

BMJ Open

BMJ Open is committed to open peer review. As part of this commitment we make the peer review history of every article we publish publicly available.

When an article is published we post the peer reviewers' comments and the authors' responses online. We also post the versions of the paper that were used during peer review. These are the versions that the peer review comments apply to.

The versions of the paper that follow are the versions that were submitted during the peer review process. They are not the versions of record or the final published versions. They should not be cited or distributed as the published version of this manuscript.

BMJ Open is an open access journal and the full, final, typeset and author-corrected version of record of the manuscript is available on our site with no access controls, subscription charges or pay-per-view fees (<http://bmjopen.bmj.com>).

If you have any questions on BMJ Open's open peer review process please email info.bmjopen@bmj.com

BMJ Open

Health Care Providers' Perceptions of Patient Complexity: An Observation Study in HIV Outpatient Clinical Practice

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2021-051013
Article Type:	Original research
Date Submitted by the Author:	08-Mar-2021
Complete List of Authors:	Ben-Menahem, Shiko; ETH Zurich, Management, Technology, and Economics Sialm, Anastassja; ETH Zurich, Department of Management, Technology and Economics Hachfeld, Anna ; Inselspital University Hospital Bern Rauch, Andri; Inselspital University Hospital Bern, Department of Infectious Diseases von Krogh, Georg; ETH Zurich, Department of Management, Technology and Economics Furrer, Hansjakob; Inselspital University Hospital Bern, Department of Infectious Diseases
Keywords:	PRIMARY CARE, QUALITATIVE RESEARCH, HEALTH SERVICES ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts



I, the Submitting Author has the right to grant and does grant on behalf of all authors of the Work (as defined in the below author licence), an exclusive licence and/or a non-exclusive licence for contributions from authors who are: i) UK Crown employees; ii) where BMJ has agreed a CC-BY licence shall apply, and/or iii) in accordance with the terms applicable for US Federal Government officers or employees acting as part of their official duties; on a worldwide, perpetual, irrevocable, royalty-free basis to BMJ Publishing Group Ltd ("BMJ") its licensees and where the relevant Journal is co-owned by BMJ to the co-owners of the Journal, to publish the Work in this journal and any other BMJ products and to exploit all rights, as set out in our [licence](#).

The Submitting Author accepts and understands that any supply made under these terms is made by BMJ to the Submitting Author unless you are acting as an employee on behalf of your employer or a postgraduate student of an affiliated institution which is paying any applicable article publishing charge ("APC") for Open Access articles. Where the Submitting Author wishes to make the Work available on an Open Access basis (and intends to pay the relevant APC), the terms of reuse of such Open Access shall be governed by a Creative Commons licence – details of these licences and which [Creative Commons](#) licence will apply to this Work are set out in our licence referred to above.

Other than as permitted in any relevant BMJ Author's Self Archiving Policies, I confirm this Work has not been accepted for publication elsewhere, is not being considered for publication elsewhere and does not duplicate material already published. I confirm all authors consent to publication of this Work and authorise the granting of this licence.

1
2
3 **Health Care Providers' Perceptions of Patient Complexity:**
4
5 **An Observation Study in HIV Outpatient Clinical Practice**
6
7
8
9

10 Shiko M. Ben-Menahem PhD*
11 Department of Management, Technology and Economics
12 ETH Zurich
13 Weinbergstrasse 56/58
14 Zurich
15 benmenahem@ethz.ch
16 +41 78 708 8588
17

18
19 Anastassja Sialm MSc
20 Department of Management, Technology and Economics
21 ETH Zurich
22 Weinbergstrasse 56/58
23 Zurich
24

25
26 Anna Hachfeld MD
27 Department of Infectious Diseases
28 Bern University Hospital
29 University of Bern
30 CH-3010 Bern
31

32
33 Andri Rauch MD
34 Department of Infectious Diseases
35 Bern University Hospital
36 University of Bern
37 CH-3010 Bern
38

39
40 Georg von Krogh PhD
41 Department of Management, Technology and Economics
42 ETH Zurich
43 Weinbergstrasse 56/58
44 Zurich
45

46
47 Hansjakob Furrer MD
48 Department of Infectious Diseases
49 Bern University Hospital
50 University of Bern
51 CH-3010 Bern
52
53

54
55 * Corresponding author
56

57 **Keywords:** Patient complexity; primary care, physician's perspective; multimorbidity;
58 experience

59 **Word count:** 6862
60

1
2
3 **Health Care Providers' Perceptions of Patient Complexity**
4
5 **An Observation Study in HIV Outpatient Clinical Practice**
6
7

8
9 **ABSTRACT**

10
11 **Introduction** Patient complexity is an increasingly used concept in clinical practice, policy
12 debates, and medical research. Yet the literature lacks a clear definition of its meaning and
13 drivers from the health provider's perspective. This shortcoming is problematic for medical
14 education in the light of a rising number of multimorbid patients and the necessity for future
15 health care providers that are adequately trained in treating complex patients.
16
17

18
19
20 **Objectives** To develop an empirically grounded framework of health care providers'
21 perceptions of patient complexity and complexity-contributing factors and unpacking the
22 relationship between case complexity, care complexity, and provider experience.
23
24

25
26 **Design** Qualitative study based on semi-structured in-depth interviews with health care
27 practitioners.
28

29
30 **Setting** A Swiss hospital-based outpatient clinic for Infectious Diseases (ID).
31

32
33 **Participants** A total of 31 health care providers participated. Participants volunteered to take
34 part and comprised 17 nurses, eight junior physicians (interns), and six senior physicians
35 (residents, fellows, and attendings).
36

37
38 **Results** Perceived patient complexity arises from the combination of case complexity drivers,
39 the provider's perceived controllability, and a set of complexity moderators at the levels of
40 the patient, the care provider, and the broader care context.
41
42

43
44 **Conclusions** The framework presented in this study helps to advance a shared understanding
45 of patient complexity. Our findings inform curriculum design and the teaching of essential
46 skills to medical students in areas characterized by high patient complexity such as general
47 internal medicine and geriatrics. From a policy perspective, our findings have important
48 implications for the design of more effective health care interventions for complex patients.
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

ARTICLE SUMMARY

Strengths and Limiations of this Study

- Primary data on health care providers' perceptions of patient complexity
- Data sourced across professions (physicians, nurses) and experience levels
- The study reports findings from a single outpatient setting. Results may not be generalizable to other primary care settings.
- The study only differentiates between two levels of experience (junior and senior health care providers).

For peer review only

INTRODUCTION

Providing medical care for complex patients constitutes one of the most challenging aspects of modern healthcare systems. In clinical practice and the research literature, the concept “complex patient” typically refers to patients with coexisting chronic conditions (i.e. comorbidity, multimorbidity, polypathology, dual diagnosis) and challenges associated with managing interactions among various conditions and medications. Medical complexity—the number of comorbidities—poses well-known challenges for patients, health care professionals, and health care systems. Yet studies investigating complex patients show that while the degree of comorbidity is informative for gauging the degree to which physicians experience a patient as “complex”, such measures do not fully capture complexity from the health provider’s perspective.^(1–6) Indeed, practitioners’ understanding of complexity entail a much broader set of contributing factors, including the patient’s psychosocial vulnerabilities, socioeconomic environment, cultural background, and behavioral factors.^(2,5,7,8)

While the importance of incorporating a broad range of complexity contributing factors into research on complex patients is increasingly recognized, recent studies indicate that much remains to be understood about patient complexity in clinical settings. Indeed, an analysis of the health science literature between 2005 and 2015,⁽⁹⁾ posit an urgent need for conceptual clarity about patient complexity and the ways in which medical practitioners experience it.

This study develops empirically grounded knowledge on how complexity-contributing factors of HIV patients translate into health care providers perceptions of care complexity in a hospital based outpatient clinic for Infectious Diseases (ID). Understanding the meaning, drivers, and outcomes of patient complexity from the health care provider’s perspective and the role of experience in complexity perceptions is of significant practical relevance. In HIV clinical care, for example, advances in antiretroviral therapies, disease screening and health promotion have significantly improved the life expectancy of HIV-positive individuals.⁽¹⁰⁾

1
2
3 Consequently, age-related multimorbidity pose new, hence incompletely understood
4 challenges for clinicians and health-care planners, challenges that require medical education,
5 effective health care interventions, and organizational support systems.^(8,11,12) For example,
6 care for complex patients involves close coordination among specialists forming
7 multidisciplinary teams. Ensuring that such teams achieve positive patient outcomes requires
8 that care providers collectively understand the nature of patient complexity. From an
9 education and policy perspective, developing a better concept of perceived complexity and the
10 role of the practitioner's experience is critical for designing effective health care training and
11 interventions that improve patient care while curbing the disproportional use of health care
12 resources for complex patients.
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

26 To elaborate our understanding of care providers' complexity perceptions, we conducted a
27 qualitative study based on semi-structured in-depth interviews with health care practitioners
28 with different levels of experience. Our data collection and analysis builds on a separation of
29 two domains¹ of complexity in HIV clinical practice: (1) patient-related factors (case
30 complexity), and (2) care delivery-related factors (care complexity).^(7,13,14) We advance prior
31 work on patient complexity by exploring under what conditions case complexity translates
32 into perceived care complexity. Focusing on complexity perceptions among nurses, junior
33 physicians, and senior physicians, we also address the paucity in research on differences in
34 complexity perceptions among healthcare professions and among healthcare providers with
35 different levels of experience.
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48

49 Drawing on our findings, we propose a conceptual framework that outlines key
50 relationships among complexity-contributing factors. The framework unpacks the medical
51
52
53
54

55
56 ¹ This conceptualisation reflects the separation of case complexity and care complexity (de Jonge et al., 2006;
57 Doessing & Burau, 2015) on one hand, and the separation of patient complexity and clinical task complexity
58 (Islam et al., 2016) on the other hand.
59
60

1
2
3 professional's perception of care complexity by relating case complexity drivers, the
4
5 provider's perceived controllability (i.e., the sense of his or her ability to diagnose and
6
7 exercise control over the patient's health state), and a set of complexity moderators at the
8
9 levels of the patient, the care provider, and the broader care context. Finally, we present ten
10
11 key questions to help guide medical professionals in making complexity both more explicit
12
13 and more manageable in daily practice. Our findings and framework help advance to notion
14
15 of patient complexity for HIV clinical practice and future research into care complexity
16
17 drivers.
18
19
20

21 **METHODS**

22
23 To develop understanding of health care providers' perceptions of patient complexity and
24
25 the role of experience therein, we conducted a qualitative study of practitioners with varying
26
27 levels of experience and across medical professions (i.e., junior and senior nurses and
28
29 physicians). Within the qualitative paradigm, we conducted a phenomenological approach, so
30
31 as to develop an in-depth understanding of patient complexity perceptions within the broader
32
33 social context of the medical practitioner's work setting.⁽¹⁵⁻¹⁷⁾ This approach allows the
34
35 researcher the focus on practitioners' lived experiences with respect to patient complexity and
36
37 the issues influencing the construction of individual perceptions of complexity. Interpretative
38
39 phenomenological analysis (IPA) provided the general research framework for our data
40
41 collection and data analysis process.⁽¹⁸⁻²⁰⁾ IPA foregrounds that the meanings that individuals
42
43 attribute to their experiences can be accessed and understood through an interpretative process
44
45 that focuses on the subject's individual cognitive inner world.
46
47
48
49

50 **Patient and public involvement**

51
52 No patients were involved in this study.
53

54 **Ethics approval**

55
56 This study was designed and conducted with careful attention to ethical aspects, and in
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 particular participant confidentiality. The data do not contain information about persons but
4
5 about the processes in the health care services of the hospital. The records are anonymised.
6
7 Therefore these data collection does not come under the Data Protection Act nor under the
8
9 Human Research Act. These conditions render the study exempt from the requirement for
10
11 ethics review board submission and approval under Swiss law, as confirmed by the
12
13 Institutional Review Board of the participating institution prior to enrolling study participants.
14
15

16 17 **Participants and Setting**

18
19 We conducted a qualitative study using semi-structured interviews with nurses and junior
20
21 and senior physicians of an ID department in a high-capacity Swiss university hospital,
22
23 focusing on the department's HIV outpatient care activities. In collaboration with the clinic
24
25 director, we scheduled interviews with all available department members, resulting in 31
26
27 participants, including 17 nurses, eight junior physicians (interns), and six senior physicians
28
29 (residents, fellows, and attendings). Department members were asked to participate in the
30
31 study and free to decline. One person declined to participate citing time constraints. Verbal
32
33 informed consent was obtained (and voice recorded) from each participant after explaining
34
35 the study procedures and data use before starting the interview. Patients or the public were
36
37 not involved in the design, or conduct, or reporting, or dissemination plans of our research.
38
39
40
41

42 43 **Data Collection**

44
45 To structure our interviews, we used an interview guide focusing on health care providers'
46
47 perceptions of patient complexity in both multimorbid and non-multimorbid patients in general,
48
49 with a focus on the department's activities in HIV clinical practice. In Phase 1 of our study, we
50
51 developed our interview guide in two stages. In the first stage, two members of the research
52
53 team, the principal investigator for this study (S.B.) and a research assistant (A.S.) conducted
54
55 exploratory pilot interviews with department members, including nurses, junior physicians and
56
57 senior physicians. Interviews lasted between 45-60 minutes. From these interviews and our
58
59
60

1
2
3 analysis of the literature on complex patients, we reached consensus on an initial set of
4 questions covering the health care provider's background and daily activities, perceptions of
5 complexity, and practices and strategies used in treating complex patients. To refine our
6 interview questions and ensure they were relevant to the research context, in the second stage,
7 we conducted a round-table discussion with 12 department members.
8
9
10
11
12
13
14

15 Using the insights from phase 1, in phase 2 of the study, S.B. and A.S. conducted 31
16 semistructured interviews over a 6-month period. Participants were briefed on the purpose and
17 confidentiality of the interviews, and were encouraged to share detailed personal experiences
18 as much as possible. Interviews took place in physicians' offices or other private spaces chosen
19 by the interviewees. Interviews lasted around 60 minutes on average, and were digitally
20 recorded and professionally transcribed verbatim.
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28

29 **Data Analysis**

30
31 The final data consisted of 320 pages of single-spaced transcripts. Transcribed files were
32 stored and thematically analysed in NVivo 11, a qualitative data analysis software (QSR
33 International). We followed a systematic inductive procedure for analysing qualitative data.⁽²¹⁾
34 First, all transcripts (raw data) were closely read multiple times by S.B. and A.S. During this
35 stage, we discussed the meaning of interview segments to develop a coding frame that we
36 then used to code all transcripts. We next discussed selected coded segments and refined the
37 coding scheme in several rounds. After reaching consensus on the coding scheme, the
38 transcripts were recoded according to the new coding scheme. This inductive approach
39 allowed for overarching general categories and more specific lower-level categories on
40 complexity perceptions and relations among these categories to emerge from the data. We
41 also paid attention to differences and similarities in complexity perceptions across levels of
42 experience. While experience in years of relevant ranged from recent graduates to 34 years,
43 we applied a binary distinction (junior vs senior) in the presentation of our results, where
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 junior refers to nurses and physicians with less than 3 years of experience since graduation.
4

5 From this initial analysis we developed a preliminary framework of the main domains and
6 drivers of complexity perceptions among health care providers. In producing the final
7 framework and reporting the study, S.B, A.S., and G.K. elicited and incorporated the
8 perspectives of three participants (A.H., who is an attending physician in infectious diseases,
9 A.R., who is a professor of infectious diseases, and H.F., who is head of department and
10 professor of infectious diseases) to promote trustworthiness of the study. The feedback from
11 member checking with these participant-authors served to confirm our interpretation of raw
12 data and the grouping of themes, refine the emergent framework, and ensure sensitivity to the
13 research context. At no point were participant-authors involved in data selection.
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24

25 26 **RESULTS**

27
28 Figure 1 shows a conceptual framework of our key findings. Our analysis revealed how
29 case complexity drivers and a set of complexity moderators at the patient level, care provider
30 level, and care context level jointly determined care providers' perceived controllability—
31 referring to the provider's sense of his or her ability to diagnose and exercise control over the
32 patient's health state. Providers' perceived controllability, in turn, was a key driver of
33 perceived care complexity. We next elaborate on these findings.
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41

42 *** INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE ***
43

44 **Case Complexity Drivers**

45
46 Participants described complexity-contributing factors relating to the patient's medical
47 health state as the primary component of case complexity. Factors in this category included
48 multimorbidity and polypharmacy, mental health, and changes in the patient's health state.
49
50
51
52

53 ***Multimorbidity, polypharmacy, and instability***

54
55 Participants identified the presence of multiple chronic medical conditions as a general
56 driver of perceived patient complexity. As one junior physician explained:
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 A simple situation would be a patient who needs his HIV drugs and takes them
4 regularly and has no contraindication to receiving a single tablet regimen. A more
5 complex situation, for example, would be an older patient with several unsuccessful
6 treatments behind him. That means he will have a complex HIV treatment with maybe
7 four, five tablets per day. Regimens that may cause complications with his kidneys or
8 digestion or sleeping are common. And then because of his age, he may have
9 developed other conditions, such as hypertension, which would formally have a
10 contraindication for some HIV treatments. That means he is at risk of cardiovascular
11 events, which we would have to check regularly with the cardiologist. . . . So
12 complexity entails any situation where one of his problems would influence the
13 treatment of other problems in a negative way, such that you cannot deal with every
14 disease optimally. (B6)
15
16

17
18 When asked what makes multimorbidity cases complex, one senior physician explained:
19

20
21 ...whenever one starts treating an aspect of the disease, it will immediately influence
22 other aspects. So one creates new problems and enhance complexity because another
23 problem will pop up. . . . That means that when treating multimorbid patients, one has
24 to try to anticipate what will come next in order to not miss it. With non-multimorbid
25 patients one doesn't have to do that as much. It's much easier and takes less effort.
26 (G1)
27

28 Participants also discussed how polypharmacy posed challenges for controlling the patient's
29 health state:
30
31

32
33 Multimorbid patients often take a lot of other drugs. Clearly, there one has to be much
34 more careful because of drug interactions. So the intern or I are going to spend some
35 time on the internet platform on drug interactions in front of the patient and check if
36 everything is okay. . . . That takes a bit more time. (G3)
37
38

39 In older patients who have different conditions, many symptoms are generally caused
40 by the drugs they are taking. Sometimes stopping or rearranging their drugs solves the
41 problem. [But] it's difficult to spot the right moment to react. One cannot send
42 multimorbid patients to the emergency ward every time they feel dizzy, that's not
43 going to work. . . . Sometimes there is a risk of missing things because one's vision is
44 blurred by all these other problems [that] might mask something more serious. (G3)
45
46

47 Moreover, participants argued that they would not perceive all multimorbid patients to be
48 complex in care delivery:
49

50
51 While a patient may be multimorbid, if none of the diseases are currently active but
52 under control with whatever strategies, then it is not a highly complex situation. (B6)
53
54

55 Unstable or unexpected changes in patients' health conditions were another important source
56 of complexity. As one nurse observed:
57
58

59
60 Complexity also arises when something new is constantly coming up. A patient with a

1
2
3 relatively simple treatment can suddenly develop hypertension, then a heart attack,
4 then a hip surgery. None of these have to be difficult, but it becomes complex. (C1)
5
6

7 ***Mental health***

8
9
10 Participants discussed various ways in which patients' mental health contributed to
11
12 complexity, including factors such as anxiety and depression associated with the knowledge
13
14 of living with a stigmatised chronic disease, and other psychiatric comorbidities. A senior
15
16 physician gave the following example of the complexity involved in treating a HIV patient
17
18 with a psychiatric disorder:
19
20

21
22 In certain situations, patients with mental disorders go into risky behaviors that are
23
24 harmful to them. We have a baseline HIV treatment, [but for these patients] I have to
25
26 think about how to deal with the psychopathological condition, which may interfere
27
28 with my treatment. Patients may stop taking pills and get sexually transmitted
29
30 infections.... [For example], when one gets a hepatitis C infection...treatment is only
31
32 possible when adherence is very good. So I [have to] make sure the patient has a really
33
34 good psychiatrist, and keep close contact to discuss how our treatments interact. (I2)
35
36

37
38 Mental comorbidities can also drive complexity perceptions because they hamper
39
40 diagnosis. As one junior physician stated:
41
42

43
44 There are [multimorbid patients] that are very easy, and with whom it does not take a
45
46 lot of time to know what the problem is. Then there are people who are so complex in
47
48 their attitude. For example, patients who drink a lot may get very nervous and
49
50 angry...and refuse to be examined. It can take more time to recognize other problems
51
52 [in such situations]. (B1)
53
54

55 **Provider's perceived controllability**

56
57 Providers' perceived controllability refers to a provider's sense of ability to diagnose the
58
59 patient, the perceived availability and scope of treatment options, and the ability to exercise
60
those treatment options to gain control over the patient's health state. Participants noted that
whether case complexity drivers would indeed translate into perceived care complexity
largely depended on the extent to which such drivers limited the provider's ability to

1
2
3 diagnose, the scope of available treatment options, and the ability to put treatment options into
4
5 practice.

6
7
8 One senior physician discussed how multimorbidity can limit the ability to diagnose and
9
10 determine the courses of intervention:

11
12 When one suspects a lung infection in an otherwise healthy person, it's mostly just a
13 simple bacterial pneumonia. But in a multimorbid person who has kidney dysfunction,
14 heart dysfunction, and lung dysfunction and takes multiple medications, there are many
15 more possible reasons for lung problems. So in multimorbid patients sometimes we
16 initially don't know the etiology. We think we have to treat the pneumonia with
17 antibiotics, but at the same time we have to improve the kidney and heart functions. And
18 maybe even stop the drug they have to see whether it's an infection at all. The number of
19 possibilities multiplies.... (G4)

20
21
22
23 Another senior physician explains how his sense of perceived complexity relates to his ability
24
25 to influence the patient's health state:

26
27 I would differentiate between the complexity which can be managed and the
28 complexity which is very difficult to deal with. That is not necessarily dependent on
29 the object of complexity. A situation can be very complex but quite easy to deal with
30 if one has good interactions among the patient and physician and other important
31 partners. [However,] if one has the problem that one cannot persuade the patient to
32 take their drugs, that can be extremely difficult to manage. (I1)

33
34
35 In a similar vein, one nurse explained that:

36
37 For me, something is complex when it is difficult to find a way forward. When
38 everything has been tried, the situation doesn't improve, and one cannot change
39 anything. (C1)

40 41 42 43 **Complexity Moderators: Patient Level**

44
45 Participants described a number of patient-related factors that enhanced or attenuated their
46 ability to control complexity emerging from the patient's health state. These 'complexity
47 moderators' included a patient's demographics, health objectives and behaviours, disease
48 knowledge, and personal resources.

49 50 51 ***Demographics***

52 53 54 *Age*

55
56
57 As is well known, age increases the likelihood of multimorbidity:
58
59
60

1
2
3 Some MSMs have more sexual transmitted infections than other [patient groups]. That's
4 something we can manage, we don't need other specialist for that. ... Older patients are
5 likely to have other problems that are not specific to HIV, like osteoporosis and high
6 cholesterol. That's very normal but sometimes they also begin to develop forms of renal
7 failure [or] high blood pressure...because of the HIV therapy. So we have to switch the
8 therapy. (B7)
9

10
11
12 A senior physician explained how complexity in multimorbidity is becoming increasingly
13 challenging in HIV clinical practice, as patients live longer due to improved therapies:
14

15
16
17 A somewhat new field for us is that we now have patients who basically live as long
18 as patients without an HIV infection. So we have an increasing number of older
19 patients, seventy, eighty years old, who also have many other problems.... It's not
20 only about more pathologies and more drugs but also about psychological and social
21 things that one wouldn't do for a young patient. Older people have trouble taking all
22 their drugs at the right time. So one has to work more with the nurses to prepare the
23 drugs. Providing care in a more holistic way, not only for one's specialty and the other
24 diseases but also the family and social context is important in these patients. (G3)
25
26
27

28 Age was also associated with patients' ability to curtail a spiral of illnesses. As one nurse
29 noted:
30
31

32
33 With older people, loneliness at home tends to come with bad nutrition, bad skin care,
34 not drinking enough.... They take their medicine thinking: 'today the pink one and
35 tomorrow the blue one,' more or less. Such combinations mean that people are
36 sometimes in a very dire state when they are admitted. (C10)
37
38
39

40 *Socio-cultural realm*

41
42 Participants also identified complexity contributing factors in the patient's social and cultural
43 realm. One senior physician described that:
44
45

46
47 Quite a few of our patients are migrants. There the complexity can just be a matter of
48 language, but also understandings of health and medicine, such as the role of a
49 physician or a nurse. These can mean very different things for somebody from
50 Cambodia, Uganda, or Serbia.... (I2)
51
52

53 In a similar vein, another senior physician said:

54
55 Some African patients, for example, very much fear being stigmatized if they
56 communicate that they are HIV infected.... [Or] they may go to their religious healer
57 who says 'these drugs are bad for you' and things like that. So that is a different kind of
58 complexity which one doesn't necessarily recognize at first. (I1)
59
60

Objectives & Behaviors

Treatment adherence and compliance

Among the subcategories of complexity moderators, patients' adherence to treatment emerged as a particularly salient factor curtailing providers' controllability. As one senior physician explains:

The patient who comes early enough, has a preserved immune system, and no comorbidity but denies his disease and does not want to take drugs can be extremely complex to deal with. We have patients here who do not believe that they are HIV infected, or that HIV causes AIDS. These interactions can be very complicated.... [After some time] one just realizes that the patient didn't take the drugs.

[In contrast], a patient who comes very late, say with a candida infection and other comorbidities, but is very willing to cooperate and to do tests, is very informed about the treatment, and tells the right things about the treatment, can be quite simple to manage because one can treat him. If the treatment doesn't work one has the right information. They are also very careful not to have drugs which could interact with their treatment so they will inform their GP and say: 'be careful, I cannot take this drug. The infectious disease physician said you have to be careful'. They come back with the list of symptoms they've had in the past three months, and a list with the drugs they did and did not take. That's a complex disease but easier to manage. (I1)

One junior physician described an example of a case in which the patient's non-adherence became a major complicating factor for care delivery:

We have a patient who has had HIV for a long time and didn't take any medication. Then he developed a lymphoma. When this was discovered he agreed to start the HIV treatment. But during routine check-ups we saw that his viral load was rising.... He said he was taking his HIV medication but we didn't find any drug levels in his blood, so we assume that he wasn't taking the pills, at least not regularly. Now there's a risk of developing resistance to his HIV treatment, which would mean we would have to switch to another therapy which might interfere with the ideal treatment of the lymphoma. It would cause a vicious cycle and suboptimal care of the tumor.

Patient's health objectives

Participants also noted how understanding the patient's own health objectives was important for successfully managing complex cases:

For patients, some things may be more important than [they are] for the physicians. For the physician, in general, the more acute a problem is, the more important it is. If a patient comes in with bacteraemia, bacteria grow in his blood and will kill him if we don't treat it correctly, this is the important problem for the treating physician.... But if [that] patient has hip pain every day for the past ten years and will maybe have it for

1
2
3 the next ten years, he will have hip pain as well; this bacteraemia is only a very small
4 episode in his life. So the focus is sometimes very different. This is important
5 information that one can get from one's patient. (G1)
6
7

8 In a related vein, one senior physician explained how in designing treatment plans for
9
10 complex cases they 'have to find solutions for multimorbid patients that are feasible at home,
11
12 because they are not living in the hospital. We often forget that as physicians because we only
13
14 see people as patients in a hospital'.
15

16 ***Knowledge and personal resources***

17 *Disease knowledge and literacy*

18
19 Participants explained how a patient's own understanding of their disease, and the ability
20
21 to communicate their knowledge with providers moderated how the latter perceived care
22
23 complexity. A nurse gave the following example of a patient with a high degree of literacy
24
25 and knowledge about his disease:
26
27
28
29
30

31
32 I noticed he had a thorough understanding of his illness. He was interested in lab
33 results, asked questions, was very perceptive of changes and communicated those to
34 us. I had the impression that he could assess his situation very well on his own. It
35 helped me to understand where we stood. He had had this carcinoma for a long time,
36 and he knew how his body functioned, so I didn't have to start from scratch....
37 Patients who live with a chronic illness for a long time are very different to deal with
38 than patients that don't know anything or have just heard their diagnosis. (C6)
39
40

41
42 In contrast, a junior physician noted that some patients are not receptive to information on a
43
44 disease, but just want therapy:
45
46

47 When one tells them, 'You have a chronic hepatitis B, you're sixteen years old, it's not
48 a problem now but it could become a problem,' they are just like 'Why don't you just
49 give me my medication?' (B7)
50

51 A senior physician noted how the availability of online resources has increased patients'
52
53 disease knowledge and literacy, and how a patient's knowledge about the disease and
54
55 treatment can influence the physician's controllability:
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 [Patients with] chronic illnesses have had the opportunity to gather information about
4 the disease for a long time. Often they know things even better than the physicians. I
5 think that this is something that has changed with the availability of electronic
6 information.... An informed patient is more likely to keep on going with the treatment
7 when problems arise, [whereas with] patients that don't understand the disease or the
8 treatment, there is often a time where they become fed up and say, 'I've had enough, I
9 want to go home. Please stop....' Then one has to discuss and negotiate and so on.
10
11 (G1)
12

13 *Energy*

14
15 Within the category of personal resources, participants discussed the degree to which
16 patients had the energy to cope with their conditions as one of the most important moderators
17 of perceived complexity. As one senior physician notes:
18
19
20
21

22 Patients with multimorbidity always come to the point where they get tired, and they
23 don't have the energy to take the next step. Then one has to try to motivate them. The
24 psychological aspect of those treatments is important. (G1)
25
26

27 Yet one nurse explained:

28
29 Being multimorbid doesn't have to mean being limited or very ill. One can be very
30 vital and active. There are people who come here with multiple conditions, but they
31 seem to lead their lives and somehow manage to find a balance. (C2)
32
33

34 *Financial resources*

35
36 In comparing her interactions with multimorbid and non-multimorbid patients, one junior
37 physician explained the role of a patient's financial resources as follows:
38
39

40 When I talk to [a multimorbid] patient, I have to go through more points and ask more
41 things about his wellbeing... what kind of social insurance or money does he have? Can
42 he cope financially?
43
44

45 Discussing an example, she notes:

46
47 The goal was to have him stabilized on HIV medication so that his virus was
48 suppressed, he wouldn't have any side effects and would feel well. And I wanted to
49 treat his hepatitis C, but then the medical insurance said they wouldn't pay so there
50 was nothing much we could do at that moment, and we said okay, let's put it on hold,
51 we'll wait and maybe next year the limitations will change.
52
53

54 **Complexity Moderators: Care Provider Level**

55
56 Our findings show that providers' perceptions of care complexity were also moderated by
57 their personal competencies and resources.
58
59
60

Experience and expertise

Participants repeatedly noted the critical role of experience as a key resource for dealing with complex cases. As one junior physician reflected:

The capacity to synthesise what is important and what is not, is an experience thing. I think I am doing it much better than one year ago, and I will be even better a year from now. (B7)

One senior physician explained how the source of complexity changes over time, as one gains experience with complex patients:

In the beginning one is more concerned with and focused on objective complexity, problems that the patient has. It's hard to know what to do first. Should I first treat the heart disease or the infection? One expects that if one has a plan and prescribes a treatment, the problem is solved. With time that kind of complexity gets more manageable. But [then] one recognises another type of complexity: the treatment strategy that fits patient one can be completely wrong for patient two even if they have the exact same disease. Because of the cultural environment, or because they have another understanding of the disease, or because one of them is depressed and I didn't recognize that. The interaction with the patient, the family, the culture... all these things become more important, and in the beginning, it's very hard to recognize and appreciate that. [Later, one develops] a broader view of a patient and also has these bad experiences, where one made these fantastic plans and the patient just didn't take his drugs, and one becomes incredibly disappointed. And one also develops a better understanding of what not to do in certain situations. [For example,] guidelines say one should screen for prostatic cancer every year, but with time one says, well this patient has other problems than screening for prostatic cancer. One has to fix other things first. And one also realises that one cannot treat patients if the psychosocial problems aren't dealt with. That's very hard to learn and difficult to train in others. (I1)

Another senior physician noted:

The more experience I have, the more I see that simplified guidelines do not actually fit everybody. The more complex the case, the less they fit. We have to be aware of when simple guidelines don't fit the process of diagnosing and treating a patient... One develops a feeling for when a case is more complex and needs more time for interviewing, for thinking outside of the box. (I2)

Time

Participants noted that managing care for complex patients requires considerable more time resources than for less complex patients. As a senior physician commented:

1
2
3 [There is a] mounting financial pressure on the health system.... [I'm concerned] that
4 we will not be allowed to deliver the best care in complex cases because of financial
5 restrictions. (I2)
6

7
8 Another senior physician discussed the repercussions of economising time on complex cases:
9

10 If one doesn't invest the time to coordinate the whole process in the beginning, one will
11 lose more time at the end of the day because one will have to do it later anyway. (G1)
12

13 **Complexity Moderators: Care Context Level**

14
15 Participants identified care coordination challenges in three domains: cross-disciplinary,
16 cross-professional, and cross-level. Each of these coordination challenges influenced
17
18 providers' perceived ability to control a patient's health state. Higher case complexity and
19
20 higher perceived care complexity were associated with more intense coordination
21
22 requirements.
23
24
25

26 ***Cross-disciplinary coordination***

27
28
29 Cross-disciplinary coordination concerns the management of interdependencies across a
30
31 patient's health care providers (e.g. specialists). As one senior physician noted:
32
33

34 With multimorbidity there are a lot of different [specialists] involved. There is the
35 infectious diseases specialist, the internal medicine specialist, maybe a psychiatrist, a
36 rheumatologist.... One problem is that you have to make sure to obtain all the information
37 from those involved. If anyone starts doing something...it will affect other problems as
38 well. And often information gets lost because it takes time to inform each other, and not
39 everybody does it. (G1)
40
41

42 Participants often described the need to organise care for complex patients across care
43
44 providers, in the form of a 'care team'. As one senior researcher explains:
45
46

47 If one only focuses on the treatment, but skip steps in building a care team and doesn't
48 consult with other disciplines, it won't work. Interns and junior physicians are often not
49 very happy when one organises grand rounds, and discusses the patient's problem for
50 hours with other physicians, because it takes a lot of time. But I try to explain to them
51 that they really have to take this time, or the treatment will not be successful. (G1)
52
53

54 ***Cross-professional coordination***

1
2
3 Cross-professional coordination entails managing interdependencies among practitioners in
4
5 the patient's broader care environment. One senior physician explained these kinds of
6
7 interdependencies with non-medical professionals as follows:
8
9

10 Many of our patients are in difficult social situations. It is not only communicating with
11 other physicians but also communicating with social workers and health insurance and
12 so on. That's an important part of the work, especially for patients who are migrants or
13 drug users.... For example, it's more difficult to have polymorbid issues dealt with
14 when someone comes in with a translator. Prisoners come in with the police, so one has
15 to coordinate their consultations.... These issues take a lot of our physicians' time on a
16 daily basis. (G3)
17
18

19 While the need for cross-professional coordination often increases complexity, participants
20 also noted ways in which coordination across professions helped to reduce perceived care
21 complexity. As one junior physician explains:
22
23
24

25 Social workers provide incredible benefits. [They save] a huge amount of work. Having
26 to fill out forms that we are not familiar with and writing letters we don't usually write
27 [and] don't know the official formulations for, would take us double the time. (B 6)
28
29

30 ***Cross-level coordination***

31
32 Some participants also identified differences in tenure and hierarchical position as a factor
33 influencing their ability to coordinate care for complex patients. One junior physician
34 described how she initially had difficulties soliciting help from specialists outside the
35 department:
36
37
38
39
40
41

42 In the beginning, I was not very confident calling other specialists. When they said
43 they couldn't come I'd say 'ok, no problem'. That was not helpful. I learned that I had
44 to be stricter, and approach it with more power and confidence, and more clarity about
45 what the patient needed.... Sometimes, when we leave the choice to the specialists,
46 they'll say no. But if we say, 'You don't have a choice, you have to see this patient.
47 It's an emergency', it works better. (B1)
48
49

50 Table 1 summarises the perceived controllability of complexity-contributing factors
51 according to the provider's level of experience. The findings in Table 1 show that
52 understanding the role of practitioner experience in the perception of and approach to patient
53 complexity has important implications for the development of curricula at the undergraduate
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 and post-graduate levels, in particular in medical fields such as geriatrics and general internal
4
5 medicine, in which skills for managing care for older multimorbid patients are necessary.
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For peer review only

Table 1. Perceived controllability (i.e., ability to diagnose, availability and scope of treatment options; ability to exercise treatment options) of complexity-contributing factors according to provider experience level

Complexity contributing factors	Provider Experience ^a	
	Low	High
Case complexity drivers		
Multimorbidity & polypharmacy	low/medium	medium/high
Changing health state	low	low
Mental health	low	medium (in collaboration)
Patient level complexity moderators		
Age	low	low
Managing patient's extended care network (e.g. family)	low	medium
Cultural and language differences	low/medium	low/medium
Non-adherence to treatment	low	low/medium
Diverging patient-provider health objectives	low	low/medium
Disease knowledge and literacy	low/medium	low/medium
Energy	medium	medium
Financial resources	low/medium	low/medium
Care provider level moderators		
Recognizing 'weak signals' of complexity	low	high
Managing non-standard/non-guideline cases	low	high
Allotting time to complex patients	low/medium	low/medium
Care context level moderators		
Cross-disciplinary coordination	medium	high
Resolving cross-professional (e.g. nurse-doctor) information asymmetries	low/medium	high
Cross-level coordination	low	high

^a Provider experience is anchored low: < 3 years post graduation; high: > 3 years post graduation.

For example, the findings highlight that more experienced medical practitioners report high perceived controllability over complexity moderators at the care provider level and care context level, whereas these factors constitute an important driver of perceived patient complexity in less experienced practitioners (i.e., low perceived controllability). More specifically, the findings suggest that in designing training programs in areas where patient complexity is high, medical educators should place particular emphasis on developing skills to recognize the diverse set of signals of patient complexity, managing non-standard/non-guideline cases, resolving cross-professional information asymmetries, and coordinating care across levels of seniority.

DISCUSSION

Since the early 1990s, global healthcare systems have come under economic pressure in the face of increased health care spending.⁽²²⁾ As a result, there is an increasing demand on health care providers to effectively treat, document, and economize on the time spent on complex patients with high care requirements. However, what constitutes a complex patient remains poorly defined. This study sought to inform medical education in domains characterized by high patient complexity (e.g., general internal medicine and geriatrics) by identifying the scope and impact of patient complexity contributing factors and the role of practitioner experience in complexity perceptions. In so doing, our study advances the much-needed expansion of the concept “complex patient”—moving from objective complexity-contributing factors relating to the patient’s medical health state to a broader, holistic notion, including non-medical factors. Our findings have important implications for medical education and the literature on patient complexity.

First, the study provides insights into complexity drivers in clinical practice. Whereas previous studies have provided important insights into general factors contributing to health care providers’ perceptions of patient complexity^(1,2,11), our study and conceptualization extends prior work by addressing patient complexity from the health care provider’s perspective as a combination of patient characteristics and practitioner experience. As Doessing and Burau conclude in their review of the literature on multimorbidity, prior studies on care coordination for complex patients have offered little insights into differences between care providers.⁽¹⁴⁾ Our findings show that the extent to which complexity contributing factors influence providers’ perceived controllability is to an important degree determined by experience.

While our study is rooted in HIV clinical practice, the complexity contributing factors identified in this study may translate to the treatment of other chronic illnesses. In HIV

1
2
3 clinical practice, improvements in antiretroviral therapies have tremendously increased the
4 life expectancy of patients. Medical practitioners in our study explained that as HIV patients
5 age, multimorbidity poses new challenges for managing patient complexity. While the
6 medical aspects of complexity arising from comorbidities emerged as potential drivers of
7 perceived complexity, providers' subjective experience of complexity was greatly influenced
8 by more general, non-medical factors such as patients' adherence to treatment and the
9 organisation of the care context. Our findings thus reinforce and add detail to studies that
10 conceptualise patient complexity from the health care provider's perspective as a function of
11 the patients' physical and mental medical conditions, socioeconomic factors, and
12 behaviours.⁽¹⁾ Nevertheless, stark differences in the clinical practise of different medical
13 specialisations mean that improving patient outcomes requires discipline-specific insights into
14 care complexity perceptions.

15
16 Our findings also elaborate prior work by not only identifying complexity-contributing
17 factors but also explaining the relations among three dimensions of complexity. Importantly,
18 we introduce the concept of complexity-moderating factors to provide a basis for identifying
19 the conditions that determine the extent to which case complexity translates into perceived
20 care complexity. Case complexity drivers may not manifest in a significant way without the
21 presence of complexity-moderating factors, which act as a 'multiplier,' akin to a coefficient.
22 In line with previous studies, health care providers in this study explained that case
23 complexity drivers (i.e., multimorbidity and interdependencies among physical and mental
24 health state factors) generally increase the potential for perceived complexity. Yet, our study
25 participants also argued that complexity is only perceived as such to the extent that other
26 patient characteristics ("case complexity moderators") and aspects of the care coordination
27 context ("care complexity moderators") enable or constrain the controllability of the patient's
28 health.

1
2
3 By conceptualising the relations among case complexity drivers, complexity moderators,
4 and perceived care complexity, our study highlights the need for designing more effective
5 interventions and care delivery models in high-complexity health care settings. Medical
6 professions are becoming increasingly specialised, while the proportion of older, more
7 complex patients rapidly increases. Given these developments, it is critical that we understand
8 the sources of patient complexity from the health providers' perspective before designing
9 technological and organisational solutions that help professionals manage the cross-
10 disciplinary and cross-professional coordination of complex cases.⁽²³⁾

11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21 Third, our findings and framework foreground the need to develop understanding of the
22 diverse drivers of complexity in health care training and -education. As corroborated by
23 several of our participants, there exists a need for aligning medical education with the clinical
24 reality of managing care for complex patients. The framework developed in this study may
25 serve as a starting point for identifying the interpersonal and coordination skills and
26 competencies required from clinicians who provide care to complex patients in highly
27 complex settings such as general internal medicine and geriatrics. Fourth, to advance the
28 clinical application of our findings, we present ten questions (see Table 2) that may assist
29 health care professionals in unravelling and communicating the nature of patient complexity.
30 By making patient complexity more explicit, these questions can help health care students to
31 more effectively identify its drivers, and develop the essential skills to manage complex
32 patient care in daily practice.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Table 2. Complexity checklist

Case Complexity (patient state)	Care Complexity (coordinating and providing care)
<p>1. Medical health state: What are the patient's physical and mental comorbidities, and how may they interact in treatment?</p> <p>2. Demographics: How do age, socio-cultural, and economic characteristics of the patient impact diagnosis and treatment?</p> <p>3. Adherence and compliance: What are the patient's health objectives and barriers to adherence and compliance?</p> <p>4. Personal resources: What is the patient's level of understanding, energy, and capacity for coping with disease, treatment, and changes?</p>	<p>5. Care team: Who are the different care actors and what are their roles and interdependencies? Are treatment roles and objectives well-defined, aligned, and shared?</p> <p>6. Complexity perceptions: What is complex for whom?</p> <p>7. Coordination barriers: What are the potential barriers to cross-disciplinary, cross-professional, and cross-level coordination?</p> <p>8. Coordination tools: Which coordination and communication tools are feasible and appropriate?</p>
<p>9. Controllability: What sources of complexity can/should I control, coordinate, delegate, or defer?</p> <p>10. Change: How may the sources of complexity develop in the future?</p>	

Limitations

The results of this study have to be interpreted relative to its empirical and methodological limitations. First, our interviews focused on the complexity perceptions of practitioners working in a single setting—a university hospital’s department for infectious diseases. While the physicians in our study also perform consultations for the hospital’s inpatients, our interviews emphasized complexity in the ID department’s treatment of outpatients. Second, the framework is grounded on data from a Swiss hospital, and should not be generalized to settings where resource restrictions are even more severe, and access to help from other specialists (e.g., social workers) is more limited. Third, our study includes both nurses and physicians informants. It should be noted that while the physicians included in our study work exclusively for the ID department, most of the nurses working in the ID department also work for an internal medicine outpatient clinic. Moreover, in the outpatient clinic that we studied, junior physicians have the primary responsibility over coordinating patient care. It is likely that these setting-specific characteristics influenced our findings. To validate our framework, further research needs to investigate other inpatient and outpatient settings. Fourth, our operationalization of “experience” into “junior” or “senior” is arguably crude. Future work should elaborate on this measure with sensitivity to the continuous nature of experience and the critical time points in a health care provider’s career that may define it.

Conclusion

Studying health care providers in HIV clinical practice, we developed a framework explaining how a patient’s case complexity translates into a care provider’s perceived care complexity. Our findings show that case complexity is moderated by the provider’s sense of controllability of the patient’s health state, and complexity moderators, including non-medical patient characteristics and the coordination context in which care is delivered. The framework may be used in training and educating health care providers with complex patient care

responsibilities, and for designing future care models and interventions. Follow-up studies are needed to validate our framework in different settings, and to illuminate specific strategies and resources that providers in different professional roles utilize in order to manage perceived complexity.

AUTHOR STATEMENTS

A. Contributory statement

All persons designated as authors qualify for authorship, and all those who qualify are listed; the byline includes no honorary or ghost authors.

Each author has participated sufficiently in the work to take public responsibility for appropriate portions of the content.

SB and AS contributed to study design, literature search, writing, data collection, data analysis and interpretation, and preparation of tables and figures. AH and AR contributed to data interpretation and writing. GK and HF contributed to writing.

This manuscript has not been previously published and is not under consideration in the same or substantially similar form in any other journal.

B. Disclosure of potential conflicts of interest:

1. **Shiko Ben-Menahem** has nothing to disclose.
2. **Anastassja Sialm** has nothing to disclose.
3. **Anna Hachfeld** reports grants from Viiv, grants from Gilead, grants from MSD, outside the submitted work.
4. **Andri Rauch** reports support to his institution for advisory boards and/or travel grants from Janssen-Cilag, MSD, Gilead Sciences, Abbvie, and Bristol-Myers Squibb, and an unrestricted research grant from Gilead Sciences. All remuneration went to his home institution and not to AR personally, and all remuneration was provided outside the submitted work.
5. **Georg von Krogh** reports grants from Novartis outside the submitted work.
6. **Hansjakob Furrer** has nothing to disclose.

C. Funding:

This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial or not-for-profit sectors.

D. Data sharing statement:

Data is available from the first author upon request.

REFERENCES

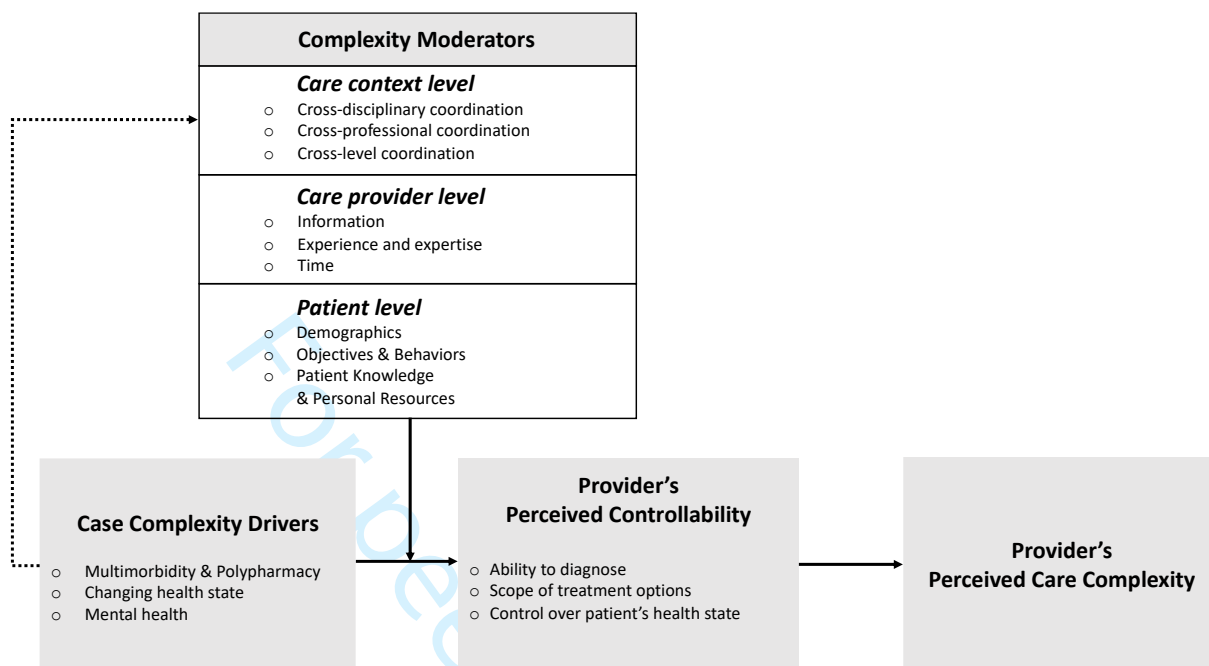
1. Grant RW, Ashburner JM, Hong CC, Chang Y, Barry MJ, Atlas SJ. Defining Patient Complexity From the Primary Care Physician's Perspective A Cohort Study. *Ann Intern Med.* 2011;**155**(12):797–804.
2. Loeb DF, Binswanger IA, Candrian C, Bayliss EA. Primary care physician insights into a typology of the complex patient in primary care. *Ann Fam Med.* 2015;**13**(5):451–455.
3. Loeb DF, Bayliss EA, Candrian C, DeGruy F V., Binswanger IA. Primary care providers' experiences caring for complex patients in primary care: A qualitative study. *BMC Fam Pract.* 2016;**17**(1):17–35.
4. Roosan D, Weir C, Samore M, Jones M, Rahman M, Stoddard GJ. Identifying complexity in infectious diseases inpatient settings: An observation study. *J Biomed Inform.* 2017;**71**:S13–21.
5. Safford MM, Allison JJ, Kiefe CI. Patient complexity: More than comorbidity. The vector model of complexity. *J Gen Intern Med.* 2007;**22**:382–90.
6. Safford MM. The Complexity of Complex Patients. *J Gen Intern Med.* 2015;**30**(12):1724–5.
7. Islam R, Weir C, Fiol G Del. Clinical complexity in medicine: A measurement model of task and patient complexity. *Methods Inf Med.* 2016;**55**(1):14–22.
8. Schaink A, Kuluski K, Lyons R, Fortin M, Jadad A, Upshur R. A scoping review and thematic classification of patient complexity: offering a unifying framework. *J Comorbidity.* 2012;**2**:1–9.
9. Manning E, Gagnon M. The complex patient: A concept clarification. *Nurs Heal Sci.* 2017;**19**(1):13–21.
10. Gueler A, Moser A, Calmy A, Günthard HF, Bernasconi E, Furrer H. Life expectancy in HIV-positive persons in Switzerland: Matched comparison with general population. *Aids.* 2017;**31**(3):427–36.
11. Peek CJ, Baird MA, Coleman E. Primary care for patient complexity, not only disease. *Fam Syst Health.* 2009;**27**(4):287–302.
12. Mount JK, Massanari RM, Teachman J. Patient Care Complexity as Perceived by Primary Care Physicians. *Fam Syst Heal.* 2015;**33**(2):137–145.
13. de Jonge P, Huyse FJ, Stiefel FC. Case and Care Complexity in the Medically Ill. *Med Clin North Am.* 2006;**90**(4):679–92.
14. Doessing A, Burau V. Care coordination of multimorbidity: a scoping study. *J Comorbidity.* 2015;**5**:15–28.
15. Kvale S. The qualitative research interview – A phenomenological and a hermeneutical mode of understanding. *J Phenom Psychol* 1983;**14** (2):171–96.
16. Miller W, Crabtree B. Overview of qualitative research methods. In: Crabtree BF, Miller WL, eds. *Doing Qualitative Research.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage 1992;3–33.
17. Holstein JA, Gubrium JF. Phenomenology, ethno methodology, and interpretive practice. In: Denzin NK, Lincoln YS, eds. *Handbook of Qualitative Research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications 1994;262–72.
18. Creswell JW. *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing among Five Traditions*, 2nd edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications 2007;38–41.
19. Smith JA, Jarman M, Osborn M. Doing interpretative phenomenological analysis. In: Murray M, Chamberlain K, eds. *Qualitative Health Psychology: Theories and Methods.* London: Sage Publications 1999;218–41.
20. Biggerstaff D, Thompson A. Interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA): a qualitative methodology of choice in health care research. *Qual Res Psychol*

- 1
2
3 2008;**5**:173–83.
- 4 21. Thomas DR. A General Inductive Approach for Analyzing Qualitative Evaluation
5 Data. *Am J Eval*. 2006;**27**(2):237–46.
- 6 22. OECD. Fiscal Sustainability of Health Systems: Bridging Health and Finance
7 Perspectives. 2015;1–8.
- 8 23. Ben-Menahem SM, von Krogh G, Erden Z, Schneider A. Coordinating knowledge
9 creation in multidisciplinary teams: Evidence from early-stage drug discovery. *Acad*
10 *Man J*. 2016;**59**(4):1308-1338.
11
12
13

14 **FIGURE LEGEND**

15
16
17 Figure 1 shows how provider's perceived care complexity is driven by the provider's
18 perceived controllability (i.e., the provider's perceived ability to diagnose the patient, the
19 assessment of the scope of available treatment options, and the control over the patient's
20 health state). Perceived controllability is driven by case complexity drivers and complexity
21 moderators on the care context level, the care provider level, and the patient level.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Figure 1. Framework of perceived care complexity showing case complexity drivers, controllability, and complexity moderators.



Standards for Reporting Qualitative Research (SRQR)*

<http://www.equator-network.org/reporting-guidelines/srqr/>

Page/line no(s).

Title and abstract

<p>Title - Concise description of the nature and topic of the study Identifying the study as qualitative or indicating the approach (e.g., ethnography, grounded theory) or data collection methods (e.g., interview, focus group) is recommended</p>	p.1
<p>Abstract - Summary of key elements of the study using the abstract format of the intended publication; typically includes background, purpose, methods, results, and conclusions</p>	p.3

Introduction

<p>Problem formulation - Description and significance of the problem/phenomenon studied; review of relevant theory and empirical work; problem statement</p>	p.5/l.13-17
<p>Purpose or research question - Purpose of the study and specific objectives or questions</p>	p.5/l.18

Methods

<p>Qualitative approach and research paradigm - Qualitative approach (e.g., ethnography, grounded theory, case study, phenomenology, narrative research) and guiding theory if appropriate; identifying the research paradigm (e.g., postpositivist, constructivist/ interpretivist) is also recommended; rationale**</p>	p.7
<p>Researcher characteristics and reflexivity - Researchers' characteristics that may influence the research, including personal attributes, qualifications/experience, relationship with participants, assumptions, and/or presuppositions; potential or actual interaction between researchers' characteristics and the research questions, approach, methods, results, and/or transferability</p>	p.9-10
<p>Context - Setting/site and salient contextual factors; rationale**</p>	p.8
<p>Sampling strategy - How and why research participants, documents, or events were selected; criteria for deciding when no further sampling was necessary (e.g., sampling saturation); rationale**</p>	p.8
<p>Ethical issues pertaining to human subjects - Documentation of approval by an appropriate ethics review board and participant consent, or explanation for lack thereof; other confidentiality and data security issues</p>	p.7
<p>Data collection methods - Types of data collected; details of data collection procedures including (as appropriate) start and stop dates of data collection and analysis, iterative process, triangulation of sources/methods, and modification of procedures in response to evolving study findings; rationale**</p>	p.8

1 2 3 4 5	Data collection instruments and technologies - Description of instruments (e.g., interview guides, questionnaires) and devices (e.g., audio recorders) used for data collection; if/how the instrument(s) changed over the course of the study	p.8-9
6 7 8	Units of study - Number and relevant characteristics of participants, documents, or events included in the study; level of participation (could be reported in results)	p.8-9
9 10 11 12	Data processing - Methods for processing data prior to and during analysis, including transcription, data entry, data management and security, verification of data integrity, data coding, and anonymization/de-identification of excerpts	p.9-10
13 14 15 16	Data analysis - Process by which inferences, themes, etc., were identified and developed, including the researchers involved in data analysis; usually references a specific paradigm or approach; rationale**	p.9-10
17 18 19 20	Techniques to enhance trustworthiness - Techniques to enhance trustworthiness and credibility of data analysis (e.g., member checking, audit trail, triangulation); rationale**	p.9-10

Results/findings

23 24 25 26	Synthesis and interpretation - Main findings (e.g., interpretations, inferences, and themes); might include development of a theory or model, or integration with prior research or theory	p.10-21
27 28 29	Links to empirical data - Evidence (e.g., quotes, field notes, text excerpts, photographs) to substantiate analytic findings	p.10-21

Discussion

32 33 34 35 36 37 38	Integration with prior work, implications, transferability, and contribution(s) to the field - Short summary of main findings; explanation of how findings and conclusions connect to, support, elaborate on, or challenge conclusions of earlier scholarship; discussion of scope of application/generalizability; identification of unique contribution(s) to scholarship in a discipline or field	p.21-25
39	Limitations - Trustworthiness and limitations of findings	

Other

42 43 44	Conflicts of interest - Potential sources of influence or perceived influence on study conduct and conclusions; how these were managed	p.24
45 46	Funding - Sources of funding and other support; role of funders in data collection, interpretation, and reporting	p.2

*The authors created the SRQR by searching the literature to identify guidelines, reporting standards, and critical appraisal criteria for qualitative research; reviewing the reference lists of retrieved sources; and contacting experts to gain feedback. The SRQR aims to improve the transparency of all aspects of qualitative research by providing clear standards for reporting qualitative research.

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

**The rationale should briefly discuss the justification for choosing that theory, approach, method, or technique rather than other options available, the assumptions and limitations implicit in those choices, and how those choices influence study conclusions and transferability. As appropriate, the rationale for several items might be discussed together.

Reference:

O'Brien BC, Harris IB, Beckman TJ, Reed DA, Cook DA. **Standards for reporting qualitative research: a synthesis of recommendations.** *Academic Medicine*, Vol. 89, No. 9 / Sept 2014
DOI: [10.1097/ACM.0000000000000388](https://doi.org/10.1097/ACM.0000000000000388)

For peer review only

BMJ Open

How Do Health-Care Providers' Construe Patient Complexity? A Qualitative Study of Multimorbidity in HIV Outpatient Clinical Practice

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2021-051013.R1
Article Type:	Original research
Date Submitted by the Author:	07-Oct-2021
Complete List of Authors:	Ben-Menahem, Shiko; ETH Zurich, Management, Technology, and Economics Sialm, Anastassja; ETH Zurich, Department of Management, Technology and Economics Hachfeld, Anna ; Inselspital University Hospital Bern Rauch, Andri; Inselspital University Hospital Bern, Department of Infectious Diseases von Krogh, Georg; ETH Zurich, Department of Management, Technology and Economics Furrer, Hansjakob; Inselspital University Hospital Bern, Department of Infectious Diseases
Primary Subject Heading:	HIV/AIDS
Secondary Subject Heading:	Health policy, Infectious diseases, Medical education and training, Medical management, Qualitative research
Keywords:	PRIMARY CARE, QUALITATIVE RESEARCH, HEALTH SERVICES ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts



I, the Submitting Author has the right to grant and does grant on behalf of all authors of the Work (as defined in the below author licence), an exclusive licence and/or a non-exclusive licence for contributions from authors who are: i) UK Crown employees; ii) where BMJ has agreed a CC-BY licence shall apply, and/or iii) in accordance with the terms applicable for US Federal Government officers or employees acting as part of their official duties; on a worldwide, perpetual, irrevocable, royalty-free basis to BMJ Publishing Group Ltd ("BMJ") its licensees and where the relevant Journal is co-owned by BMJ to the co-owners of the Journal, to publish the Work in this journal and any other BMJ products and to exploit all rights, as set out in our [licence](#).

The Submitting Author accepts and understands that any supply made under these terms is made by BMJ to the Submitting Author unless you are acting as an employee on behalf of your employer or a postgraduate student of an affiliated institution which is paying any applicable article publishing charge ("APC") for Open Access articles. Where the Submitting Author wishes to make the Work available on an Open Access basis (and intends to pay the relevant APC), the terms of reuse of such Open Access shall be governed by a Creative Commons licence – details of these licences and which [Creative Commons](#) licence will apply to this Work are set out in our licence referred to above.

Other than as permitted in any relevant BMJ Author's Self Archiving Policies, I confirm this Work has not been accepted for publication elsewhere, is not being considered for publication elsewhere and does not duplicate material already published. I confirm all authors consent to publication of this Work and authorise the granting of this licence.

How Do Health-Care Providers Construe Patient Complexity?

A Qualitative Study of Multimorbidity in HIV Outpatient Clinical Practice

Shiko M. Ben-Menahem PhD*

Department of Management, Technology and Economics
ETH Zurich
Weinbergstrasse 56/58
Zurich
benmenahem@ethz.ch

Anastassja Sialm MSc

Department of Management, Technology and Economics
ETH Zurich
Weinbergstrasse 56/58
Zurich

Anna Hachfeld MD

Department of Infectious Diseases
Bern University Hospital
University of Bern
CH-3010 Bern

Andri Rauch MD

Department of Infectious Diseases
Bern University Hospital
University of Bern
CH-3010 Bern

Georg von Krogh PhD

Department of Management, Technology and Economics
ETH Zurich
Weinbergstrasse 56/58
Zurich

Hansjakob Furrer MD

Department of Infectious Diseases
Bern University Hospital
University of Bern
CH-3010 Bern

* Corresponding author

Keywords: Patient complexity; complex patient; primary care, physician's perspective; comorbidity; multimorbidity; experience

How Do Health-Care Providers Construe Patient Complexity?

A Qualitative Study of Multimorbidity in HIV Outpatient Clinical Practice

ABSTRACT

Introduction Patient complexity is an increasingly used concept in clinical practice, policy debates, and medical research. Yet the literature lacks a clear definition of its meaning and drivers from the health provider's perspective. This shortcoming is problematic for clinical practice and medical education in the light of a rising number of multimorbid patients and the need for future health-care providers that are adequately trained in treating complex patients.

Objectives To develop an empirically grounded framework of health-care providers' perceptions of patient complexity and to characterize the relationship between case complexity, care complexity, and provider experience as complexity-contributing factors.

Design Qualitative study based on semi-structured in-depth interviews with health-care practitioners.

Setting A Swiss hospital-based HIV outpatient clinic.

Participants A total of 31 health-care providers participated. Participants volunteered to take part and comprised 17 nurses, eight junior physicians (interns), and six senior physicians (residents, fellows, and attendings).

Results Perceived patient complexity arises from the combination of case complexity drivers, the provider's perceived controllability, and a set of complexity moderators at the levels of the patient, the care provider, and the broader care context. We develop a conceptual framework that outlines key relationships among these complexity-contributing factors and present ten key questions to help guide medical professionals in making complexity more explicit and more manageable in daily practice.

Conclusions The framework presented in this study helps to advance a shared understanding of patient complexity. Our findings inform curriculum design and the teaching of essential skills to medical students in areas characterized by high patient complexity such as general internal medicine and geriatrics. From a policy perspective, our findings have important implications for the design of more effective health-care interventions for complex patients.

ARTICLE SUMMARY

Strengths and Limitations of this Study

- Primary data on health-care providers' perceptions of patient complexity
- Data sourced across professions (physicians, nurses) and experience levels
- The study reports findings from a single outpatient setting. Results may not be generalizable to other primary care settings.
- The study only differentiates between two levels of experience (junior and senior health-care providers).

For peer review only

INTRODUCTION

Providing medical care for complex patients constitutes one of the most challenging aspects of modern healthcare systems. In clinical practice and the research literature, the concept “complex patient” typically refers to patients with coexisting chronic conditions (i.e., comorbidity, multimorbidity, polypathology, dual diagnosis) and challenges associated with managing interactions among various conditions and medications. Medical complexity—the number of comorbidities—poses well-known challenges for patients, health-care professionals, and health-care systems. Yet studies investigating complex patients show that while the degree of comorbidity is informative for gauging the degree to which physicians experience a patient as “complex”, such measures do not fully capture complexity from the health provider’s perspective.^(1–6) Indeed, practitioners’ understanding of complexity entail a much broader set of contributing factors, including the patient’s psychosocial vulnerabilities, socioeconomic environment, cultural background, and behavioral factors.^(2,5,7,8)

While the importance of incorporating a broad range of complexity contributing factors into research on complex patients is increasingly recognized, recent studies indicate that much remains to be understood about patient complexity in clinical settings. Indeed, an analysis of the health science literature between 2005 and 2015 found that “the situational, relational, temporal, sociocultural, and clinical contexts in which the concept [of patient complexity] is relevant, effectively used, and applied in various situations has not...been critically examined in health sciences” and that “an in-depth analysis of complexity itself and what it means in clinical practice” is lacking in the literature.⁽⁹⁾ The authors accordingly call for in-depth qualitative research about patient complexity and the ways in which medical practitioners experience it.

Building upon literature showing the importance of studying patient complexity from the clinician’s perspective and studies calling for a broad understanding of patient complexity

1
2
3 beyond number of conditions and medications^(2, 3, 9), this study develops empirically grounded
4
5 knowledge on how complexity-contributing factors of HIV patients translate into health-care
6
7 providers' perceptions of care complexity in a hospital based outpatient clinic for Infectious
8
9 Diseases (ID). Understanding the meaning, drivers, and outcomes of patient complexity from
10
11 the health-care provider's perspective and the role of experience in complexity perceptions is
12
13 of significant practical relevance. In HIV clinical care, for example, advances in antiretroviral
14
15 therapies, disease screening and health promotion have significantly improved the life
16
17 expectancy of HIV-positive individuals.⁽¹⁰⁾ Consequently, age-related multimorbidity pose
18
19 new, hence incompletely understood challenges for clinicians and health-care planners,
20
21 challenges that require medical education, effective health-care interventions, and
22
23 organizational support systems.^(8,11,12) For example, care for complex patients involves close
24
25 coordination among specialists forming multidisciplinary teams. Ensuring that such teams
26
27 achieve positive patient outcomes requires that care providers collectively understand the
28
29 nature of patient complexity. From an education and policy perspective, developing a better
30
31 concept of perceived complexity and the role of the practitioner's experience is critical for
32
33 designing effective health-care training and interventions that improve patient care while
34
35 curbing the disproportional use of health-care resources for complex patients.
36
37
38
39
40
41

42 **Study overview**

43
44 To elaborate our understanding of care providers' complexity perceptions, we conducted a
45
46 qualitative study based on semi-structured in-depth interviews with health-care practitioners
47
48 with different levels of experience. Our data collection and analysis builds on a separation of
49
50 two domains¹ of complexity in HIV clinical practice: (1) patient-related factors (case
51
52
53
54
55

56 ¹ This conceptualisation reflects the separation of case complexity and care complexity (de Jonge et al., 2006;
57 Doessing & Burau, 2015) on one hand, and the separation of patient complexity and clinical task complexity
58 (Islam et al., 2016) on the other hand.
59
60

1
2
3 complexity), and (2) care delivery-related factors (care complexity).^(7,13,14) We advance prior
4
5 work on patient complexity by exploring under what conditions case complexity translates
6
7 into perceived care complexity. Focusing on complexity perceptions among nurses, junior
8
9 physicians, and senior physicians, we also address the paucity in research on differences in
10
11 complexity perceptions among healthcare professions and among healthcare providers with
12
13 different levels of experience.
14
15

16 17 **METHODS**

18
19 To develop understanding of health-care providers' perceptions of patient complexity and
20
21 the role of experience therein, we conducted a qualitative study of practitioners across
22
23 medical professions (i.e., nurses and physicians) with varying levels of experience and (i.e.,
24
25 junior and senior). Within the qualitative paradigm, we conducted a phenomenological
26
27 approach, so as to develop an in-depth understanding of patient complexity perceptions within
28
29 the broader social context of the medical practitioner's work setting.⁽¹⁵⁻¹⁷⁾ This approach
30
31 allows the researcher the focus on practitioners' lived experiences with respect to patient
32
33 complexity and the issues influencing the construction of individual perceptions of
34
35 complexity. Interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) provided the general research
36
37 framework for our data collection and data analysis process.⁽¹⁸⁻²⁰⁾ IPA foregrounds that the
38
39 meanings that individuals attribute to their experiences can be accessed and understood
40
41 through an interpretative process that focuses on the subject's individual cognitive inner
42
43 world.
44
45
46
47
48

49 **Patient and public involvement**

50
51 No patients were involved in this study.
52

53 **Ethics approval**

54
55 This study was designed and conducted with careful attention to ethical aspects, and in
56
57 particular participant confidentiality. The data do not contain information about persons but
58
59
60

1
2
3 about the processes in the health-care services of the hospital. The records are anonymised.
4
5 Therefore these data collection does not come under the Data Protection Act nor under the
6
7 Human Research Act. These conditions render the study exempt from the requirement for
8
9 ethics review board submission and approval under Swiss law, as confirmed by the
10
11 Institutional Review Board of the participating institution prior to enrolling study participants.
12
13

14 **Participants and Setting**

15
16 We conducted a qualitative study using semi-structured interviews with nurses and junior
17
18 and senior physicians of an ID department in a high-capacity Swiss university hospital,
19
20 focusing on the department's HIV outpatient care activities. In collaboration with the clinic
21
22 director, we scheduled interviews with all available department members, resulting in 31
23
24 participants, including seven senior nurses, ten junior (assistant) nurses, eight junior
25
26 physicians (interns), and six senior physicians (residents, fellows, and attendings). The
27
28 average professional experience of study participants was 15.62 years. 74 percent of
29
30 participants was female. Department members were asked to participate in the study and were
31
32 free to decline. One person declined to participate citing time constraints. Verbal informed
33
34 consent was obtained (and voice recorded) from each participant after explaining the study
35
36 procedures and data use before starting the interview. Patients or the public were not involved
37
38 in the design, or conduct, or reporting, or dissemination plans of our research.
39
40
41
42
43

44 **Study materials**

45
46 To structure our interviews, we used an interview guide focusing on health-care providers'
47
48 perceptions of patient complexity in both multimorbid and non-multimorbid patients, with a
49
50 focus on the department's activities in HIV clinical practice. In Phase 1 of our study, we
51
52 developed our interview guide (see Appendix I) in two stages. In the first stage, two members
53
54 of the research team, the principal investigator for this study (S.B.) and a research assistant
55
56 (A.S.), conducted exploratory pilot interviews with department members, including senior and
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 junior nurses and senior and junior physicians. The questions in this exploratory round were
4 based on our review of the literature on coordination of care for multimorbid patients and two
5 days of observations of the clinical setting. Interviews lasted between 45-60 minutes. From
6 these interviews and a further analysis of the literature on complex patients, we reached
7 consensus on an initial set of questions covering the health-care provider's background and
8 daily activities, perceptions of complexity, and practices and strategies used in treating complex
9 patients. In the second stage, we conducted a round-table discussion with 12 department
10 members. During this session which we (1) asked participants to broadly reflect on their
11 perceptions of patient complexity and its contributing factors in the context of HIV clinical
12 practice and (2) sense-tested our initial set of questions for clarity. The purpose of this session
13 was to refine our interview guide and ensure questions were relevant to the research context.
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28

29 **Data collection**

30
31 Using the insights from phase 1, in phase 2 of the study, S.B. and A.S. conducted 31
32 semistructured interviews over a 6-month period. Participants were briefed on the purpose and
33 confidentiality of the interviews, and were encouraged to share detailed personal experiences
34 as much as possible. Interviews took place in physicians' offices or other private spaces chosen
35 by the interviewees. Interviews lasted around 60 minutes on average, and were digitally
36 recorded and professionally transcribed verbatim.
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

46 **Data Analysis**

47
48 The final data consisted of 320 pages of single-spaced transcripts. Transcribed files were
49 stored and thematically analysed in NVivo 11, a qualitative data analysis software (QSR
50 International). We followed a systematic inductive procedure for analysing qualitative data.⁽²¹⁾
51 First, all transcripts (raw data) were closely read multiple times by S.B. and A.S.. During this
52 stage, we discussed the meaning of interview segments to develop an initial coding scheme.
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60 Using the initial version of the coding scheme, we double blindly coded a random selection of

1
2
3 10 interview transcripts. We next discussed disparately coded segments and refined the
4
5 coding scheme in several rounds. After reaching consensus on the coding scheme, we divided
6
7 the transcripts between S.B. and A.S and coded all transcripts according to the new coding
8
9 scheme. Remaining ambiguities in the data were jointly resolved. This inductive approach
10
11 allowed for overarching general categories and more specific lower-level categories on
12
13 complexity perceptions and relations among these categories to emerge from the data. We
14
15 also paid attention to differences and similarities in complexity and controllability perceptions
16
17 across levels of experience. While experience in years of relevant ranged from recent
18
19 graduates to 34 years, we applied a binary distinction (junior vs senior) in the presentation of
20
21 our results, where junior refers to nurses and physicians with less than 3 years of experience
22
23 since graduation. Perceived controllability was categorised in three levels (low, medium,
24
25 high) and reflect professionals' experienced ability to diagnose and identify and execute
26
27 treatment options as a result of specific complexity contributing factors. We defined *low*
28
29 *controllability* as cases in which professionals reported to be significantly constrained in their
30
31 ability to coordinate and deliver patient care; *medium controllability* as cases in which
32
33 professionals reported to be somewhat limited in their ability to do so, and *high controllability*
34
35 as cases in which professionals reported to experience no limitations resulting from
36
37 complexity contributing factors.
38
39
40
41
42
43

44 From this initial analysis we developed a preliminary framework of the main domains and
45
46 drivers of complexity perceptions among health-care providers. In producing the final
47
48 framework and reporting the study, S.B, A.S., and G.K. elicited and incorporated the
49
50 perspectives of three participants (A.H., who is an attending physician in infectious diseases,
51
52 A.R., who is a professor of infectious diseases, and H.F., who is head of department and
53
54 professor of infectious diseases) to promote trustworthiness of the study. The perspectives of
55
56 the three participants were incorporated through informal discussions and multiple rounds of
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 feedback on the manuscript, and covered the interpretation of raw data, the grouping of
4
5 themes, the emergent framework. Member checking with these participant-authors thus
6
7 served to confirm the validity of our findings and ensure sensitivity to the research context.
8
9

10 RESULTS

11
12 Figure 1 shows a conceptual framework of our key findings. Our analysis revealed how
13
14 case complexity drivers and a set of complexity moderators at the patient level, care provider
15
16 level, and care context level jointly determined care providers' perceived controllability—
17
18 referring to the provider's sense of their ability to diagnose and exercise control over the
19
20 patient's health state. Providers' perceived controllability, in turn, was a key driver of
21
22 perceived care complexity. We next elaborate on these findings.
23
24

25
26 *** INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE ***
27

28 Case Complexity Drivers

29
30 Participants described complexity-contributing factors relating to the patient's medical
31
32 health state as the primary component of case complexity. Factors in this category included
33
34 multimorbidity and polypharmacy, mental health, and changes in the patient's health state.
35
36

37 *Multimorbidity, polypharmacy, and instability*

38
39
40 Participants identified the presence of multiple chronic medical conditions as a general
41
42 driver of perceived patient complexity. As one junior physician explained:
43

44
45 A simple situation would be a patient who needs his HIV drugs and takes them
46
47 regularly and has no contraindication to receiving a single tablet regimen. A more
48
49 complex situation, for example, would be an older patient with several unsuccessful
50
51 treatments behind him. That means he will have a complex HIV treatment with maybe
52
53 four, five tablets per day. Regimens that may cause complications with his kidneys or
54
55 digestion or sleeping are common. And then because of his age, he may have
56
57 developed other conditions, such as hypertension, which would formally have a
58
59 contraindication for some HIV treatments. That means he is at risk of cardiovascular
60
61 events, which we would have to check regularly with the cardiologist.... So
62
63 complexity entails any situation where one of his problems would influence the
64
65 treatment of other problems in a negative way, such that you cannot deal with every
66
67 disease optimally. (B6)

68
69 When asked what makes multimorbidity cases complex, one senior physician explained:
70

1
2
3 ...whenever one starts treating an aspect of the disease, it will immediately influence
4 other aspects. So one creates new problems and enhance complexity because another
5 problem will pop up.... That means that when treating multimorbid patients, one has
6 to try to anticipate what will come next in order to not miss it. With non-multimorbid
7 patients one doesn't have to do that as much. It's much easier and takes less effort.
8 (G1)
9

10
11 Participants also discussed how polypharmacy posed challenges for controlling the patient's
12 health state:
13

14
15
16 Multimorbid patients often take a lot of other drugs. Clearly, there one has to be much
17 more careful because of drug interactions. So the intern or I are going to spend some
18 time on the internet platform on drug interactions in front of the patient and check if
19 everything is okay.... That takes a bit more time. (G3)
20

21
22 In older patients who have different conditions, many symptoms are generally caused
23 by the drugs they are taking. Sometimes stopping or rearranging their drugs solves the
24 problem. [But] it's difficult to spot the right moment to react. One cannot send
25 multimorbid patients to the emergency ward every time they feel dizzy, that's not
26 going to work.... Sometimes there is a risk of missing things because one's vision is
27 blurred by all these other problems [that] might mask something more serious. (G3)
28

29
30 Moreover, participants argued that they would not perceive all multimorbid patients to be
31 complex in care delivery:
32

33
34 While a patient may be multimorbid, if none of the diseases are currently active but
35 under control with whatever strategies, then it is not a highly complex situation. (B6)
36

37
38 Unstable or unexpected changes in patients' health conditions were another important source
39 of complexity. As one senior nurse observed:
40

41
42
43 Complexity also arises when something new is constantly coming up. A patient with a
44 relatively simple treatment can suddenly develop hypertension, then a heart attack,
45 then a hip surgery. None of these have to be difficult, but it becomes complex. (C1)
46
47

48 ***Mental health***

49

50
51 Participants discussed various ways in which patients' mental health contributed to
52 complexity, including factors such as anxiety and depression associated with the knowledge
53 of living with a stigmatised chronic disease, and other psychiatric comorbidities. A senior
54 physician gave the following example of the complexity involved in treating a HIV patient
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 with a psychiatric disorder:
4
5

6 In certain situations, patients with mental disorders go into risky behaviors that are
7 harmful to them. We have a baseline HIV treatment, [but for these patients] I have to
8 think about how to deal with the psychopathological condition, which may interfere
9 with my treatment. Patients may stop taking pills and get sexually transmitted
10 infections.... [For example], when one gets a hepatitis C infection...treatment is only
11 possible when adherence is very good. So I [have to] make sure the patient has a really
12 good psychiatrist, and keep close contact to discuss how our treatments interact. (I2)
13
14
15

16 Mental comorbidities can also drive complexity perceptions because they hamper
17 diagnosis. As one junior physician stated:
18
19

20
21 There are [multimorbid patients] that are very easy, and with whom it does not take a
22 lot of time to know what the problem is. Then there are people who are so complex in
23 their attitude. For example, patients who drink a lot may get very nervous and
24 angry...and refuse to be examined. It can take more time to recognize other problems
25 [in such situations]. (B1)
26
27
28

29 **Provider's perceived controllability**

30
31 Providers' perceived controllability refers to a provider's sense of ability to diagnose the
32 patient, the perceived availability and scope of treatment options, and the ability to exercise
33 those treatment options to gain control over the patient's health state. Participants noted that
34 whether case complexity drivers would indeed translate into perceived care complexity
35 largely depended on the extent to which such drivers limited the provider's ability to
36 diagnose, the scope of available treatment options, and the ability to put treatment options into
37 practice.
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

46 One senior physician discussed how multimorbidity can limit the ability to diagnose and
47 determine the courses of intervention:
48
49

50
51 When one suspects a lung infection in an otherwise healthy person, it's mostly just a
52 simple bacterial pneumonia. But in a multimorbid person who has kidney dysfunction,
53 heart dysfunction, and lung dysfunction and takes multiple medications, there are many
54 more possible reasons for lung problems. So in multimorbid patients sometimes we
55 initially don't know the etiology. We think we have to treat the pneumonia with
56 antibiotics, but at the same time we have to improve the kidney and heart functions. And
57 maybe even stop the drug they have to see whether it's an infection at all. The number of
58 possibilities multiplies.... (G4)
59
60

1
2
3
4 Another senior physician explains how his sense of perceived complexity relates to his ability
5
6 to influence the patient's health state:
7

8
9 I would differentiate between the complexity which can be managed and the
10 complexity which is very difficult to deal with. That is not necessarily dependent on
11 the object of complexity. A situation can be very complex but quite easy to deal with
12 if one has good interactions among the patient and physician and other important
13 partners. [However,] if one has the problem that one cannot persuade the patient to
14 take their drugs, that can be extremely difficult to manage. (I1)
15

16
17 In a similar vein, one senior nurse explained that:
18

19 For me, something is complex when it is difficult to find a way forward. When
20 everything has been tried, the situation doesn't improve, and one cannot change
21 anything. (C1)
22

23 24 25 **Complexity Moderators: Patient Level**

26
27 Participants described a number of patient-related factors that enhanced or attenuated their
28 ability to control complexity emerging from the patient's health state. These 'complexity
29 moderators' included a patient's demographics, health objectives and behaviours, disease
30 knowledge, and personal resources.
31
32
33
34
35

36 *Demographics*

37 *Age*

38
39 As is well known, age increases the likelihood of multimorbidity:
40
41

42
43 Some MSMs have more sexual transmitted infections than other [patient groups]. That's
44 something we can manage, we don't need other specialist for that.... Older patients are
45 likely to have other problems that are not specific to HIV, like osteoporosis and high
46 cholesterol. That's very normal but sometimes they also begin to develop forms of renal
47 failure [or] high blood pressure...because of the HIV therapy. So we have to switch the
48 therapy. (B7)
49
50

51
52
53 A senior physician explained how complexity in multimorbidity is becoming increasingly
54 challenging in HIV clinical practice, as patients live longer due to improved therapies:
55

56
57 A somewhat new field for us is that we now have patients who basically live as long
58 as patients without an HIV infection. So we have an increasing number of older
59
60

1
2
3 patients, seventy, eighty years old, who also have many other problems.... It's not
4 only about more pathologies and more drugs but also about psychological and social
5 things that one wouldn't do for a young patient. Older people have trouble taking all
6 their drugs at the right time. So one has to work more with the nurses to prepare the
7 drugs. Providing care in a more holistic way, not only for one's specialty and the other
8 diseases but also the family and social context is important in these patients. (G3)
9

10
11 Age was also associated with patients' ability to curtail a spiral of illnesses. As one junior
12 nurse noted:
13

14
15
16 With older people, loneliness at home tends to come with bad nutrition, bad skin care,
17 not drinking enough.... They take their medicine thinking: 'today the pink one and
18 tomorrow the blue one,' more or less. Such combinations mean that people are
19 sometimes in a very dire state when they are admitted. (C10)
20
21

22 23 *Socio-cultural realm*

24
25 Participants also identified complexity contributing factors in the patient's social and cultural
26 realm. One senior physician described that:
27
28

29
30 Quite a few of our patients are migrants. There the complexity can just be a matter of
31 language, but also understandings of health and medicine, such as the role of a
32 physician or a nurse. These can mean very different things for somebody from
33 Cambodia, Uganda, or Serbia.... (I2)
34
35

36 In a similar vein, another senior physician said:
37

38
39 Some African patients, for example, very much fear being stigmatized if they
40 communicate that they are HIV infected.... [Or] they may go to their religious healer
41 who says 'these drugs are bad for you' and things like that. So that is a different kind of
42 complexity which one doesn't necessarily recognize at first. (I1)
43
44

45 ***Objectives & Behaviors***

46 *Treatment adherence and compliance*

47
48 Among the subcategories of complexity moderators, patients' adherence to treatment
49 emerged as a particularly salient factor curtailing providers' controllability. As one senior
50 physician explained:
51
52

53
54 The patient who comes early enough, has a preserved immune system, and no
55 comorbidity but denies his disease and does not want to take drugs can be extremely
56 complex to deal with. We have patients here who do not believe that they are HIV
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 infected, or that HIV causes AIDS. These interactions can be very complicated....
4 [After some time] one just realizes that the patient didn't take the drugs.
5

6 [In contrast], a patient who comes very late, say with a candida infection and other
7 comorbidities, but is very willing to cooperate and to do tests, is very informed about
8 the treatment, and tells the right things about the treatment, can be quite simple to
9 manage because one can treat him. If the treatment doesn't work one has the right
10 information. They are also very careful not to have drugs which could interact with
11 their treatment so they will inform their GP and say: 'be careful, I cannot take this
12 drug. The infectious disease physician said you have to be careful'. They come back
13 with the list of symptoms they've had in the past three months, and a list with the
14 drugs they did and did not take. That's a complex disease but easier to manage. (I1)
15
16
17

18 One junior physician described an example of a case in which the patient's non-adherence
19 became a major complicating factor for care delivery:
20
21

22 We have a patient who has had HIV for a long time and didn't take any medication.
23 Then he developed a lymphoma. When this was discovered he agreed to start the HIV
24 treatment. But during routine check-ups we saw that his viral load was rising.... He
25 said he was taking his HIV medication but we didn't find any drug levels in his blood,
26 so we assume that he wasn't taking the pills, at least not regularly. Now there's a risk
27 of developing resistance to his HIV treatment, which would mean we would have to
28 switch to another therapy which might interfere with the ideal treatment of the
29 lymphoma. It would cause a vicious cycle and suboptimal care of the tumor. (B6)
30
31
32

33 *Patient's health objectives*

34
35 Participants also noted how understanding the patient's own health objectives was
36 important for successfully managing complex cases:
37
38

39 For patients, some things may be more important than [they are] for the physicians.
40 For the physician, in general, the more acute a problem is, the more important it is. If a
41 patient comes in with bacteraemia, bacteria grow in his blood and will kill him if we
42 don't treat it correctly, this is the important problem for the treating physician.... But
43 if [that] patient has hip pain every day for the past ten years and will maybe have it for
44 the next ten years, he will have hip pain as well; this bacteraemia is only a very small
45 episode in his life. So the focus is sometimes very different. This is important
46 information that one can get from one's patient. (G1)
47
48
49

50 In a related vein, one senior physician explained how in designing treatment plans for
51 complex cases they
52

53 have to find solutions for multimorbid patients that are feasible at home, because they
54 are not living in the hospital. We often forget that as physicians because we only see
55 people as patients in a hospital. (G1)
56
57
58

59 *Knowledge and personal resources*

Disease knowledge and literacy

Participants explained how a patient's own understanding of their disease, and the ability to communicate their knowledge with providers moderated how the latter perceived care complexity. A senior nurse gave the following example of a patient with a high degree of literacy and knowledge about his disease:

I noticed he had a thorough understanding of his illness. He was interested in lab results, asked questions, was very perceptive of changes and communicated those to us. I had the impression that he could assess his situation very well on his own. It helped me to understand where we stood. He had had this carcinoma for a long time, and he knew how his body functioned, so I didn't have to start from scratch.... Patients who live with a chronic illness for a long time are very different to deal with than patients that don't know anything or have just heard their diagnosis. (C6)

In contrast, a junior physician noted that some patients are not receptive to information on a disease, but just want therapy:

When one tells them, 'You have a chronic hepatitis B, you're sixteen years old, it's not a problem now but it could become a problem,' they are just like 'Why don't you just give me my medication?' (B7)

A senior physician noted how the availability of online resources has increased patients' disease knowledge and literacy, and how a patient's knowledge about the disease and treatment can influence the physician's controllability:

[Patients with] chronic illnesses have had the opportunity to gather information about the disease for a long time. Often they know things even better than the physicians. I think that this is something that has changed with the availability of electronic information.... An informed patient is more likely to keep on going with the treatment when problems arise, [whereas with] patients that don't understand the disease or the treatment, there is often a time where they become fed up and say, 'I've had enough, I want to go home. Please stop....' Then one has to discuss and negotiate and so on. (G1)

Energy

Within the category of personal resources, participants discussed the degree to which patients had the energy to cope with their conditions as one of the most important moderators

1
2
3 of perceived complexity. As one senior physician notes:

4
5 Patients with multimorbidity always come to the point where they get tired, and they
6 don't have the energy to take the next step. Then one has to try to motivate them. The
7 psychological aspect of those treatments is important. (G1)

8
9
10 Yet one senior nurse explained:

11
12 Being multimorbid doesn't have to mean being limited or very ill. One can be very
13 vital and active. There are people who come here with multiple conditions, but they
14 seem to lead their lives and somehow manage to find a balance. (C2)

15 16 *Financial resources*

17
18 In comparing her interactions with multimorbid and non-multimorbid patients, one junior
19 physician explained the role of a patient's financial resources as follows:

20
21
22
23 When I talk to [a multimorbid] patient, I have to go through more points and ask more
24 things about his wellbeing...what kind of social insurance or money does he have? Can
25 he cope financially? (B5)

26
27
28 Discussing an example, she notes:

29
30 The goal was to have him stabilized on HIV medication so that his virus was
31 suppressed, he wouldn't have any side effects and would feel well. And I wanted to
32 treat his hepatitis C, but then the medical insurance said they wouldn't pay so there
33 was nothing much we could do at that moment, and we said okay, let's put it on hold,
34 we'll wait and maybe next year the limitations will change.

35 36 37 **Complexity Moderators: Care Provider Level**

38
39
40 Our findings show that providers' perceptions of care complexity were also moderated by
41 their personal competencies and resources.

42 43 *Experience and expertise*

44
45
46 Participants repeatedly noted the critical role of experience as a key resource for dealing
47 with complex cases. As one junior physician reflected:

48
49
50
51 The capacity to synthesise what is important and what is not, is an experience thing. I
52 think I am doing it much better than one year ago, and I will be even better a year
53 from now. (B7)

54
55
56 One senior physician explained how the source of complexity changes over time, as one gains
57 experience with complex patients:

1
2
3 In the beginning one is more concerned with and focused on objective complexity,
4 problems that the patient has. It's hard to know what to do first. Should I first treat the
5 heart disease or the infection? One expects that if one has a plan and prescribes a
6 treatment, the problem is solved. With time that kind of complexity gets more
7 manageable. But [then] one recognises another type of complexity: the treatment
8 strategy that fits patient one can be completely wrong for patient two even if they have
9 the exact same disease. Because of the cultural environment, or because they have
10 another understanding of the disease, or because one of them is depressed and I didn't
11 recognize that. The interaction with the patient, the family, the culture... all these
12 things become more important, and in the beginning, it's very hard to recognize and
13 appreciate that. [Later, one develops] a broader view of a patient and also has these
14 bad experiences, where one made these fantastic plans and the patient just didn't take
15 his drugs, and one becomes incredibly disappointed. And one also develops a better
16 understanding of what not to do in certain situations. [For example,] guidelines say
17 one should screen for prostatic cancer every year, but with time one says, well this
18 patient has other problems than screening for prostatic cancer. One has to fix other
19 things first. And one also realises that one cannot treat patients if the psychosocial
20 problems aren't dealt with. That's very hard to learn and difficult to train in others.
21
22 (I1)

23
24
25
26 As this quote illustrates, senior physicians and nurses also showed a sensitivity to and ability
27 to attend to 'weak indicators' of complexity—referring to background indicators such as
28 factors in the psychosocio and cultural sphere of the patient. While such factors are often
29 expressed, they may not be readily recognized by less experienced health-care providers.

30
31
32
33
34
35
36 Another senior physician noted:

37
38
39 The more experience I have, the more I see that simplified guidelines do not actually
40 fit everybody. The more complex the case, the less they fit. We have to be aware of
41 when simple guidelines don't fit the process of diagnosing and treating a patient....
42 One develops a feeling for when a case is more complex and needs more time for
43 interviewing, for thinking outside of the box. (I2)

44 45 46 *Time*

47
48 Participants noted that managing care for complex patients requires considerable more
49 time resources than for less complex patients. As a senior physician commented:

50
51
52
53 [There is a] mounting financial pressure on the health system.... [I'm concerned] that
54 we will not be allowed to deliver the best care in complex cases because of financial
55 restrictions. (I2)

56
57
58 Another senior physician discussed the repercussions of economising time on complex cases:

1
2
3 If one doesn't invest the time to coordinate the whole process in the beginning, one will
4 lose more time at the end of the day because one will have to do it later anyway. (G1)
5

6 **Complexity Moderators: Care Context Level**

7
8 Participants identified care coordination challenges in three domains: cross-disciplinary,
9 cross-professional, and cross-level. Each of these coordination challenges influenced
10 providers' perceived ability to control a patient's health state. Higher case complexity and
11 higher perceived care complexity were associated with more intense coordination
12 requirements.
13
14
15
16
17
18
19

20 ***Cross-disciplinary coordination***

21
22 Cross-disciplinary coordination concerns the management of interdependencies across a
23 patient's health-care providers (e.g. specialists). As one senior physician noted:
24
25

26
27 With multimorbidity there are a lot of different [specialists] involved. There is the
28 infectious diseases specialist, the internal medicine specialist, maybe a psychiatrist, a
29 rheumatologist.... One problem is that you have to make sure to obtain all the information
30 from those involved. If anyone starts doing something...it will affect other problems as
31 well. And often information gets lost because it takes time to inform each other, and not
32 everybody does it. (G1)
33
34

35 Participants often described the need to organise care for complex patients across care
36 providers, in the form of a 'care team'. As one senior researcher explains:
37
38

39
40 If one only focuses on the treatment, but skip steps in building a care team and doesn't
41 consult with other disciplines, it won't work. Interns and junior physicians are often not
42 very happy when one organises grand rounds, and discusses the patient's problem for
43 hours with other physicians, because it takes a lot of time. But I try to explain to them
44 that they really have to take this time, or the treatment will not be successful. (G1)
45
46

47 ***Cross-professional coordination***

48
49 Cross-professional coordination entails managing interdependencies among practitioners in
50 the patient's broader care environment. One senior physician explained these kinds of
51 interdependencies with non-medical professionals as follows:
52
53

54
55 Many of our patients are in difficult social situations. It is not only communicating with
56 other physicians but also communicating with social workers and health insurance and
57 so on. That's an important part of the work, especially for patients who are migrants or
58 drug users.... For example, it's more difficult to have polymorbid issues dealt with
59
60

1
2
3 when someone comes in with a translator. Prisoners come in with the police, so one has
4 to coordinate their consultations.... These issues take a lot of our physicians' time on a
5 daily basis. (G3)
6

7
8 While the need for cross-professional coordination often increases complexity, participants
9
10 also noted ways in which coordination across professions helped to reduce perceived care
11
12 complexity. As one junior physician explains:
13

14 Social workers provide incredible benefits. [They save] a huge amount of work. Having
15 to fill out forms that we are not familiar with and writing letters we don't usually write
16 [and] don't know the official formulations for, would take us double the time. (B 6)
17
18

19 ***Cross-level coordination***

20
21 Some participants also identified differences in tenure and hierarchical position as a factor
22
23 influencing their ability to coordinate care for complex patients. One junior physician
24
25 described how she initially had difficulties soliciting help from specialists outside the
26
27 department:
28
29

30
31 In the beginning, I was not very confident calling other specialists. When they said
32 they couldn't come I'd say 'ok, no problem'. That was not helpful. I learned that I had
33 to be stricter, and approach it with more power and confidence, and more clarity about
34 what the patient needed.... Sometimes, when we leave the choice to the specialists,
35 they'll say no. But if we say, 'You don't have a choice, you have to see this patient.
36 It's an emergency', it works better. (B1)
37
38

39 Table 1 summarises the perceived controllability of complexity-contributing factors
40
41 according to the provider's level of experience. The findings highlight that more experienced
42
43 medical practitioners report high perceived controllability over complexity moderators at the
44
45 care provider level and care context level, whereas these factors constitute important drivers
46
47 of perceived patient complexity by less experienced practitioners (i.e., low perceived
48
49 controllability).
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Table 1. Perceived controllability (i.e., ability to diagnose, availability and scope of treatment options; ability to exercise treatment options) of complexity-contributing factors according to provider experience level

Complexity contributing factors	Provider Experience ^a	
	Low	High
Case complexity drivers		
Multimorbidity & polypharmacy	low/medium	medium/high
Changing health state	low	low
Mental health	low	medium
Patient level complexity moderators		
Age	low	low
Managing patient's extended care network (e.g. family)	low	medium
Cultural and language differences	low/medium	low/medium
Non-adherence to treatment	low	low/medium
Diverging patient-provider health objectives	low	low/medium
Disease knowledge and literacy	low/medium	low/medium
Energy	medium	medium
Financial resources	low/medium	low/medium
Care provider level moderators		
Recognizing weak indicators of complexity	low	high
Managing non-standard/non-guideline cases	low	high
Allotting time to complex patients	low/medium	low/medium
Care context level moderators		
Cross-disciplinary coordination	medium	high
Resolving cross-professional (e.g. nurse-doctor) information asymmetries	low/medium	high
Cross-level coordination	low	high

a

Provider experience is anchored 'low': < 3 years post graduation; 'high': > 3 years post graduation.

DISCUSSION

Since the early 1990s, global healthcare systems have come under economic pressure in the face of increased health-care spending.⁽²²⁾ As a result, there is an increasing demand on health-care providers to effectively treat, document, and economize on the time spent on complex patients with high care requirements. However, what constitutes a complex patient remains poorly defined. This study sought to inform clinical practice and education in domains where patient complexity is prevalent (e.g., HIV outpatient clinics) by identifying the scope and impact of patient complexity contributing factors and the role of practitioner experience in complexity perceptions. In HIV clinical practice, improvements in antiretroviral

1
2
3 therapies have tremendously increased the life expectancy of patients. Medical practitioners in
4
5 our study explained that as HIV patients age, multimorbidity poses new challenges for
6
7 managing patient complexity. Beyond providing empirical insights into specific challenges
8
9 and implications for care complexity perceptions in HIV clinical practice, our study offers
10
11 conceptual insights into the workings of complexity contributing factors that may translate to
12
13 the treatment of other chronic illnesses. In particular, our study advances the much-needed
14
15 clarification of the concept “complex patient”—moving from objective complexity-
16
17 contributing factors relating to the patient’s medical health state to a broader, holistic notion,
18
19 including non-medical factors. The findings have important implications for the literature on
20
21 patient complexity as well as for clinical practice and medical education.
22
23
24
25

26 First, this study contributes new insights into complexity drivers in clinical practice.
27
28 Previous studies have provided important insights into general factors contributing to health-
29
30 care providers’ perceptions of patient complexity.^(1,2,11) Our study extends prior work by
31
32 addressing patient complexity from the health-care provider’s perspective and conceptualizing
33
34 patient complexity in terms of patient characteristics and practitioner experience. As Doessing
35
36 and Burau conclude in their review of the literature on multimorbidity, prior studies on care
37
38 coordination for complex patients have offered little insights into the perspective of health-
39
40 care professionals in providing care for complex patients.⁽¹⁴⁾ Our findings elaborate prior
41
42 work by identifying complexity-contributing factors and explaining the relationship among
43
44 them.
45
46
47
48

49 Importantly, we introduce the concept of complexity-moderating factors to provide a basis
50
51 for identifying the conditions that determine the extent to which case complexity translates
52
53 into perceived care complexity. Case complexity drivers may not manifest in a significant
54
55 way without the presence of complexity-moderating factors, which act as a ‘multiplier,’ akin
56
57 to a coefficient. In line with previous studies, health-care providers in this study explained
58
59
60

1
2
3 that case complexity drivers (i.e., multimorbidity and interdependencies among physical and
4 mental health state factors) generally increase the potential for perceived complexity. Yet our
5 study participants also argued that complexity is only perceived as such to the extent that
6 other patient characteristics (“case complexity moderators”) and aspects of the care
7 coordination context (“care complexity moderators”) enable or constrain the controllability of
8 the patient’s health.
9

10
11 Our findings also foreground that the extent to which complexity contributing factors
12 influence providers’ perceived complexity and controllability is to an important degree
13 determined by provider experience. Understanding the role of practitioner experience in the
14 perception of and approach to patient complexity has important implications for the
15 development of curricula at the undergraduate and post-graduate levels, in particular in
16 medical fields such as geriatrics and general internal medicine, in which skills for managing
17 care for older multimorbid patients are necessary. More specifically, the findings summarized
18 in table 1 suggest that in designing training programs in areas where patient complexity is
19 high, medical educators should place particular emphasis on developing skills to recognize
20 the diverse set of indicators of patient complexity, managing non-standard/non-guideline cases,
21 resolving cross-professional information asymmetries, and coordinating care across levels of
22 seniority.
23
24

25
26 By conceptualising the relations among case complexity drivers, complexity moderators,
27 and perceived care complexity, our study highlights the need for designing more effective
28 interventions and care delivery models in high-complexity health-care settings. Medical
29 professions are becoming increasingly specialised, while the proportion of older, more
30 complex patients rapidly increases. Given these developments, it is critical that we understand
31 the sources of patient complexity from the health providers’ perspective before designing
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 technological and organisational solutions that help professionals manage the cross-
4
5 disciplinary and cross-professional coordination of complex cases.⁽²³⁾
6
7

8 The findings and framework presented here highlight the need to develop a better
9
10 understanding of the diverse drivers of complexity in health-care training and education. As
11
12 corroborated by several of our participants, there exists a need for aligning medical education
13
14 with the clinical reality of managing care for complex patients. The framework developed in
15
16 this study may serve as a starting point for identifying the interpersonal and coordination
17
18 skills and competencies required from clinicians who provide care to complex patients in
19
20 other highly complex settings such as general internal medicine and geriatrics. To advance the
21
22 clinical application of our findings, table 2 presents ten questions that may assist health-care
23
24 professionals in unravelling and communicating the nature of patient complexity. By making
25
26 patient complexity more explicit, these questions can help health-care students to more
27
28 effectively identify its drivers, and develop the essential skills to manage complex patient care
29
30
31
32
33 in daily practice.
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Table 2. Complexity checklist

Case Complexity (patient state)	Care Complexity (coordinating and providing care)
<p>1. Medical health state: What are the patient's physical and mental comorbidities, and how may they interact in treatment?</p> <p>2. Demographics: How do age, socio-cultural, and economic characteristics of the patient impact diagnosis and treatment?</p> <p>3. Adherence and compliance: What are the patient's health objectives and barriers to adherence and compliance?</p> <p>4. Personal resources: What is the patient's level of understanding, energy, and capacity for coping with disease, treatment, and changes?</p>	<p>5. Care team: Who are the different care actors and what are their roles and interdependencies? Are treatment roles and objectives well-defined, aligned, and shared?</p> <p>6. Complexity perceptions: What is complex for whom?</p> <p>7. Coordination barriers: What are the potential barriers to cross-disciplinary, cross-professional, and cross-level coordination?</p> <p>8. Coordination tools: Which coordination and communication tools are feasible and appropriate?</p>
<p>9. Controllability: What sources of complexity can/should I control, coordinate, delegate, or defer?</p> <p>10. Change: How may the sources of complexity develop in the future?</p>	

Limitations

The results of this study have to be interpreted relative to its empirical and methodological limitations. First, our interviews focused on the complexity perceptions of practitioners working in a single setting—a university hospital’s department for infectious diseases. While the physicians in our study also perform consultations for the hospital’s inpatients, our interviews emphasized complexity in the ID department’s treatment of outpatients. Second, the framework is grounded on data from a Swiss hospital, and should not be generalized to settings where resource restrictions are even more severe, and access to help from other specialists (e.g., social workers) is more limited. Third, it is likely that these setting-specific characteristics influenced our findings. Our study includes both nurse and physicians informants. It should be noted that while the physicians included in our study work exclusively for the ID department, most of the nurses working in the ID department also work for an internal medicine outpatient clinic. Moreover, in the outpatient clinic that we studied, junior physicians have the primary responsibility over coordinating patient care. To validate our framework, further research needs to investigate other inpatient and outpatient settings. Fourth, our operationalization of “experience” into “junior” or “senior” is arguably crude. Future work should elaborate on this measure with sensitivity to the continuous nature of experience and the critical time points in a health-care provider’s career that may define it.

Conclusion

Studying health-care providers in HIV clinical practice, we developed a framework explaining how a patient’s case complexity translates into a care provider’s perceived care complexity. Our findings show that case complexity is moderated by the provider’s sense of controllability of the patient’s health state, and complexity moderators, including non-medical patient characteristics and the coordination context in which care is delivered. The framework may be used in training and educating health-care providers with complex patient care

responsibilities, and for designing future care models and interventions. Follow-up studies are needed to validate our framework in different settings, and to illuminate specific strategies and resources that providers in different professional roles utilize in order to manage perceived complexity.

AUTHOR STATEMENTS

A. Contributory statement

All persons designated as authors qualify for authorship, and all those who qualify are listed; the byline includes no honorary or ghost authors.

Each author has participated sufficiently in the work to take public responsibility for appropriate portions of the content.

SB and AS contributed to study design, literature search, writing, data collection, data analysis and interpretation, and preparation of tables and figures. AH and AR contributed to data interpretation and writing. GK and HF contributed to writing.

This manuscript has not been previously published and is not under consideration in the same or substantially similar form in any other journal.

B. Disclosure of potential conflicts of interest:

1. **Shiko Ben-Menahem** has nothing to disclose.
2. **Anastassja Sialm** has nothing to disclose.
3. **Anna Hachfeld** reports grants from Viiv, grants from Gilead, grants from MSD, outside the submitted work.
4. **Andri Rauch** reports support to his institution for advisory boards and/or travel grants from Janssen-Cilag, MSD, Gilead Sciences, Abbvie, and Bristol-Myers Squibb, and an unrestricted research grant from Gilead Sciences. All remuneration went to his home institution and not to AR personally, and all remuneration was provided outside the submitted work.
5. **Georg von Krogh** reports grants from Novartis outside the submitted work.
6. **Hansjakob Furrer** has nothing to disclose.

C. Funding:

This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial or not-for-profit sectors.

D. Data sharing statement:

Data is available from the first author upon request.

REFERENCES

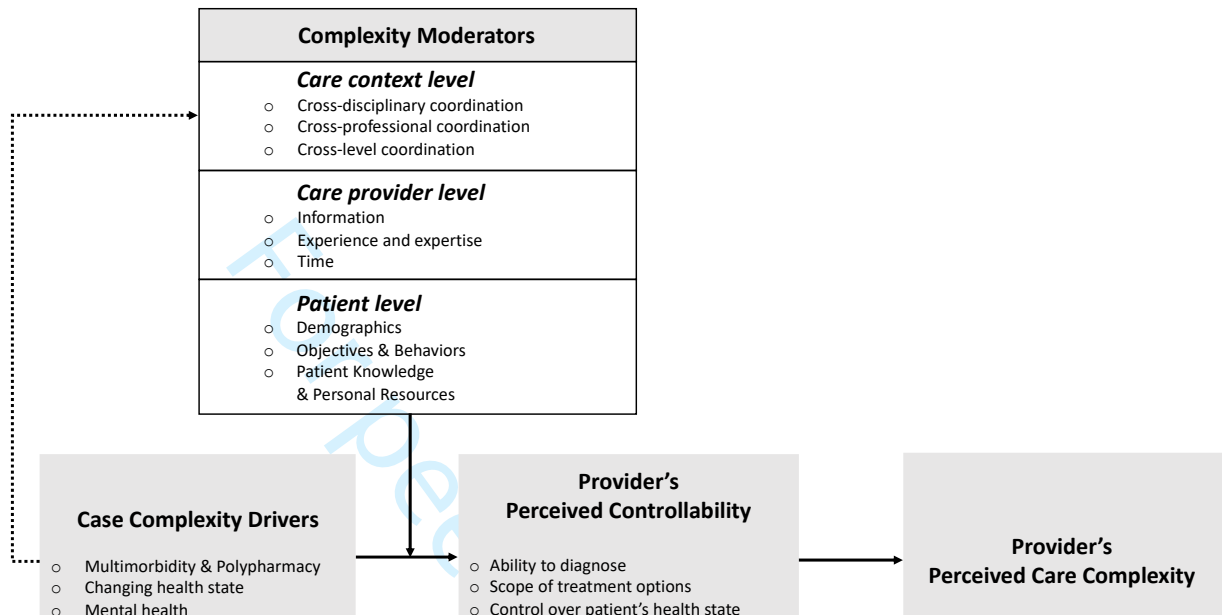
1. Grant RW, Ashburner JM, Hong CC, Chang Y, Barry MJ, Atlas SJ. Defining Patient Complexity From the Primary Care Physician's Perspective A Cohort Study. *Ann Intern Med*. 2011;**155**(12):797–804.
2. Loeb DF, Binswanger IA, Candrian C, Bayliss EA. Primary care physician insights into a typology of the complex patient in primary care. *Ann Fam Med*. 2015;**13**(5):451–455.
3. Loeb DF, Bayliss EA, Candrian C, DeGruy F V., Binswanger IA. Primary care providers' experiences caring for complex patients in primary care: A qualitative study. *BMC Fam Pract*. 2016;**17**(1):17–35.
4. Roosan D, Weir C, Samore M, Jones M, Rahman M, Stoddard GJ. Identifying complexity in infectious diseases inpatient settings: An observation study. *J Biomed Inform*. 2017;**71**:S13–21.
5. Safford MM, Allison JJ, Kiefe CI. Patient complexity: More than comorbidity. The vector model of complexity. *J Gen Intern Med*. 2007;**22**:382–90.
6. Safford MM. The Complexity of Complex Patients. *J Gen Intern Med*. 2015;**30**(12):1724–5.
7. Islam R, Weir C, Fiol G Del. Clinical complexity in medicine: A measurement model of task and patient complexity. *Methods Inf Med*. 2016;**55**(1):14–22.
8. Schaink A, Kuluski K, Lyons R, Fortin M, Jadad A, Upshur R. A scoping review and thematic classification of patient complexity: offering a unifying framework. *J Comorbidity*. 2012;**2**:1–9.
9. Manning E, Gagnon M. The complex patient: A concept clarification. *Nurs Heal Sci*. 2017;**19**(1):13–21.
10. Gueler A, Moser A, Calmy A, Günthard HF, Bernasconi E, Furrer H. Life expectancy in HIV-positive persons in Switzerland: Matched comparison with general population. *Aids*. 2017;**31**(3):427–36.
11. Peek CJ, Baird MA, Coleman E. Primary care for patient complexity, not only disease. *Fam Syst Health*. 2009;**27**(4):287–302.
12. Mount JK, Massanari RM, Teachman J. Patient Care Complexity as Perceived by Primary Care Physicians. *Fam Syst Heal*. 2015;**33**(2):137–145.
13. de Jonge P, Huyse FJ, Stiefel FC. Case and Care Complexity in the Medically Ill. *Med Clin North Am*. 2006;**90**(4):679–92.
14. Doessing A, Burau V. Care coordination of multimorbidity: a scoping study. *J Comorbidity*. 2015;**5**:15–28.
15. Kvale S. The qualitative research interview – A phenomenological and a hermeneutical mode of understanding. *J Phenom Psychol* 1983;**14** (2):171–96.
16. Miller W, Crabtree B. Overview of qualitative research methods. In: Crabtree BF, Miller WL, eds. *Doing Qualitative Research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage 1992;3–33.
17. Holstein JA, Gubrium JF. Phenomenology, ethno methodology, and interpretive practice. In: Denzin NK, Lincoln YS, eds. *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications 1994;262–72.
18. Creswell JW. *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing among Five Traditions*, 2nd edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications 2007;38–41.
19. Smith JA, Jarman M, Osborn M. Doing interpretative phenomenological analysis. In: Murray M, Chamberlain K, eds. *Qualitative Health Psychology: Theories and Methods*. London: Sage Publications 1999;218–41.
20. Biggerstaff D, Thompson A. Interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA): a qualitative methodology of choice in health care research. *Qual Res Psychol*

- 1
2
3 2008;**5**:173–83.
- 4 21. Thomas DR. A General Inductive Approach for Analyzing Qualitative Evaluation
5 Data. *Am J Eval*. 2006;**27**(2):237–46.
- 6 22. OECD. Fiscal Sustainability of Health Systems: Bridging Health and Finance
7 Perspectives. 2015;1–8.
- 8 23. Ben-Menahem SM, von Krogh G, Erden Z, Schneider A. Coordinating knowledge
9 creation in multidisciplinary teams: Evidence from early-stage drug discovery. *Acad*
10 *Man J*. 2016;**59**(4):1308-1338.
11
12
13

14 **FIGURE LEGEND**

15
16
17 Figure 1 Perceived care complexity is driven by the provider’s perceived controllability (i.e.,
18 the provider’s perceived ability to diagnose the patient, the assessment of the scope of
19 available treatment options, and the control over the patient’s health state). Perceived
20 controllability is driven by case complexity drivers and complexity moderators on the care
21 context level, the care provider level, and the patient level.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Figure 1. Perceived care complexity is driven by the provider's perceived controllability (i.e., the provider's perceived ability to diagnose the patient, the assessment of the scope of available treatment options, and the control over the patient's health state). Perceived controllability is driven by case complexity drivers and complexity moderators on the care context level, the care provider level, and the patient level.



Interview Guide

Introduction

1. Could you give a brief overview of your background (probe for education, specializations, experience, experience in treating MM cases)
2. Please describe your day to day activities at the Clinic

Characteristics and identifying MM cases

3. Could you describe a current or recent MM patient you are treating?
 - i) Could you describe your initial evaluation of the level of complexity of this case?
 - ii) How did your initial understanding of the complexity of the case change over time, why?
 - iii) What struck you as surprising, unexpected, or particularly challenging in treating this patient?
 - iv) What were your goals for this patient and how did you plan your initial activities? How and why did your goals and activities change over time?
4. In what ways are MM cases complex?
 - i) Which activities (e.g., diagnosis, treatment, care coordination) are the most challenging in treating MM patients compared to non-MM patients? Why?

Comparison to non-MM cases

5. Consider a recent non-MM patient:
 - i) What were the main challenges in treating this patient?
 - ii) How does your sense of complexity of treating this patient compare to the MM case?
 - iii) How did your goals and activities for this case compare to the MM case you described before?
6. In what ways do your practices differ between MM and non-MM cases?
7. In what ways does your role differ when treating MM patients compared to non-MM patients?
8. How does your assessment of patient outcomes differ between MM and non-MM patients?

Support mechanisms

9. How did your education and training prepare you for managing MM cases?
10. How does your practical experience prepare you for managing MM cases?
11. Are there particular tools, practices, platforms, guidelines or procedures for treating MM cases that you know of or use? How?

Knowledge sharing, collaboration and coordination

12. Please describe how and with whom you collaborate in treating MM patients
13. Please describe a recent example of such a collaboration
 - i) Who did you consult? Why? How? How often
 - ii) What went well / not well?

Standards for Reporting Qualitative Research (SRQR)*

<http://www.equator-network.org/reporting-guidelines/srqr/>

Page/line no(s).

Title and abstract

<p>Title - Concise description of the nature and topic of the study Identifying the study as qualitative or indicating the approach (e.g., ethnography, grounded theory) or data collection methods (e.g., interview, focus group) is recommended</p>	<p>p.1</p>
<p>Abstract - Summary of key elements of the study using the abstract format of the intended publication; typically includes background, purpose, methods, results, and conclusions</p>	<p>p.3</p>

Introduction

<p>Problem formulation - Description and significance of the problem/phenomenon studied; review of relevant theory and empirical work; problem statement</p>	<p>p.5/l.13-17</p>
<p>Purpose or research question - Purpose of the study and specific objectives or questions</p>	<p>p.5/l.18</p>

Methods

<p>Qualitative approach and research paradigm - Qualitative approach (e.g., ethnography, grounded theory, case study, phenomenology, narrative research) and guiding theory if appropriate; identifying the research paradigm (e.g., postpositivist, constructivist/ interpretivist) is also recommended; rationale**</p>	<p>p.7</p>
<p>Researcher characteristics and reflexivity - Researchers' characteristics that may influence the research, including personal attributes, qualifications/experience, relationship with participants, assumptions, and/or presuppositions; potential or actual interaction between researchers' characteristics and the research questions, approach, methods, results, and/or transferability</p>	<p>p.9-10</p>
<p>Context - Setting/site and salient contextual factors; rationale**</p>	<p>p.8</p>
<p>Sampling strategy - How and why research participants, documents, or events were selected; criteria for deciding when no further sampling was necessary (e.g., sampling saturation); rationale**</p>	<p>p.8</p>
<p>Ethical issues pertaining to human subjects - Documentation of approval by an appropriate ethics review board and participant consent, or explanation for lack thereof; other confidentiality and data security issues</p>	<p>p.7</p>
<p>Data collection methods - Types of data collected; details of data collection procedures including (as appropriate) start and stop dates of data collection and analysis, iterative process, triangulation of sources/methods, and modification of procedures in response to evolving study findings; rationale**</p>	<p>p.8</p>

1		
2		
3	Data collection instruments and technologies - Description of instruments (e.g.,	
4	interview guides, questionnaires) and devices (e.g., audio recorders) used for data	
5	collection; if/how the instrument(s) changed over the course of the study	
6		
7	Units of study - Number and relevant characteristics of participants, documents,	
8	or events included in the study; level of participation (could be reported in results)	
9		
10	Data processing - Methods for processing data prior to and during analysis,	
11	including transcription, data entry, data management and security, verification of	
12	data integrity, data coding, and anonymization/de-identification of excerpts	
13		
14	Data analysis - Process by which inferences, themes, etc., were identified and	
15	developed, including the researchers involved in data analysis; usually references a	
16	specific paradigm or approach; rationale**	
17		
18	Techniques to enhance trustworthiness - Techniques to enhance trustworthiness	
19	and credibility of data analysis (e.g., member checking, audit trail, triangulation);	
20	rationale**	

Results/findings

21		
22		
23	Synthesis and interpretation - Main findings (e.g., interpretations, inferences, and	
24	themes); might include development of a theory or model, or integration with	
25	prior research or theory	
26		
27	Links to empirical data - Evidence (e.g., quotes, field notes, text excerpts,	
28	photographs) to substantiate analytic findings	
29		

Discussion

30		
31		
32	Integration with prior work, implications, transferability, and contribution(s) to	
33	the field - Short summary of main findings; explanation of how findings and	
34	conclusions connect to, support, elaborate on, or challenge conclusions of earlier	
35	scholarship; discussion of scope of application/generalizability; identification of	
36	unique contribution(s) to scholarship in a discipline or field	
37		
38	Limitations - Trustworthiness and limitations of findings	
39		

Other

40		
41		
42	Conflicts of interest - Potential sources of influence or perceived influence on	
43	study conduct and conclusions; how these were managed	
44		
45	Funding - Sources of funding and other support; role of funders in data collection,	
46	interpretation, and reporting	
47		

*The authors created the SRQR by searching the literature to identify guidelines, reporting standards, and critical appraisal criteria for qualitative research; reviewing the reference lists of retrieved sources; and contacting experts to gain feedback. The SRQR aims to improve the transparency of all aspects of qualitative research by providing clear standards for reporting qualitative research.

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

**The rationale should briefly discuss the justification for choosing that theory, approach, method, or technique rather than other options available, the assumptions and limitations implicit in those choices, and how those choices influence study conclusions and transferability. As appropriate, the rationale for several items might be discussed together.

Reference:

O'Brien BC, Harris IB, Beckman TJ, Reed DA, Cook DA. **Standards for reporting qualitative research: a synthesis of recommendations.** *Academic Medicine*, Vol. 89, No. 9 / Sept 2014
DOI: 10.1097/ACM.0000000000000388

For peer review only