that information should be individually adapted according to patients' abilities.

Recommendation, Performance Assessment, and Facilities

Not surprisingly, the patients who wrote about positive dental encounters used more words related to *recommendation*, which suggests a need to disseminate their view of the dentist to peers on the web. Other research has supported the existence of this need, where web-based review sites are used to disseminate experiences and views to peers [20]. This sharing of experiences is believed to have a more profound meaning to users than can sometimes be suspected because shared experiences can function as a gateway to feeling connected to others and feeling empowered as a user of health care services [56]. In addition, *performance assessment* was associated with a higher satisfaction rating. This is supported by previous research findings linking patients' perception of high-quality performance to increased patient satisfaction [21,57]. Dental health professionals could benefit from continuous training in clinical skills and striving to update their knowledge according to medical advances. The theme *facilities* was linked to a small increase in odds that the patient was satisfied, which extends the prior finding that patients seemed to write about clinical facilities in both positive encounters and challenging encounters [26] and that this theme was seemingly independent of the satisfaction rating. However, high-quality facilities have been

linked to higher patient satisfaction in previous studies [21,58]. As some of these studies were conducted with inpatients at hospitals, it could be the case that patients needing to stay longer at the clinic found high-quality facilities to be more important for overall satisfaction.

Strengths and Limitations

A LIWC analysis is best performed when the word count in each sample text exceeds 50 [30]. As previously stated, LIWC dictionaries work by calculating the relative percentage of a word's occurrence in a body of text. In samples with small text sizes, for example 5 to 10 words, the relative percentage of each word tends to be very high; for example, in the sentence "I was at Molly's birthday," we see that the word "birthday" accounts for 20% of the word use. To counteract this effect, Boyd [30] suggests that one could have a sample size that is very large. For dental patients' reviews to be accepted on the previously mentioned Norwegian website, they need to be at least 100 characters long [59]. We would argue that, in this case, since the mean word count is close to 50 (mean 48.9, SD 39) and the sample size is large (n=11,764), our findings will be less affected by this bias. However, it could prove valuable to repeat this study using larger sample sizes. As a language analysis tool, the LIWC has proven to be reliable in research [29], with examples available from a wide range of research to underscore its usefulness [60,61].

In general, it would be expected that only a limited number of patients would write a web-based review after a visit to the dentist. A true estimate of the response rate is not possible because we do not know the exact number of patients who have chosen not to respond or whether a patient has provided ratings for several dentists. Given the low review volume relative to the dentist-to-patient ratio (1:1250 [62]) and a mean of 3.9 reviews per dentist, only a small percentage of patients likely write online reviews. However, this should not significantly impact our ability to investigate themes related to high versus low patient satisfaction, which was our study objective. Because most of the reviews were positive (10,977/11,764, 93.31% have a rating of 4-5 stars), this could mean that the findings in our study are more representative of positive reviews. To counteract this bias, one could consider splitting the data set into 2 parts before analysis: the reviews with a low satisfaction rating (1-2 stars) versus the reviews with a high satisfaction rating (4-5 stars). This approach would enable a separate word analysis for each data set to compare the satisfied patients versus the unsatisfied patients and their word use. However, the number of reviews representing a low satisfaction rating was considered to be insufficient to provide reliable results in a bottom-up text analysis using the MEM, which usually depends on a large amount of text data to provide reliable results.

In the exploratory factor analysis performed using SPSS software, the words within each word category were extracted from the body of text based on how often they appeared together in a phrase. The interpretation and labeling of the themes were based on a theoretical understanding of the meaning of the factors. Other researchers intending to perform similar analyses could arrive at different theme labels based on their particular theoretical understanding; for instance, the theme *consequences of treatment need* was a broad category containing a greater number of words than the other themes, and we found it difficult to interpret and to agree on the final label because it seemed to be a theme with multiple layers. By contrast, other themes containing fewer words were more easily interpretable (eg, the themes *facilities* or *assurance*). This is a limitation related to the use of factor analysis often mentioned in the literature [63]. Despite these challenges, previous research has arrived at themes that are similar in their content with regard to patient satisfaction [21,57], indicating that our findings could be applicable in other contexts.

Implications for Future Research

Websites provide large amounts of text data that will enable researchers to perform large-scale analyses (eg, using text analysis programs that build upon machine learning methods, such as BERT [64]). Even so, machine learning methods could encounter difficulties related to "poor language" in short internet texts, elucidating the need to develop these methods further [65]. The findings from this study and similar studies could help clinicians develop a better understanding of their patients' perspectives and needs in light of challenging treatment situations. Hopefully, some of these findings could also help guide future research on increasing patient satisfaction, while limiting challenging encounters in the dental clinic. In addition, there is a need to establish effective interventions to motivate patients to visit their dentist regularly.

Conclusions

The findings of this study demonstrate the value of web-based patient reviews as a gateway to patient experiences, and we would argue that implementing the themes or elements from the themes expressed in these reviews could help improve patient satisfaction. While dissatisfaction with dental treatment seems to be associated with negative consequences and (a lack of) patient centeredness, high satisfaction seems to hinge on patients' experiences of being acknowledged by the dentist. Investigations of web-based reviews could produce valuable insights into what patients experience and value in dental treatment settings.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to acknowledge Legelisten.no AS for their contribution of data to this study. The authors would also like to express their gratitude to the administrators of Språksamlingane (The Norwegian Language Collections) at the University of Bergen for providing a complete Norwegian dictionary in which we could find words for our customization of the Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count 2007 Norwegian dictionary. This project was funded as part of the Student Research Program at the Department of Clinical Dentistry, UiT The Arctic University of Norway.

Conflicts of Interest

None declared.

Multimedia Appendix 1

Lemmatization list.

[[TXT File , 25 KB - jopm_v16ile49262_app1.txt](#)]

Multimedia Appendix 2

Stop list.

[[TXT File , 1 KB - jopm_v16ile49262_app2.txt](#)]

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Abbreviations**LIWC:** Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count**MEM:** meaning extraction method**NLP:** natural language processing**OR:** odds ratio**VPC:** variance partition coefficient

Edited by S Woods; submitted 24.05.23; peer-reviewed by M Elbattah, M Pang, Y Freire, M Sarhan; comments to author 11.10.23; revised version received 15.11.23; accepted 22.03.24; published 03.05.24.

Please cite as:

Larsen M, Holde GE, Johnsen JAK

Investigating Patient Satisfaction Through Web-Based Reviews of Norwegian Dentists: Quantitative Study Using the Meaning Extraction Method

J Particip Med 2024;16:e49262

URL: <https://jopm.jmir.org/2024/1/e49262>

doi: [10.2196/49262](https://doi.org/10.2196/49262)

PMID: [38700933](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/38700933/)

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Original Paper

Understanding the Values, Qualities, and Preferences of Patients in Their Relationships With Obstetrics and Gynecology Providers: Cross-Sectional Survey With a Mixed Methods Approach

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Abstract

Background: The patient-provider relationship in obstetrics and gynecology (OBGYN) is uniquely complex due to the sensitive nature of examinations and topics. Patients often prefer health care providers who share similar racial, ethnic, gender, or linguistic backgrounds, particularly in sensitive health care situations, to improve communication and comfort, though historically, specific gender preferences for OBGYNs have not been evident.

Objective: This study aims to describe the values, qualities, and preferences of patients in their relationships with OBGYN providers.

Methods: This cross-sectional survey, conducted from October 2019 to December 2019, involved 1039 US OBGYN patients and used a mixed methods approach, integrating quantitative responses and qualitative insights from open-ended questions. Recruitment was facilitated through targeted social media campaigns, and the survey aimed to capture detailed patient preferences and barriers to care by assessing responses on provider traits, patient experiences, and demographic factors. The study's rigorous data collection and analysis were designed to fill gaps identified in previous research on patient-provider relationships in OBGYN care.

Results: The findings underscore the paramount importance of trust and comfort, with listening skills identified as crucial. A notable finding is the marked preference for same-gender providers, observed in 80.7% (545/675) of participants. Primary barriers to seeking care reported included daily commitments, highlighting the need for accessible and flexible care options.

Conclusions: The study highlights a significant shift from previous scientific findings in patient preferences toward gender concordance and trust in OBGYN settings, diverging from previous research. These results emphasize the need for patient-centered care and tailored communication strategies to enhance patient experiences and outcomes. Future research should focus on diverse populations to broaden the findings' applicability and explore the impact of recent shifts in health care policies.

(*J Particip Med* 2024;16:e58096) doi:[10.2196/58096](https://doi.org/10.2196/58096)

KEYWORDS

communication; obstetrics; gynecology; trust; barriers to care; patient-provider relationships

Introduction

The patient-provider relationship in obstetrics and gynecology (OBGYN) presents unique complexities due to the sensitive nature of examinations and discussions. The patient provider relationship is further shaped by increasing emphasis on patient-centered care, which highlights the importance of patient needs, perspectives, beliefs, and values [1,2]. While not always explicitly stated, a closer examination of the existing research reveals potential gaps in the comprehensively evaluating the multifaceted aspects of patient-provider relationships, diverse barriers to care, and evolving patient preferences within the OBGYN context [3-8].

The concept of patient-physician concordance, which emphasizes shared identities such as race, ethnicity, gender, or language, has gained significant attention in health care research. Numerous studies indicate that patients often prefer providers who share similar backgrounds, positing that such shared identities enhance understanding and communication, thereby potentially improving the quality of care [3,5,6,9]. This preference is particularly pronounced in scenarios involving sensitive health matters, where patients may feel more at ease discussing intimate issues with providers who share their cultural background or language [3,6,9-11]. Historically, however, desired traits of OBGYNs expressed by patients did not indicate a gender preference [1-16].

Furthermore, despite strong patient preferences for concordance, conclusive evidence linking patient-provider concordance directly to improved health outcomes remains elusive [5,8,10,17]. This gap highlights a critical need for further research, especially within OBGYN, to elucidate how patient preferences for concordance translate into tangible health outcomes. This inquiry is increasingly relevant given the

dynamic shifts in health care delivery, such as the rising number of women in medical professions and the expanding role of nurse practitioners and primary care physicians in providing gynecological care [3,13,18]. This study aims to describe the values, qualities, and preferences of patients in their relationships with OBGYN providers. By documenting these preferences, the research seeks to establish a foundation for future investigations into how these factors might influence patient satisfaction and health outcomes in OBGYN care.

Methods

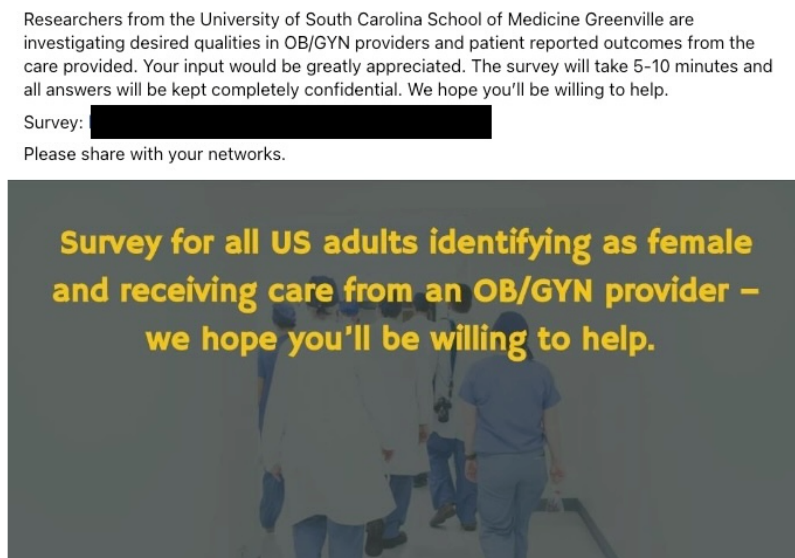
Study Design

This cross-sectional survey, which collected both quantitative and qualitative data, used qualitative insights from open-ended questions for data transformation and validation [19] to investigate factors impacting patient-OBGYN provider relationships in the United States (Multimedia Appendix 1).

Setting and Participant Recruitment

To reduce social desirability bias and elicit truthful responses, an invitation to participate in an anonymous survey was disseminated through social media outlets [20]. Between October 2019 and December 2019, the research team shared posts on the social media platforms such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and LinkedIn through their individual networks and within potential interested groups on Facebook (Figure 1). The recruitment posts asked those who were female and receiving care from an OBGYN provider to complete a confidential 5- to 10-minute survey through a link to a self-administered questionnaire through REDCap (Research Electronic Data Capture; Vanderbilt University) survey software [21]. The posts also asked for others to share the survey within their own networks.

Figure 1. Social media post for recruitment. OB/GYN: Obstetrics and gynecology.



Participants were included in this study if they were aged 18 years or older, consented to participate, had current or previous

interactions with an OBGYN provider, and agreed to discuss personal health-related topics. Confidentiality of all responses

was ensured to encourage open and honest communication. Though confidentiality was ensured, the survey offered an opportunity for respondents to receive survey analysis results by providing an email address.

Survey Development

The survey was developed by reviewing existing surveys on OBGYN patient-physician relationships to align the content with current research gaps [1-16]. These key studies highlighted factors influencing the selection of OBGYN providers, such as physician gender, experience, and bedside manner [1-16]. These studies guided the inclusion of questions to assess participants' preferences and beliefs regarding OBGYN provider characteristics [1-16]. In addition, research on stereotyped beliefs about male and female OBGYNs and patient satisfaction informed the incorporation of items addressing participants' satisfaction and perceived empathy based on their provider's gender [16]. In addition, the survey included participant and practice demographics and barriers to care ([Multimedia Appendix 1](#)). By integrating these elements, our survey aims to capture a comprehensive understanding of patient preferences and experiences in the context of OBGYN services, addressing gaps identified in previous research.

The specific questions chosen were based on their relevance and proven effectiveness in capturing critical aspects of patient-provider relationships. The studies reviewed provided a robust foundation for identifying key variables and developing a comprehensive survey. By systematically integrating these insights, the final survey instrument was designed to fill identified research gaps and provide valuable data on patient preferences and experiences in OBGYN services.

Patient and Public Involvement and Engagement

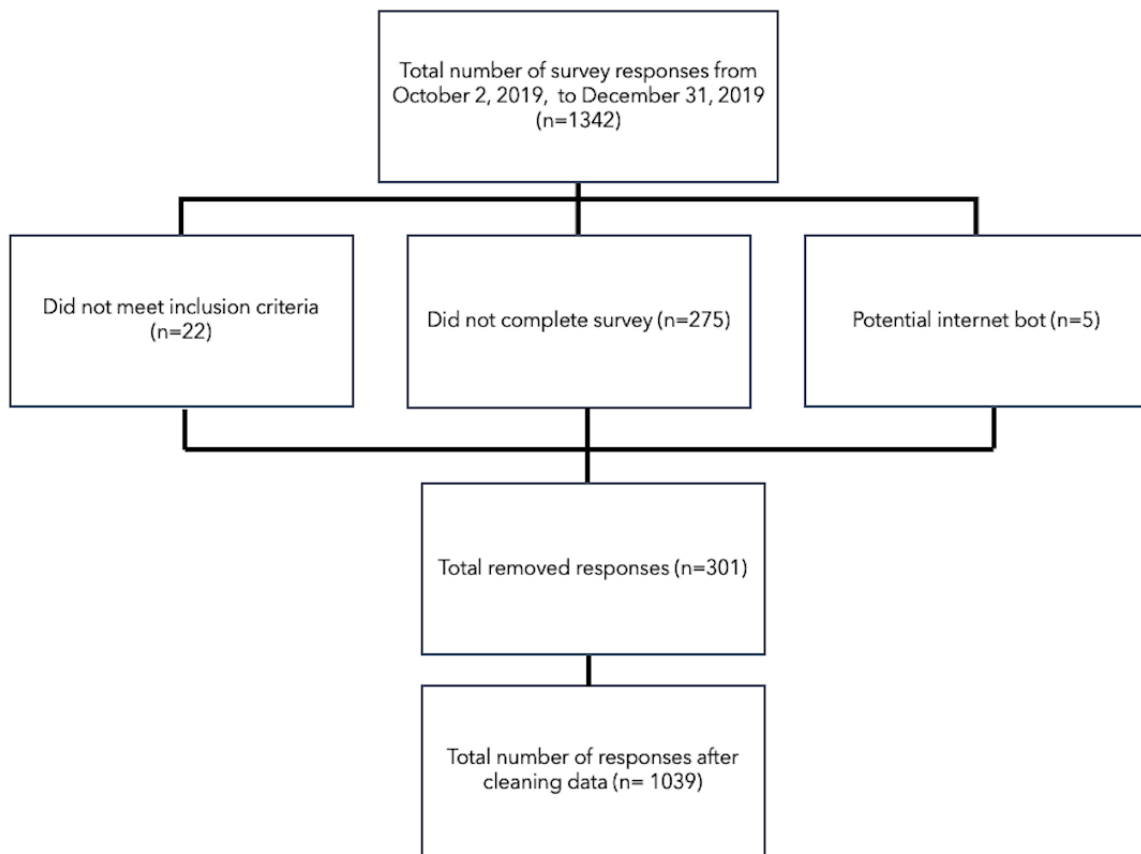
To enhance the survey's validity and to assist with recruitment procedures, a patient and public engagement group trained in

research methodology and communication with researchers assisted the research team. This group of individuals is trusted to critically review research projects and act as coinvestigators throughout the life of the study. As a part of the learning academic health center's research infrastructure, this group was established in 2016 specifically for the purpose of providing patient and community partner input to co-develop and co-design research. This group included 3 scientists (experienced in health service research, comparative effectiveness research, and social health research), 4 physician representatives, a representative from the patient experience team, and 8-12 patient partners (experts). The patient experts come from diverse backgrounds and have participated in training on team building, research methods, and communication [22]. Specific demographics for the group participants are not provided due to group policy of being collaborators and not study participants. Feedback from the group was used to revise our survey for language clarity, to be culturally sensitive, and appropriate. The group also helped to revise the language in the recruitment materials.

Data Collection

Recruitment on social media for survey participation was initially posted on October 22, 2019, and was reshared 2 times (once in each of the following months) until responses were cut off at 11:59 PM on December 31, 2019. A total of 1342 responses were counted at the end of this 2-month period. Data were screened, filtered, and cleaned before statistical analysis ([Figure 2](#)). Incomplete survey responses, those that did not meet the inclusion criteria, and those that were determined to potentially be an internet response bot (eg, random letter strings in open-ended questions) were removed. The remaining 1039 responses were used for analysis.

Figure 2. Study inclusion flow diagram including data cleaning of survey participants' responses.



Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows (version 26) to create descriptive statistics including means, SDs, and frequencies.

Qualitative data from open-ended survey questions were reviewed for data transformation (eg, provide additional categories or combine responses based upon themes from open-ended “describe other” responses for check all that apply answers) and data validation (eg, explore open-ended questions for emergent themes to provide context and explanation of quantitative results) purposes [19]. Responses were reviewed to determine any commonalities that could be pooled into an

existing or new category. Specifically, many of the free response options from the open-ended questions asking participants to describe the “other” response they had selected. This allowed for new response categories to be created for analysis. These original responses and revised responses are listed in Table 1. Data were further transformed as some participants’ selections were revised if open-ended answers could be synthesized into a current response option. For example, in the question investigating barriers to care, if a participant did not select “daily commitments” but did select “other” and the open-ended response was work, time, life, and so on, then the “daily commitments” was selected as a valid response and the “other” response was removed.

Table 1. Revised response options based upon themes in open-ended text options.

Original response options	Revised response options
How did you hear about your OBGYN provider?	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Friends or family • Social media • Covered by my insurance plan • From my primary care provider • Other 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internet (social media, internet search, online reviews, referral resource) • In insurance network • Other health care provider or practice • Work or school • Other
What factors will keep you from visiting your OBGYN provider?	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of insurance coverage • Cost • Transportation • Daily commitments • Fear of diagnosis • No factor would keep me from visiting • Other 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of insurance coverage • Cost • Transportation • Daily commitments • Fear of diagnosis • No factor would keep me from visiting • Lack of access (distance to provider) • Lack of access (availability or scheduling issues in clinic) • Mistreatment by office staff • Mistreatment or dismissal by provider • Trauma related to visits • Lack of therapeutic relationship • Frustration with doctor or treatment (including disliking exam) • Delaying care (wait for problems to resolve, procrastination, or worried they were overreacting) • Other
Which of the following would allow you to feel that your OBGYN provider can relate to you?	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Same race • Same geographical background • Same social class • Same religious background • Same sex • Same sexual orientation • Same educational level • None of these are necessary for relatability • Other 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Same race • Same geographical background • Same social class • Same religious background • Same gender identity • Same sexual orientation • Same educational level • None of these are necessary for relatability • Provides culturally competent care • Same socio-political beliefs • Same age • Same life experiences • Provides evidence-based care • Provides compassionate care • Other

In total, 2 new variables were also calculated. To determine if participants faced multiple barriers to care, a new variable was created by summing the total number of responses that were checked including the new response options. To determine if women experienced a pregnancy loss, the categorical variables responses were given a value (0=0, 1=1,...4+=5), then the number of children was subtracted from the number of times pregnant. While the exact number of pregnancy losses could not be determined, any number 1 or greater is assumed to be a pregnancy loss.

Ethical Considerations

This project was reviewed and approved by the University of South Carolina institutional review board (Pro00092199). Informed consent was provided through an opt-in question on the first page of the survey. Through this, participants were given a description of the survey, and their willingness to

participate was confirmed before continuing. No incentives were provided for participating in the study.

Results

Participant Demographics

The majority of respondents were highly educated (568/1039, 54.7% had higher than a bachelor’s degree), had 1 or more children (597/1039, 57.4%), and had a mean age of 36.53 (SD 12.21) years (Table 2). Participants were given the option of selecting multiple responses for their racial or ethnic identity and a majority (901/1086, 83%) of the sample selected white. A small percentage of the sample (41/1086, 4.1%) identified as multiracial (ie, selecting more than 1 race or ethnicity). Nearly 3 in 10 (290/1086, 26.6%) of the participants experienced a pregnancy loss.

Table 2. Demographics of survey respondents.

Variable	Statistical values (N=1039)
Age (years), mean (SD)	36.5 (12.2)
Gender identity, n (%)	
Woman	1034 (99.5)
Nonbinary	3 (0.3)
Other	2 (0.2)
Race or Ethnicity^a (n=1086), n (%)	
American Indian or Alaskan native	8 (0.7)
Asian	38 (3.5)
Black or African American	94 (8.7)
Hispanic or Latino/a	31 (2.9)
Native Hawaiian or Pacific islander	2 (0.2)
White	901 (83)
Other	8 (0.7)
Choose not to answer	4 (0.4)
Marital Status, n (%)	
Divorced	51 (4.9)
Married	673 (64.8)
Separated	6 (0.6)
Single	304 (29.3)
Widowed	5 (0.5)
Sexual activity, n (%)	
Abstinent	69 (6.6)
Asexual	8 (0.8)
Sex with men	907 (87.3)
Sex with women	23 (2.2)
Sex with both men and women	32 (3.1)
Number of pregnancies, n (%)	
0	394 (37.9)
1	188 (18.1)
2	220 (21.2)
3	129 (12.4)
4+	108 (10.4)
Number of children, n (%)	
No response	7 (0.7)
0	435 (41.9)
1	235 (22.6)
2	271 (26.1)
3	73 (7)
4+	18 (1.7)
Highest level of education	
No formal education	2 (0.2)
High school diploma	52 (5)

Variable	Statistical values (N=1039)
Vocational training	32 (3.1)
Bachelor's degree	385 (37.1)
Master's degree	243 (23.4)
Doctoral or professional degree (JD, MD, PhD, DrPH, etc)	325 (31.3)

^aRace or ethnicity: Race or ethnicity offers multiple response options (check all that apply).

Relationship With Provider

Participants were asked a series of questions about their OBGYN provider. The respondents report seeing their provider for an average of 6.01 (SD 6.78) years. A total of 62% (648/1039) have seen their provider at least once per year, while 184 (17.7%) and 107 (19.9%) participants reported seeing their provider less than once per year or more than once per year, respectively. Nearly 90% either see the same provider with each visit (672/1039, 64.7%) or see an OBGYN within the same practice (253/1039, 24.4%). Approximately 15.2% (158/1039) of the reported providers are underrepresented in medicine (Black, Mexican American, American Indian, Alaska Native, and Native Hawaiian). The top 3 ways participants found their OBGYN provider were through either friends or family (495/1039, 47.6%), their insurance network (226/1039, 21.8%), or another health care provider or practice (164/1039, 15.8%). A majority of the participants (562/1039, 54.1%) stated that they will wait a few days before reaching out to their provider if they have an OBGYN-related health concern, and 14.7% (153/1039) will tough it out; yet, 1 in 4 (261/1039, 25.1%) will reach out immediately. Most participants (615/1039, 59.2%) are not afraid to share personal details with their provider; however, 27.2% (283/1039) of them do experience fear some of the time when discussing sensitive topics. A total of 863/1039

(83.0%) participants always or most of the time have a strong level of trust in their provider, and nearly all (1008/1039, 97%) reported that their provider remains professional during their appointments.

Characteristics, Traits, and Relatability

In total, 57.4% (596/1039) of the participants indicated that it is very important or necessary that their OBGYN provider can relate to them, while only 9.2% (95/1039) of them indicated that it is of little or no importance. A total of 35% (346/1039) of the participants found none of the characteristics or traits necessary for relatability; however, the rest of the participants (675/1039, 65%) identified between 1 and 7 different traits or characteristics that could increase relatability. The most often cited characteristics (Table 3) for a provider to have that would impact relatability were same gender identity (545/675, 80.7%) followed by same race (122/675, 18.1%) and same education level (107/675, 15.9%). These results of the importance of gender identity are supported by several responses in the final open-ended questions. A word count was performed on the question inquiring about internet search terms that could be used to find the ideal OBGYN provider. The most frequent responses (n=348/3067, 7.95%) had to do with the provider's gender (eg, woman or female OBGYN).

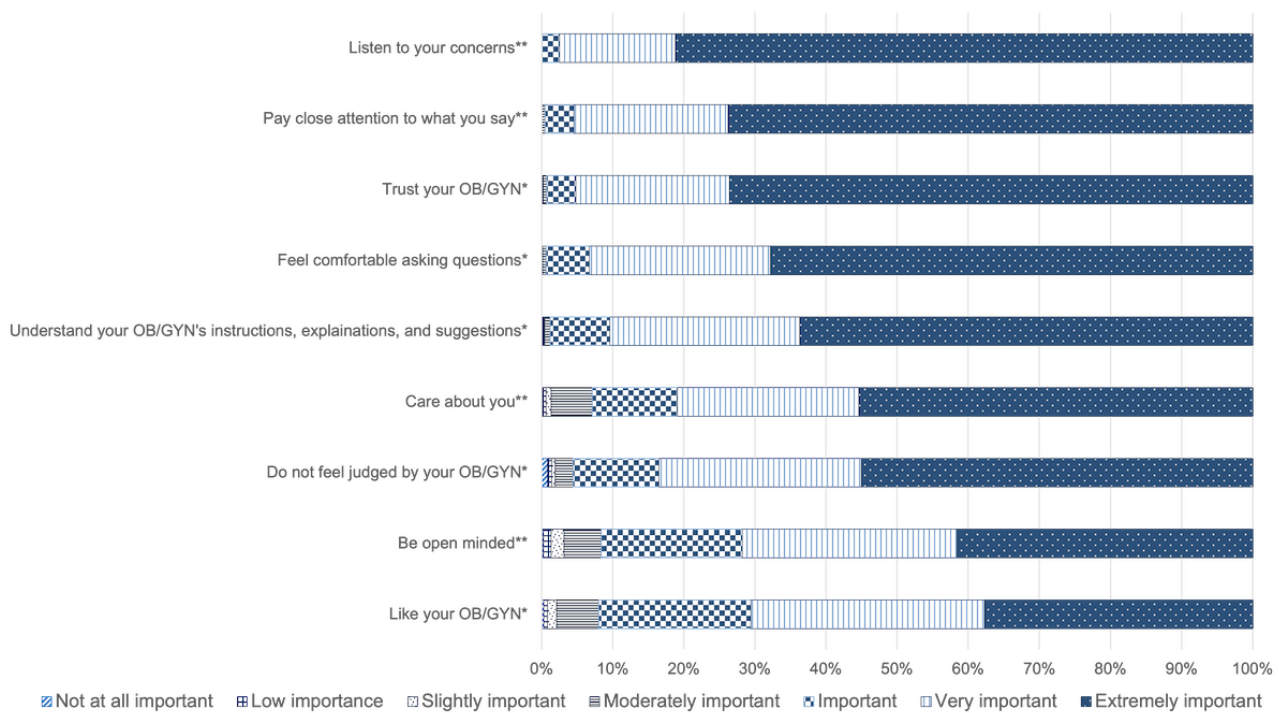
Table 3. Descriptive statistics from multiple response survey data.

Attributes	Frequency, n (%)	Percentage of cases, %
Relatable characteristics (number of participants responding n=675, number of responses n=1160)		
Provides culturally competent care	9 (0.8)	1.3
Other	9 (0.8)	1.3
Provides compassionate care	32 (2.9)	5.0
Provides evidence-based care	10 (0.9)	1.5
Same age	15 (1.3)	2.2
Same educational level	107 (9.2)	15.9
Same gender	545 (47)	80.7
Same geographical background	59 (5.1)	8.7
Same life experiences	12 (1)	1.8
Same race	122 (10.5)	18.1
Same religious background	64 (5.5)	9.5
Same sexual orientation	91 (7.8)	13.5
Same social class	74 (6.4)	11.0
Same sociopolitical views	9 (0.8)	1.3
Barriers to care (number of participants responding n=738, number of responses n=1117)		
Access (availability or scheduling)	26 (2.3)	3.5
Access (distance)	5 (0.4)	0.7
Cost	245 (21.9)	33.2
Daily commitments	485 (43.4)	65.7
Delaying care	10 (0.9)	1.4
Fear of diagnosis	128 (11.5)	17.3
Frustration with doctor, treatment, or dislike examination	15 (1.3)	2.0
Lack of insurance coverage	110 (9.8)	14.9
Lack of therapeutic relationship	8 (0.7)	1.1
Mistreatment or dismissal by provider	35 (3.1)	4.7
Mistreated by office staff	2 (0.2)	0.3
Other	5 (0.4)	0.7
Transportation	38 (3.4)	5.1
Trauma	5 (0.4)	0.7

Figure 3 provides the levels of importance for each of the factors within the therapeutic alliance scale. Participants indicate that their provider listening to them is the most important part of

the alliance while liking their provider is the least important factor.

Figure 3. Levels of importance for factors within a therapeutic alliance between patient and provider. *: answers to question “how important is it for you to”; **: answers question “how important is it for your care provider to.”. OB/GYN: obstetrics and gynecology.



Barriers to Seeking Care

While 29.0% (301/1039) of participants report no barriers to seeking care, the rest of the participants (n=738) report between 1 and 5 total barriers to care. Table 3 indicates the percentage of respondents who cited each type of barrier. The most often cited barrier (485/735, 67.5%) to seeking care were daily commitments.

Discussion

Principal Findings

This study sheds new light on the preferences and values that OBGYN patients hold regarding their providers, emphasizing the critical role of relatability and trust in patient-provider relationships. Our findings underscore the paramount importance of listening skills, with patients ranking the ability to listen as more crucial than provider likeability or the delivery of medical advice. This aligns with existing literature which emphasizes empathy and listening as foundational to building trust and improving patient outcomes [1,5,23,24].

Participants in this study represent a demographic that is commonly analyzed in OBGYN research, predominantly white, cisgender women, a focus that has limited the diversity of perspectives traditionally captured in the literature [7,15,25,26]. Unlike previous studies, our findings reveal a notable preference for same-gender providers, an area where past research has shown mixed results [3,12-14,25,27]. Though evidence suggests that most patients still prioritize provider competence and communication, the role of gender concordance in specific medical specialties like obstetrics and gynecology hints at a potential shift in patient priorities within those fields [1,3,26].

Patients highly value trust, comfort, and respectful, personalized care from their providers, impacting their willingness to share personal details [1,2,5,10,23,25,28]. Our study reveals that 83% (863/1039) of participants prioritize trust, aligning with the intimacy and sensitivity inherent in OBGYN care. This focus on trust supports broader health care trends where empathy and listening skills are increasingly recognized as essential to effective patient care [6,9,23,26,28,29]. In addition, more than a quarter of our participants expressed concerns about disclosing personal information, indicating a need for providers to foster nonjudgmental and supportive environments. This aspect is particularly critical given the recent shifts toward more diverse health care teams, including the increase in female trainees and the expanding roles of nurse practitioners and primary care physicians in gynecological care, which may influence patient comfort and trust levels [3,9,12,18,30,31].

Patients highly prioritize professionalism and courtesy when selecting their OBGYN provider, aligning with the emphasis on listening skills found in this study. While studies show patients prioritize physician qualities such as experience, knowledge, and ability above all else [3], patients also consistently rank professionalism as a top factor when choosing an OBGYN provider [13,32]. Professionalism in this context encompasses traits such as courtesy, respect, and a positive bedside manner, which are closely tied to effective listening skills [1,13,32]. This study’s focus on the importance of listening skills in OBGYN care aligns with existing research highlighting the essential role of these skills in establishing trust and effective patient-clinician relationships [1,2,5,23]. By emphasizing listening as a crucial element within professionalism and courtesy, this study underscores the evolving patient expectations regarding patient-centered care, particularly in the context of increased advocacy for this approach [1,5,23].

Barriers to OBGYN care have been well documented in the scientific literature, including costs, language differences, reluctance to disclose information, inadequate insurance, transportation, discrimination, and lack of access due to geography or other structural barriers [28,33-39]. While the most often discussed barriers in the literature focus on cost and access to care, our results differ indicating the greatest barrier to care is daily commitments. However, barriers of cost and insurance combined to prevent nearly half of respondents from seeking care. With a greater understanding for patient barriers, it is important to note that results of this study primarily represent the demographic of well-educated women. For this group of patients, it is expected that work or school commitments could pose difficulties in setting aside time for OBGYN appointments. By understanding a common barrier patients may face, stronger patient-physician interactions will likely be built.

Clinical Implications

The study's findings align with the principles of patient-centered care, suggesting avenues for educational initiatives and quality improvement efforts to enhance patient experiences and outcomes in the OBGYN setting.

The emphasis on factors such as trust, communication, and reliability aligns seamlessly with the tenants of patient-centered care and highlights that patient-provider relationships are pivotal in fostering an environment where patients feel valued and empowered in their health care journey. These findings support the scientific literature which emphasizes the significance of trust and communication in patient-provider relationships which can lead to better patient satisfaction and health outcomes [23,24,40]. The need for a high level of trust with their provider highlights the importance of strong therapeutic relationships and may be especially important for future male OBGYN providers. As a majority of participants indicated that gender concordance impacts reliability with their provider, male OBGYNs will not have the same gender advantage as their female counterparts and instead will need to focus on other desired categories such as communication and enhancing trust.

This study's findings present opportunities for educational initiatives targeting both health care providers and patients. Providing education opportunities for OBGYN providers in effective communication skills, cultural competency, and enhancing trust could enhance their abilities to establish strong patient-provider relationships and reduce barriers to care [23,28,33,38-40]. Furthermore, providing patient education about the importance of communication, trust, and their own role in health care decision-making could encourage more active engagement in their care for patients [4-43].

Finally, the results of this study can guide quality improvement efforts within OBGYN practices through provider diversity and reducing barriers. Recognizing the importance of reliability, health care institutions can strive to diversify their provider pool to better mirror their patient populations. In addition, addressing practical barriers to care, as highlighted by the study, can be a quality improvement priority. Offering extended office hours, advanced telehealth options, and streamlining appointment processes can enhance patient access.

Limitations and Future Directions

It was noted through a literature review that the majority of previous study participants in similar studies to this, investigating provider traits, were White heterosexual females [13,15,25,32,44]. Our study has a similar demographic majority of white females; therefore, it may be difficult to generalize patient preferences of OBGYN providers in a more diverse population. With this potential lack of generalizability to other populations, it is important to continue these studies and attempt to create a more diverse participant population. This study also suggests a strong preference for patients to have a same-sex OB-GYN provider. This may call for more research into the reasoning behind this response, as well as an investigation into patient-identified traits and suggestions to male providers.

In addition, the survey was distributed solely in English, which could exclude non-English speaking participants and limit the diversity of responses. The reliance on self-reported data introduces potential biases, including social desirability bias, where participants may respond in a manner they perceive as favorable rather than providing genuine answers. This is particularly pertinent in sensitive topics such as personal health care experiences.

Furthermore, as a cross-sectional study, the timing of the survey could influence the results. Changes in public opinion, health care policies, or societal norms that occur before or after the survey period might not be reflected in the data, affecting the study's relevance over time. Cross-sectional designs also restrict the ability to infer causality from the associations observed, limiting the conclusions that can be drawn regarding the effects of patient preferences on health care outcomes.

Future research should incorporate expanded analyses, including detailed subgroup analyses, to explore how different demographic variables, such as age, race, and socioeconomic status, influence patient preferences and perceptions. This approach will help to address the current study's limitations in generalizability and provide a deeper understanding of the complex factors that shape patient-provider interactions in diverse populations. In addition, amid shifting federal and state policies on pregnancy and abortion care, future research should explore how these legal changes influence patient preferences and access to OBGYN care. Investigating variations in patient attitudes across different policy environments, through longitudinal and qualitative studies, will help understand the evolving dynamics of patient-provider relationships. This research could also highlight disparities and inform interventions to enhance health care access and quality, particularly for demographics most affected by legislative changes.

Conclusions

The relationship between an OBGYN provider and patients is one of the most intimate within medicine. Whether the interactions involve a physical examination or sensitive topic conversations, medical care in this field requires more trust and comfort than typical patient-physician relationships. The major findings of this study indicate that listening skills and building trust are valued most by patients. The data provide convincing evidence demonstrating a shift from previous research that

patients can have a clear preference for OBGYN providers who share the same gender. As social climates fluctuate, women receiving reproductive health care deserve to be listened to and cared for by providers with whom they can build a strong relationship that may be influenced by pieces of one's worn identity.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank the amazing patient experts in the University of South Carolina Patient Engagement Studio for their review and suggestions for this project.

Conflicts of Interest

ABK serves as the Director of the USC Patient Engagement Studio, which contributed to the project review from a patient and community perspective. No financial or other conflicts relevant to the study are declared.

Multimedia Appendix 1

Survey instrument.

[[PDF File \(Adobe PDF File\), 56 KB - jopm_v16i1e58096_app1.pdf](#)]

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Abbreviations

OBGYN: obstetrics and gynecology

REDCap: Research Electronic Data Capture

Edited by M Hudson; submitted 05.03.24; peer-reviewed by N Schwartz, S Woods; comments to author 27.06.24; revised version received 12.08.24; accepted 13.08.24; published 16.10.24.

Please cite as:

Kennedy AB, Harb AT, Schockling C, Ray LJ, Palomo J, Russ-Sellers R

Understanding the Values, Qualities, and Preferences of Patients in Their Relationships With Obstetrics and Gynecology Providers: Cross-Sectional Survey With a Mixed Methods Approach

J Particip Med 2024;16:e58096

URL: <https://jopm.jmir.org/2024/1/e58096>

doi: [10.2196/58096](https://doi.org/10.2196/58096)

PMID:

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Original Paper

Patients' Perspectives on Plans Generated During Primary Care Visits and Self-Reported Adherence at 3 Months: Data From a Randomized Trial

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Abstract

Background: Effective primary care necessitates follow-up actions by the patient beyond the visit. Prior research suggests room for improvement in patient adherence.

Objective: This study sought to understand patients' views on their primary care visits, the plans generated therein, and their self-reported adherence after 3 months.

Methods: As part of a large multisite cluster randomized pragmatic trial in 3 health care organizations, patients completed 2 surveys—the first within 7 days after the index primary care visit and another 3 months later. For this analysis of secondary outcomes, we combined the results across all study participants to understand patient adherence to care plans. We recorded patient characteristics and survey responses. Cross-tabulation and chi-square statistics were used to examine bivariate associations, adjusting for multiple comparisons when appropriate. We used multivariable logistic regression to assess how patients' intention to follow, agreement, and understanding of their plans impacted their plan adherence, allowing for differences in individual characteristics. Qualitative content analysis was conducted to characterize the patient's self-reported plans and reasons for adhering (or not) to the plan 3 months later.

Results: Of 2555 patients, most selected the top box option (9=definitely agree) that they felt they had a clear plan (n=2011, 78%), agreed with the plan (n=2049, 80%), and intended to follow the plan (n=2108, 83%) discussed with their provider at the primary care visit. The most common elements of the plans reported included reference to exercise (n=359, 14.1%), testing

(laboratory, imaging, etc; n=328, 12.8%), diet (n=296, 11.6%), and initiation or adjustment of medications; (n=284, 11.1%). Patients who strongly agreed that they had a clear plan, agreed with the plan, and intended to follow the plan were all more likely to report plan completion 3 months later ($P<.001$) than those providing less positive ratings. Patients who reported plans related to following up with the primary care provider ($P=.008$) to initiate or adjust medications ($P\leq.001$) and to have a specialist visit were more likely to report that they had completely followed the plan ($P=.003$). Adjusting for demographic variables, patients who indicated intent to follow their plan were more likely to follow-through 3 months later ($P<.001$). Patients' reasons for completely following the plan were mainly that the plan was clear (n=1114, 69.5%), consistent with what mattered (n=1060, 66.1%), and they were determined to carry through with the plan (n=887, 53.3%). The most common reasons for *not* following the plan were lack of time (n=217, 22.8%), having decided to try a different approach (n=105, 11%), and the COVID-19 pandemic impacted the plan (n=105, 11%).

Conclusions: Patients' initial assessment of their plan as clear, their agreement with the plan, and their initial willingness to follow the plan were all strongly related to their self-reported completion of the plan 3 months later. Patients whose plans involved lifestyle changes were less likely to report that they had "completely" followed their plan.

Trial Registration: ClinicalTrials.gov NCT03385512; <https://clinicaltrials.gov/study/NCT03385512>

International Registered Report Identifier (IRRID): RR2-10.2196/30431

(*J Particip Med* 2024;16:e50242) doi:[10.2196/50242](https://doi.org/10.2196/50242)

KEYWORDS

primary care; survey; patient adherence; adherence; self-reported; surveys; content analysis; RCT; randomized; controlled trial; controlled trials; plan; plans; willingness; experience; experiences; attitude; attitudes; opinion; opinion; perception; perceptions; perspective; perspectives

Introduction

Primary care is an essential component of health care in the United States, where primary care providers (PCPs) provide comprehensive and longitudinal care to patients [1]. The role of the PCP has expanded over time, with PCPs providing more diagnoses, more treatments, and more preventive services in recent years [2]. In 2015, about 25% of PCP visits were for preventive care, about 30% care for chronic conditions, and just under 40% for acute care [3]. In many instances, primary care visits generate a plan for follow-up actions that extend beyond the encounter, as care often involves tasks that the patient (and sometimes the PCP) will do in the subsequent days and weeks. Ideally, the patient and the PCP jointly decide upon and agree to a plan [4], which might involve initiating or adjusting medications, monitoring symptoms, scheduling tests, implementing lifestyle modifications, or a multitude of other steps. Adherence to plans is affected by a broad range of factors including the provider-patient relationship [5]. One meta-analysis reported a 19% greater risk of nonadherence among patients who reported their physician communicated poorly during the visit [6].

While there is a substantial body of research on patient adherence, much of it is focused on adherence in the context of specific diseases, such as diabetes [7], coronary heart disease [8], asthma [9], and depression [10]. Medication adherence has been particularly well studied; 1 meta-analysis of 50 years of adherence research found that 63% of the studies focused on medication adherence, with many fewer studies examining adherence to recommendations for changes in diet (4.8%) and exercise (2.5%) [11]. In general, overall adherence rates have been estimated to range between 50% and 75%, suggesting substantial room for improvement [11,12]. Understanding patients' perspectives on the plan that they have (or have not) understood and agreed to and their reasons for following or not

following the plan could provide insights that would help PCPs promote better adherence. To our knowledge, there have been no large, multisite studies in the United States describing patients' perceptions of the plans that result from their primary care visits, the extent to which patients follow these plans, and their reasons for following or not.

The purpose of this study was to describe patients' perceptions of the plans generated during primary care visits and characterize these plans. We also sought to describe patients' reports of whether they adhered to the plan, the extent to which follow-through was related to their initial perceptions of the plan, and their reasons for adherence (or lack of adherence) to the plan.

Methods

Overview

The data for this analysis were collected in the context of a large multisite cluster randomized controlled trial (ClinicalTrials.gov NCT123456) evaluating the impact of 3 approaches to facilitating communication and shared decision-making in primary care encounters. The 3 approaches were 1. in-person coaching for clinicians along with patients receiving a pre-visit questionnaire in advance of their visit regarding what they wanted to talk about and a video about how to prepare for their visit; 2. Mobile app coaching for clinicians and the same 2 components for patients (pre-visit questionnaire and video), and 3. Poster in exam room to encourage shared decision making. The primary study outcomes were patient-reported perceptions of communication and decision making during the appointment. While not one of the primary outcomes, this analysis was of secondary outcomes that were a part of the original research questions to examine patient plans and how patients were then able to carry them out. A detailed description of the methods and the findings of the trial are available elsewhere [13]; we

briefly summarize the relevant methods here. Because the main analysis did not detect a statistically significant difference between the 3 study arms, we do not present the findings about plans by study arm. Additionally, when coding the data, we did not see any major differences across the arms and so we are examining data across all study participants.

English-speaking adult patients with a web-based patient portal account were invited to participate in the study at least 3 days in advance of scheduled appointments with participating PCPs at each site. We selected English-speaking primary care patients as that was the group studied in the initial pilot [14]. We also selected patients with a web-based patient portal account because 2 key components of the intervention (the single-item previsit questionnaire and video) were delivered via the portal. Details about the recruitment processes, which include patient portal and email invitations, have been described elsewhere [15]. Patients who provided informed consent and completed a web-based postvisit survey within 7 days of the visit were sent a follow-up survey approximately 3 months later (also on the web). Nonrespondents to the follow-up survey were sent 2 reminder emails. Patients received a US \$20 incentive for completing each survey. Survey data were collected and managed using REDCap (Research electronic data capture; Vanderbilt University) tools [16,17]. Data collection occurred from September 2019 through November 2021.

The analytic sample for the study reported here includes all patients who completed the initial postvisit survey within 7 days of the visit and also completed a 3-month survey. We focus specifically on the questions related to development and adherence to plans generated during the visit. In the initial postvisit survey, patients' perceptions of the plan discussed during their medical appointment were assessed with 3 statements, each rated on a 10-point scale (from 0 to 9, with 0 as "strongly disagree" and 9 as "strongly agree"): (1) My doctor and I have a clear plan for what to do next about my health issues; (2) I agree with the plan my doctor and I have for taking care of my health issues; and (3) I will follow the plan my doctor and I made for taking care of my health issues. Patients were asked to enter a free-text response to the open-ended question: "Thinking about the plan that you and your doctor made, what is the most important thing that you will do over the next three months?"

In the 3-month survey, patients' descriptions of their plan from the postvisit survey (ie, response to "the most important thing you will do") were populated into the survey to remind patients of what they had written originally. Patients were then asked: "To what extent have you carried out the plan?" with response options of "Completely," "Somewhat," "Not At All," and "This Doesn't Apply To Me/I Didn't Have a Plan." Patients who responded "Somewhat" or "Not At All" were asked to select from a list of reasons for not carrying out the plan and those who responded "Completely" were asked to select what helped them adhere to the plan. Patients were able to select multiple reason options or write in a text response.

Ethical Considerations

The study was conducted at 3 health care organizations in 2 states (California and Massachusetts). The overall study,

including these secondary outcomes, was reviewed and approved by institutional review boards at Sutter Health (2017.094EXP), the University of California San Diego (#180310), and the UMass Chan Medical School (H0001310).

Analysis

We computed means and frequencies to describe the patient characteristics and responses to the survey questions described above. We dichotomized patients' responses to each of the 3 questions about communication into the "top box," indicating whether the patient gave the highest score possible, that is, 9 or less than top box. This approach is often used operationally [14]. Cross-tabulation and chi-square statistics were used to examine the bivariate associations between patients' initial postvisit ratings of their plan and reported plan adherence approximately 3 months later. We also examined the association between the type of plan and plan adherence. We also examined the association between the type of plan and plan adherence. Significance values were adjusted by the Bonferroni corrections for multiple comparisons for the various types of plans. The binary outcome of carrying out the plan was analyzed using a multipredictor logistic regression, including the 3 questionnaire responses mentioned above and adjusted for the demographic factors to demonstrate how the patients' understanding or agreement or intention to follow the plan impacts the adherence to the plan, allowing for differences due to various characteristics. We used qualitative content analysis to categorize responses to the open-ended questions "Thinking about the plan that you and your doctor made, what is the most important thing that you will do over the next three months?" in the postvisit survey and the free-text responses to other reasons for not adhering to a plan and adhering to a plan in the 3-month survey.

We developed a codebook for the content analysis using an iterative process. Investigators and staff at each site first reviewed the free-text responses for their site to create inductive codes capturing the content evident in the responses. We then compared the codes generated at each site to determine common codes and established a formal codebook that coders at each site applied to their data. Coders flagged any text that was difficult to code and brought these responses to the full coding team, which discussed the text and determined whether modifications to the coding scheme were needed. The full coding team also adjudicated final code assignments for any difficult or questionable responses.

Results

We present the results combining all 3 sites as we found that they were very similar during the qualitative analysis. The analytic sample for this study included 2555 patients who completed both the postvisit and 3-month surveys (3847 total completed surveys, 66.4%). Patient participants were on average 52 (SD 16.4) years old. The majority were female (n=1662, 65%), White (n=2097, 82%), non-Hispanic (n=2304, 90%), and had a 4-year college degree or higher (n=1151, 72%). Many (n=1547, 60.5%) had their visit during the COVID-19 pandemic (eg, after March 16, 2020; Table 1).

Overall, a large majority of patients selected the top box option (9=definitely agree) to indicate that they felt they had a clear plan (n=2011, 78%), agreed with the plan (n=2049, 80%), and intended to follow the plan (n=2108, 83%) discussed with their PCP.

The types of plans patients reported are summarized in [Table 1](#). Patients could report more than 1 type of plan or a plan that included multiple components. The most common elements of the plans reported included reference to exercise (n=359, 14.1%), testing (laboratory, imaging, etc; n=328, 12.8%), diet (n=296, 11.6%), and initiation or adjustment of medications (n=284, 11.1%). The correspondence between patients' views of their plan as reported soon after the visit and their report of whether they had followed the plan 3 months later is presented in [Table 2](#). Patients who reported that they had a clear plan, agreed with the plan, and intended to follow the plan were all more likely to report completion of the plan 3 months later compared to those who provided less positive ratings on these items initially ($P<.001$). [Table 2](#) also shows the percentage of patients who reported they had "Completely" followed through 3 months later for each type of plan. Patient plans related to following up with the PCP, initiating or adjusting medications, and having a specialist visit were more likely to indicate that

they had completely followed the plan ($P=.008$, $P\leq.001$, and $P=.003$, respectively). Patients whose plans involved lifestyle changes such as weight loss, diet, and exercise were less likely to report that they had "Completely" followed their plan than those whose plans did not involve lifestyle changes ($P<.001$).

For the multivariable logistic regression, compared to those who responded other than "definitely agree," those patients who indicated "definitely agree" that they would follow the plan were more likely to report 3 months later that they completely followed the plan (adjusted odds ratio 1.95, 95% CI 1.48-2.58; [Table 3](#)).

Patients were able to report more than 1 reason for following or not following the plan. Patients' reasons for completely following the plan included that the plan was clear (n=1114, 69.5%), consistent with what mattered (n=1060, 66.1%), they were determined to carry through with the plan (n=887, 53.3%), and had the support needed to carry through the plan (n=570, 33.7%; [Table 4](#)). The most common reasons for *not* following the plan were lack of time (n=217, 22.8%), decided to try a different approach (n=105, 11%), the COVID-19 pandemic impacted the plan (n=105, 11%), the plan did not fit the lifestyle (n=93, 9.7%), and the plan was no longer needed or relevant (n=90, 9.5%; [Table 4](#)).

Table 1. Sample characteristics (N=2555).

Characteristic	Overall sample
Age (years)	
Median (IQR)	54.0 (39.0-66.0)
mean (SD)	52.6 (16.4)
Gender, n (%)	
Female	1662 (65)
Male	838 (32.8)
Other or missing	55 (2.15)
Race, n (%)	
American Indian or Alaska Native	12 (0.5)
Asian	266 (10.4)
Black or African American	50 (2)
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	11 (0.4)
White	2097 (82.1)
More than 1 race	68 (2.7)
Missing	51 (2)
Ethnicity, n (%)	
Hispanic	231 (9)
Non-Hispanic	2304 (90.2)
Missing	20 (0.8)
Education, n (%)	
High school graduate or general educational diploma or less	161 (6.3)
Some college or 2-year degree	548 (21.4)
4-year college graduate	695 (27.2)
More than a 4-year college degree	1151 (45)
Index visit on or after March 16, 2020 (COVID-19 pandemic), n (%)	
No	986 (38.6)
Yes	1547 (60.5)
Missing	22 (0.9)
Health system, n (%)	
A	1240 (48.5)
B	857 (33.5)
C	458 (17.9)
How confident are you in filling out forms by yourself?, n (%)	
Extremely	2309 (90.4)
Quite a bit or somewhat or a little bit	237 (9.3)
Not at all	7 (0.3)
Missing	2 (0.1)
Type of plan, n (%)^a	
Exercise	359 (14.1)
Testing (laboratory, imaging, etc)	328 (12.8)
Diet	296 (11.6)
Medication management	284 (11.1)

Characteristic	Overall sample
Specialist referral	246 (9.6)
Monitor or control condition	218 (8.5)
Follow-up with PCP ^b	181 (7.1)
Lose weight	96 (3.8)
Other strategies not specified above ^c	230 (9)
Other preventive behaviors not specified above ^d	168 (6.6)
Did not have a plan	17 (0.7)
My doctor and I have a clear plan for what to do next about my health issues, n (%)	
Definitely agree ("top box")	2011 (78.7)
Less than definitely agree	544 (21.3)
I agree with the plan my doctor and I have for taking care of my health issues, n (%)	
Definitely agree ("top box")	2049 (80.2)
Less than definitely agree	506 (19.8)
I will follow the plan my doctor and I made for taking care of my health issues, n (%)	
Definitely agree ("top box")	2108 (82.5)
Less than definitely agree	447 (17.5)
To what extent have you carried out the plan?, n (%)	
Completely	1603 (62.7)
Not at all or somewhat	952 (37.3)

^aPlans could include more than 1 component; categories are not mutually exclusive.

^bPCP: primary care provider.

^cOther strategies included physical therapist, occupational therapist, health educator, mental health therapy, herbal supplements, managing stress, and independent learning.

^dSmoking cessation, vaccination, reducing alcohol consumption, and general comments about healthy lifestyle.

Table 2. Extent of the followed plan by intention and types of plan.

Characteristics	To what extent have you carried out the plan?		Odds ratio (95% CI)	Overall <i>P</i> value
	Completely (n=1603, 62.7%), n (%)	Less than completely (n=952, 37.3%), n (%)		
My doctor and I have a clear plan for what to do next about my health issues				<.001
Definitely agree (“top box”)	1323 (65.8)	688 (34.2)	1.81 (1.5-2.2)	
Less than definitely agree	280 (51.5)	264 (48.5)	N/A ^a	
I agree with the plan my doctor and I have for taking care of my health issues				<.001
Definitely agree (“top box”)	1350 (65.9)	699 (34.1)	1.93 (1.59-2.35)	
Less than definitely agree	253 (50)	253 (50)	N/A	
I will follow the plan my doctor and I made for taking care of my health issues				<.001
Definitely agree (“top box”)	1398 (66.3)	710 (33.7)	2.32 (1.89-2.86)	
Less than definitely agree	205 (45.9)	242 (54.1)	N/A	
Types of plan				
Exercise	174 (48.5)	185 (51.5)	0.51 (0.37-0.7) ^b	<.001 ^c
Testing (laboratory, imaging, etc)	222 (67.7)	106 (32.3)	1.28 (0.9-1.84) ^b	.54 ^c
Diet	149 (50.3)	147 (49.7)	0.56 (0.4-0.8) ^b	<.001 ^c
Medication management	209 (73.6)	75 (26.4)	1.75 (1.19-2.63) ^b	<.001 ^c
Specialist referral	181 (73.6)	65 (26.4)	1.73 (1.15-2.68) ^b	.003 ^c
Monitor or control condition	152 (69.7)	66 (30.3)	1.4 (0.92-2.19) ^b	.31 ^c
Follow-up with primary care provider	135 (74.6)	46 (25.4)	1.81 (1.12-3.02) ^b	.008 ^c
Lose weight	41 (42.7)	55 (57.3)	0.43 (0.23-0.77) ^b	<.001 ^c
Other strategies not specified above	127 (55.2)	103 (44.8)	0.71 (0.48-1.05) ^b	.16 ^c
Other preventive behaviors not specified above	100 (59.5)	68 (40.5)	0.86 (0.55-1.38) ^b	≥.99 ^c

^aN/A: not available.

^bBonferroni-corrected 99.5% CI.

^cBonferroni-corrected *P* value.

Table 3. Adjusted logistic regression of extent followed plan.

Explanatory variable	Odds ratio (95% CI)	Overall P value
My doctor and I have a clear plan for what to do next about my health issues: Definitely agree (“top box”; Reference: Less than definitely agree)	1.16 (0.85-1.57)	.35
I agree with the plan my doctor and I have for taking care of my health issues: Definitely agree (“top box”; Reference: Less than definitely agree)	1.15 (0.82-1.60)	.42
I will follow the plan my doctor and I made for taking care of my health issues: Definitely Agree (“top box”; Reference: Less than definitely agree)	1.95 (1.48-2.58)	<.001
Age	1.0 (1.0-1.0)	.80
Gender: non-female or missing (Reference: Female)	1.03 (0.87-1.23)	.71
Race: non-White (Reference: White)	1.10 (0.87-1.39)	.43
Education: less than a 4-year college degree (Reference: 4-year college graduate)	0.92 (0.76-1.11)	.39
Index visit on or after March 16, 2020: Yes (Reference: No)	1.05 (0.88-1.25)	.60
Health system (Reference: A)		
B	0.93 (0.77-1.13)	.46
C	0.81 (0.64-1.02)	.07

Table 4. Reasons for following the plan.

	Values, n (%)
Patients who reported “Completely” followed the plan (n=1603)	
What helped you to carry out the plan? (Select ALL that apply)	
The plan was clear to me	1114 (69.5)
The plan was consistent with what mattered most to me	1060 (66.1)
I was determined to carry it through	887 (55.3)
I had the support needed to carry it through	540 (33.7)
Other	19 (1)
Patients who reported “Not at All” or “Somewhat” followed plan (n=952)	
There are many reasons why people do not carry out a plan exactly. Please select ALL reasons that apply to you	
5 most frequently selected responses	
Lack of time	217 (22.8)
Try a different approach	105 (11)
Did not fit with my lifestyle	93 (10)
Plan was no longer needed or relevant	90 (9)
Plan was not working	39 (4)
5 most frequently written in as “Other”	
Impact from COVID-19	105 (11)
Plan in progress	77 (8)
Life events or activities of daily living impact	44 (5)
Not motivated to complete the plan	40 (4.2)
Other health issues	33 (3)

Discussion

Principal Findings and Comparison With Prior Work

In this multisite study of primary care visits, we found that the majority (roughly 80%, n=2049 and 2108, respectively) of patient participants felt that they agreed with and would follow the plan that resulted from their primary care visit. These views gathered soon after their PCP visit were statistically significantly associated with the likelihood of completely following their plan after controlling for other factors. Patients who did not feel clear about the plan or who were not in agreement with the plan were much less likely to follow the plan. This is consistent with the finding reported in 1 meta-analysis, which found that the odds of patient adherence are 2.16 times higher if a physician communicates effectively [6]. This suggests that future studies could evaluate whether providers could improve treatment adherence through “teach-back,” where they confirm patients understand and are in agreement with the plan before the end of the visit [18].

We found that many patients reported that they did not completely follow plans related to weight loss, diet improvement, and increased exercise. These findings are consistent with other studies that found patients tended to be more adherent to circumscribed treatment regimens (eg, medication use) as compared to complex health behavior change efforts such as diet [11]. Given these challenges and limited insights provided through research, patients and providers may need to be proactive and anticipate difficulties in these areas. The evidence suggests that “knowledge alone is not sufficient to enhance adherence in recommendations involving complex behavior change” [19] like modifying diet and exercise. Providers should consider simplifying proposed regimen changes to better “match patients’ activities of daily living” [19]. Motivational interviewing could be used to better help the patient identify and set their own goals and identify both potential barriers and ways to overcome them [20]. Some other potential ways to improve provider communication include additional training on how to provide empathy [21] as empathy has been shown to improve both adherence and patient satisfaction [22,23] and training on agenda setting can help the flow of the visit and improve the overall interaction [24].

Many patients in our study identified lack of time as the reason for not fully adhering to their plan, which is also consistent with

previous research [25]. Patients in our study were further impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic, which caused nonessential medical appointments to be canceled, affecting patients’ plans to follow up with their PCPs or specialists, or to complete laboratory testing. Gyms were closed, which impacted some patients’ plans to exercise. Other researchers have documented the impact of COVID-19 on exercise in the general population; for instance, a survey conducted in November 2020 found that over 25% of respondents said that they still did not go out to walk, hike, or exercise even after the initial pandemic lockdown restrictions were lifted [26].

Limitations

A major limitation of our study is our reliance on patient self-report. Participating patients may have only reported limited descriptions of their plans, whereas there may have been more in-depth discussions with their PCP about the plans and next steps during the actual conversations. We also did not provide an opportunity for patients to identify elements of their physician’s recommendations, and future research should consider potentially incorporating this aspect. We did not capture the PCP’s perspective on the encounter or the plan, and doing so would have allowed us to examine the correspondence between the patient’s understanding of the plan and the PCP’s understanding of what had been agreed to (or what was most important). Our analysis assumed that all patient plans carried equal clinical importance and we did not evaluate for complexity of the plan. These are 2 factors that could potentially impact plan adherence. Additionally, our population was predominately White and nearly half have more than a 4-year college degree; their ability to understand instructions and reasoning to carry out the plan may not be representative of what might be found in a general population. Finally, our study evaluated plan adherence after 3 months so that may be insufficient time to expect resolution of some more complex medical issues.

Conclusions

In this multisite study of patients’ views on their primary care visits and the plans generated during these visits, we found that overall, patients’ initial assessment of their plan as clear, their agreement with the plan, and their initial willingness to follow the plan were all strongly related to their self-reported completion of the plan 3 months later.

Acknowledgments

The research reported in this paper was funded through a Patient-Centered Outcomes Research Institute (PCORI) award (contract IHS-1608-35689-IC). The views in this paper are solely the responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of the PCORI, its Board of Governors, or the Methodology Committee.

Conflicts of Interest

None declared.

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Abbreviations

PCP: primary care provider

REDCap: Research Electronic Data Capture

Edited by M Hudson; submitted 15.08.23; peer-reviewed by W Bensken, M Ma; comments to author 08.09.23; revised version received 02.11.23; accepted 12.11.23; published 14.03.24.

Please cite as:

Stults CD, Mazor KM, Cheung M, Ruo B, Li M, Walker A, Saphirak C, Vaida F, Singh S, Fisher KA, Rosen R, Yood R, Garber L, Longhurst C, Kallenberg G, Yu E, Chan A, Millen M, Tai-Seale M

Patients' Perspectives on Plans Generated During Primary Care Visits and Self-Reported Adherence at 3 Months: Data From a Randomized Trial

J Particip Med 2024;16:e50242

URL: <https://jopm.jmir.org/2024/1/e50242>

doi: [10.2196/50242](https://doi.org/10.2196/50242)

PMID: [38483458](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/38483458/)

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