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“I don’t want to make you sad...” Expectations, end-of-life fears and end-of-life communication among palliative cancer patients and their family members

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4 **Title: “I don’t want to make you sad...” Expectations, end-of-life fears and**
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7 **end-of-life communication among palliative cancer patients and their**
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9 **family members**
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13 von Blanckenburg, Pia,¹ Riera Knorrenschild, Jorge,² Hofmann, Mareike,¹ Fries, Hansjakob,³
14 Nestoriuc, Yvonne,⁴ Rief, Winfried,¹ Seifart, Carola⁵
15
16

17
18
19 **Corresponding author:**

20 Dr. Pia von Blanckenburg
21 Department of Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy
22 Philipps-University of Marburg Gutenbergstr. 18, 35032 Marburg
23 eMail: blanckep@staff.uni-marburg.de,
24 Phone: 0049 6421 2824951
25

26
27 ¹ Department of Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy, Philipps-University of Marburg, Marburg,
28 Germany
29

30 ² Department of Internal Medicine, Div. Haematology and Oncology, Philipps-University of Marburg,
31 Marburg, Germany
32

33 ³ Div. Haematology and Oncology, University of Leipzig, Leipzig, Germany
34

35 ⁴ Department of Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy, Helmut-Schmidt-University, Hamburg,
36 Germany
37

38 ⁵ Faculty of Medicine, Research Group Medical Ethics (AGEM), Philipps-University of Marburg,
39 Marburg, Germany
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Strengths and limitations of this study

- The study investigated expectations and concerns of cancer patients and family members regarding end-of-life discussions quantitatively
- Differences between patients and family members were analysed in a multivariate analysis
- As common in this research topic and study population, the refusal rate was high and most of the family members were female.

For peer review only

ABSTRACT

Objectives During serious illness, open communication with family members can ensure high quality care. Without end-of-life conversations, family members may become surrogates and decision-makers without knowing the preferences of the patient. However, expectations and fears may influence the initiation of these conversations. The present study investigates differences between palliative cancer patients and family members regarding expectations of end-of-life conversations, end-of-life fears, and experiences with end-of-life conversations.

Design A cross-sectional study using a semi-structured interview and a paper-based questionnaire

Setting University Hospital in Germany

Participants 151 participants: 85 palliative cancer patients (mean age: 62.8 years, 65.9% male) and 66 relatives (mean age: 56.3 years, 28.8% male)

Primary and secondary outcome measures Expectations, end-of-life fears, and experiences of end-of-life discussions

Results Patients and families wish for the patient to be self-determined. In general, participants reported more positive than negative expectations of end-of-life discussions. Importantly, concern about emotionally burdening the other person was rated much higher in a family context than a professional context ($F(1,149)=316.958, p<.001, \eta^2=.680$), even though the emotional relief was expected to be higher ($F(1,149)=46.115, p<.001, \eta^2=.236$). Family members reported more fears about the last period of life and more fears about end-of-life discussions than palliative patients, whereas palliative patients tended to avoid the topics of death and dying to a higher degree.

Conclusions There seems to exist a 'self-other' paradox: palliative patients and their relatives expect substantial personal relief when openly talking about end-of-life issues, but also expect the other person to be burdened by such a conversation. Professionals repeatedly need to initiate end-of-life conversations.

INTRODUCTION

During serious illness, open communication can improve the quality of end-of-life care. These conversations should include caregivers and family members, because the responsibility of making medical decisions often shifts to a surrogate due to patients' bad condition [1, 2]. End-of-life (EOL) conversations can ensure that the decisions made are consistent with the values and wishes of the patient. However, patients and their families seem to avoid EOL conversations [3, 4]. In one study, only 21 per cent of the relatives knew patients' preferences regarding possible EOL situations, although 75 per cent rated themselves confident about knowing patients' goals [5]. Nevertheless, not knowing patients' wishes can lead to emotional burden and distress in surrogates [6]. The prevalence of depression and complicated grief was shown to be higher in bereaved families without EOL communication [7]. Thus, knowing which treatment is consistent with the patient's preferences has the potential to reduce the negative effects on family members [8].

Many difficulties are known that discourage families from talking about EOL issues: the patient-caregiver relationship (e.g. differences in values or opinions), a lack of communication skills (e.g. not knowing how to talk about EOL care) or external circumstances (e.g. not having any close person to talk to) [4]. Moreover, cognitive factors as expectations can prevent families speaking about death and dying (e.g. talking about death speeds up the process of dying) [4]. Expectations are specific and flexible cognitions that 1) are forward-looking and 2) concentrate on whether an event or an experience will occur or not occur [9]. Expectations predict different health-related behaviours such as the intake of medication in breast cancer patients or the utilization of psychosocial help [10–12]. The role of caregivers' expectations in healthcare communication was recently investigated in a paediatric setting [13]. In the EOL care context, expectations such as "Speaking about my own death will upset you" may especially deter persons from EOL communication. To our knowledge, there is no study that has analysed the expectations of EOL communication in palliative patients and their family members.

Next to cognitions, the most prevalent communication barrier is related to emotional factors (e.g. protecting others from difficult emotions). Another emotional barrier that inhibits EOL communication is death anxiety. Death anxiety (thanatophobia) includes the fear of death and avoidance of news that reminds one of death [14]. In oncological samples, 8.2–42 per cent of patients showed moderate levels of death anxiety [15–18], but it is also present in healthy populations [19, 20]. Death anxiety can be a relevant factor in avoiding EOL topics, whereas death

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2 acceptance is associated with a higher degree of awareness and ability to reflect on death and dying
3 [21, 22]. Thus, death anxiety and the tendency to avoid death-related topics are relevant
4 determinants to address in this context.
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8 Therefore, the present study investigates a) the degree of participation in EOL care; b) expectations
9 of EOL conversations; c) EOL fears; and d) experiences with EOL conversations among palliative
10 cancer patients and family members. Additionally, the study analyses the correlations between the
11 reported expectations, fears and experiences.
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16 **METHODS**

17 **Participants and design**

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22 Inclusion criteria for all participants were sufficient German language skills and a minimum age of
23 18. For the patient group, an oncological diagnosis of a malignant neoplasm, a palliative setting, and
24 the identification of a limited prognosis, using the surprise-question ("Would I be surprised if this
25 patient died in the next year?") by the attending physician, were additional inclusion criteria. Family
26 members had to be potential caregivers of the patient (e.g. partner, child, parent). After being
27 informed about the study and having given their written informed consent, patients were
28 interviewed by five psychology Master's students and medical doctoral students under the
29 supervision of CS, YN, MH and PB.
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37 **Ethics**

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41 The study was approved by the institutional review board of the Medical School, University of
42 Marburg (AZ:47/12). Before participation, subjects gave written informed consent.
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45 **Assessment instruments**

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48 Sociodemographic and clinical variables were assessed by the treating doctor. Then, patients were
49 interviewed in a semi-structured interview. All questions in the semi-structured interview could be
50 answered on a Likert scale from 0 ("not at all") to 4 ("totally agree" or "very much"). Three questions
51 addressed self-determination in EOL care (e.g. "It is important to me to be self-determined."); seven
52 questions were about persons who should decide about EOL care (e.g. "I want decisions about my
53 medical EOL care to be taken only by myself"); six questions addressed expectations of EOL care
54 (e.g. "I expect... emotional release/ practical support/ emotional burden/..."); and five questions
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1
2 were about fears regarding EOL conversations (e.g. “I am very afraid of my/ my relatives’ last period
3 of life”, “I avoid talking about EOL topics”). Moreover, three questions addressed the experience of
4 EOL conversations (burdening, helpful, satisfying) and one question asked whom palliative patients
5 and their family members had spoken to (in the informal or professional context). Moreover, anxiety
6 and depression were measured using the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS, German-
7 Version) [23], which is a commonly used self-administered questionnaire. Items are rated on a four-
8 point scale and scored from 0 to 3, where a higher score indicates more anxiety/depression.
9 Therefore, total scores for each subscale range from 0 to 21, with a Cronbach’s alpha of $\alpha=.81$ for
10 the anxiety-scale and $\alpha=.69$ for the depression scale.
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19 **Patient and public involvement**

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22 Cancer patients were involved to see if the semi-structured interview was understandable and
23 comprehensive. Otherwise, there was no direct patient or public involvement.
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26 **Data analysis**

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29 Analyses were performed using SPSS 26 (SPSS Inc. IBM, Chicago, Illinois, USA), with statistical
30 significance set at $p < .05$. The data were screened for univariate outliers, missing data and violations
31 to the assumptions of analysis. Missing data at random (2.1%) were imputed using multiple
32 imputation. To analyse expectations, fears and experiences of EOL conversations in cancer patients
33 and family members, and to control for possible influences of demographic and clinical
34 characteristics, (multivariate) analysis of covariance (MANOVA and MANCOVA) and univariate
35 analysis of covariance (ANOVA) were conducted. For categorical data, chi-square tests were used.
36 Pearson correlations were used to analyse relationships between variables. Further details are
37 reported in the results section.
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47 **RESULTS**

48 **Participants**

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51 A total of 165 palliative patients were eligible, but 76 (46.1%) refused to participate. The most
52 common reasons for refusal were fear of emotional burden ($n=32$, 42.1%), physical exhaustion
53 ($n=15$, 19.7%), and the patient not wanting to talk about this topic ($n=11$, 14.5%). Of the 143 eligible
54 family members of these patients, 68 (47.6%) participated. Family members refused participation
55 because of a fear of emotional burden ($n=25$, 32.5%) and effort ($n=18$, 32.4%). In addition, four
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2 patients (4.49%) and two relatives (2.94%) discontinued their participation because of physical
3 problems (e.g. pain) or organizational aspects. Thus, the final sample consisted of 85 palliative
4 cancer patients and 66 family members. Demographic and clinical characteristics of the study
5 participants are listed in Table 1.
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10 **Table 1**

11 12 13 **Who should decide about end-of-life care?**

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16 The item "It is important to me to be self-determined" was agreed with by 95.3 per cent of patients
17 and 92.4 per cent of family members. Moreover, 89.3 per cent of patients and 89.1 per cent of
18 family members agreed with the item: "The right to self-determination must be valid beyond death"
19 ($V=.98$, $F(2,145)=0.143$, $p=.869$, $\eta_p^2=.002$). In a MANOVA, there were no significant differences
20 between patients and family members regarding self-determination. To concretize who should
21 decide about EOL care and to analyse possible differences between patients and family members,
22 a MANOVA with the between-subject factor 'status' and seven different degrees of personal
23 involvement in decisions about EOL care (see Figure 1) as dependent variables was conducted. No
24 significant effect of status ($V=.97$, $F(7,143)=0.615$, $p=.743$, $\eta_p^2=.029$) was found. Thus, cancer
25 patients and their family members reported the same preferences, namely that the patients, their
26 family members and the physician should participate in a shared decision-making process about EOL
27 care.
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39 **Figure 1**

40 41 42 **Expectations of end-of-life discussions**

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45 To analyse differences in expectations of EOL communication in the professional versus the informal
46 context among cancer patients and their family members, a MANOVA with the between-subject
47 factor 'status', the within-subject factor 'context' and six different expectations of EOL fears as
48 dependent variables was conducted. No significant effect of status ($V=.93$, $F(6,144)=1.757$, $p=.112$,
49 $\eta_p^2=.068$) was found, but a significant effect of context was seen ($V=.94$, $F(6,144)=65.806$, $p<.001$,
50 $\eta_p^2=.733$). Subsequent univariate analyses showed a higher score for the expectation of emotional
51 relief ($F(1,149)=46.115$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.236$) and the expectation of practical support ($F(1,149)=38.665$,
52 $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.206$) in the informal context than in the professional context. Moreover, univariate
53 analyses showed a significant higher score in the expectation of negative emotions
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($F(1,149)=54.820, p<.001, \eta_p^2=.269$) and in the expectation regarding the emotional burden of the other person ($F(1,149)=316.958, p<.001, \eta_p^2=.680$) in the informal context than in the professional context. There were no context effects on the expectations of refusal ($F(1,149)=0.194, p=.118, \eta_p^2=.016$) or wishes not being respected ($F(1,149)=0.131, p=.320, \eta_p^2=.007$).

Thus, cancer patients and their family members reported a higher tendency to expect emotional relief and practical support from conversations with their family and friends than from conversations with professionals. On the other hand, they reported higher expectations of negative emotions and burdening the other person in informal conversations than in conversations with professionals. The results remained stable after controlling for possible confounders such as age and gender.

****Figure 2****

End-of-life fears

In a MANOVA with the between-subject factor status and five different aspects of EOL fears as dependent variables, a significant effect of status ($V=.72, F(5,143)=10.963, p<.001, \eta_p^2=.277$) was found. A subsequent univariate analysis showed a generally higher score for the wish to avoid topics of death and dying in patients ($F(1,148)=4.623, p=.033, \eta_p^2=.030$) than in family members. Moreover, univariate analyses showed a significantly higher score for “I am very afraid of the last period of my/my relative’s life” ($F(1,148)=42.279, p<.001, \eta_p^2=.223$) and for “I am afraid to talk about EOL topics” ($F(1,148)=7.702, p=.006, \eta_p^2=.050$) in family members than in patients. There were no status effects on the reported aspects “Thoughts about death and dying are burdening for me” ($F(1,148)=1.219, p=.419, \eta_p^2=.004$) or “I avoid talking about EOL topics” ($F(1,148)=.782, p=.378, \eta_p^2=.005$). Thus, cancer patients reported a higher tendency to avoid topics of death and dying in general, whereas family members reported higher anxiety scores. The results remained stable after controlling for possible confounders such as age and gender.

Evaluation of end-of-life discussions

Patients and family members were asked if they had spoken about EOL topics and with whom. Results showed that the majority of patients and family members had talked about the last period of life of the patient, but 22.7 per cent of patients 16.7 per cent of family members had not. There were no differences between family members and patients in the distribution of EOL conversations

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2 $(\chi^2(4,1)=6.352; p=.174)$. Most patients and family members had talked about these themes in an
3 informal context (55.3% and 71.2%). The results are shown in Table 2. Moreover, the majority of
4 patients found the conversations helpful or very helpful (51.3%) or more or less helpful (30.3%), and
5 satisfying or very satisfying (49.5%) or more or less satisfying (30.3%). There were no significant
6 differences for family members $(\chi^2(4,1)=1.574; p=.814)$ and $(\chi^2(4,1)=5.228; p=.265)$. Of the family
7 members, 48.4 per cent found the conversations helpful or very helpful and 31.8 per cent more or
8 less helpful, while 53.1 per cent found the conversations satisfying and 34.8 per cent more or less
9 satisfying. Significant differences were shown regarding the emotional burden of the conversations
10 $(\chi^2(4,1)=15.160; p=.004)$, where 26.4 per cent of the family members evaluated the conversations
11 as burdening or very burdening, and 34 per cent as more or less burdening, while only 9.1 per cent
12 of the cancer patients evaluated the conversations as burdening or very burdening, and 31.8 per
13 cent as more or less burdening.

24
25 **Table 2**

27
28 **Table 3**

30 **Associations between expectations, fears and experiences**

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33 Table 3 shows the cross-sectional correlations between the expectations, fears and experiences of
34 patients and family members. As expected, positive experiences are associated with positive
35 expectations and negative experiences (burden of the conversation) are associated with negative
36 expectations and fears.

41 **DISCUSSION**

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43
44 The study investigated the expectations and concerns of cancer patients and family members
45 regarding end-of-life discussions. A large majority of the participants wish to be self-determined
46 regarding EOL issues and death. Patients and family members corresponded in their wish that they
47 should decide about EOL care together with physicians. In total, participants reported more positive
48 than negative expectations of EOL discussions. Importantly, concern about emotionally burdening
49 the other person with EOL conversations was rated much higher in a family context than with
50 professionals, even though the emotional relief was expected to be higher in the family context than
51 in a professional context. Family members reported more fears about the last period of life as well
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2 as talking about it, whereas palliative patients tended to avoid the topic of death and dying to a
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4 higher degree than their family members.
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7 Similar to the results of other studies [24, 25], we found that three out of four had talked about the
8
9 last period of life. We found no significant differences between patients and family members. This
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11 means they engage or fail to engage in EOL talk similarly. Remarkably, 22.6 per cent of the palliative
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13 patients had never spoken to anybody about their end of life; additionally, it is not clear what “rarely”
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15 meant in each individual case. Nevertheless, it is not the frequency of EOL conversations that is most
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17 important, but whether important issues are clarified and decisions made. Maybe it is helpful for
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19 seriously ill persons and their caregivers not to engage all the time in existential topics in the manner
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21 of double awareness [26]. Double awareness is the flexibility of mind between life awareness and
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23 death awareness and the possibility of switching and tolerating the ambivalence of life and death at
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25 the same time [26]. In further research, it would be interesting to investigate whether persons who
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27 discussed death and dying frequently show higher levels of death awareness and persons who have
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29 never had EOL discussions show lower levels of death awareness.

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31 However, a significant proportion of patients had not communicated about EOL decisions and a
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33 large proportion of caregivers were not adequately informed. In this light, the difference in
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35 expectations between the informal context and the professional context observed in this study is of
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37 distinct importance.

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39 The most notable result is that the interviewed persons expected substantial personal relief when
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41 openly talking about EOL issues in an informal context but expected the other person to be
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43 burdened by such a conversation. Notably, this ‘self-other’ paradox is true for both groups, the
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45 palliative care patients and the relatives. This paradox was not found in the professional context.
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47 On the one hand, persons expect more emotional relief and practical support from conversations
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49 with loved ones, pointing out the importance and high relevance of informal caregivers in the sense
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51 of building a unit of care [27]. On the other hand, concerns about causing negative emotions and
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53 burdening the other person are dramatically higher in the informal than in the professional context.
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55 Emotion-related factors such as protective buffering can be relevant barriers to EOL communication
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57 [4]. The belief that it will hurt the other person to address death and dying seems to be very salient
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59 and a relevant obstacle to EOL conversations. However, in a professional context, this strong barrier
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seems to be remarkably lower. Consequently, it seems to be almost mandatory for professionals to

1
2 initiate and foster EOL discussions instead of waiting for initiation by the patient. This way the topic
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4 can be placed on a professional level, which might be easier to endure.
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7 In total, patients and their family members reported more positive than negative expectations of
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9 EOL discussions. In the light of the high psychological burden of emotional stress and uncertainty
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11 due to the loaded situation, the fact that positive expectations exceeded negative ones seems very
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13 promising. Specifically, expected emotional relief and increased support from these conversations
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15 could serve as motivating factors to initiate EOL conversations. Moreover, the results show that
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17 expectations of experiencing negative emotions are correlated with EOL fears and the tendency to
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19 avoid talking. This is not surprising because avoidance is a very common reaction to fear and is part
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21 of the classification systems of phobias (e.g. thanatophobia) [15]. Therefore, another possible
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23 explanation for the first observation might be that the majority of those who had reservations
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25 towards communication about death and dying did not participate in this study, resulting in a
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27 selective sample. Of the persons who declined to participate, 42.1 per cent did so out of fear of the
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29 emotional burden and 14.5 per cent because the person did not want to talk about this topic. The
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31 high refusal rate seems to be a problem in research on EOL topics. In another study with healthy
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33 participants, a similar phenomenon was found: those with higher scores for death anxiety were
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35 more likely to drop out [28]. In further research, it would be worthwhile finding a way to include
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37 those persons who are afraid and not open to the topic. Maybe extremely short and low-threshold
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39 questionnaires or interviews and short interventions addressing the person's expectations could be
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41 helpful.

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43 The result that negative expectations correlated with negative experiences and positive
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45 expectations with positive experiences supports the fact that expectations can develop through
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47 personal experiences (learning) [29]. It can be assumed that there is a vicious circle consisting of a
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49 negative experience leading to negative expectations that again lead to negative experiences in
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51 terms of a nocebo effect [30]. Further research examining the role of expectations in EOL
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53 communication in a longitudinal way might want to address the causal relationship between the
54
55 two constructs. In a next step, interventions could be developed that address the optimization of
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57 expectations [31, 32].

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59 Interestingly, family members are in some areas even more affected than patients in terms of higher
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61 anxiety levels for both EOL fears and state anxiety. This is in line with the prior findings of Leroy et
62
63 al. [33] which show that family members of advanced cancer patients tend to be more anxious than

1 patients, with prevalence levels around 32–72 per cent [34–36]. Family caregivers suffer from high
2 levels of distress (and emotional burden) and a high level of unmet needs [31]; thus it is relevant to
3 incorporate dyadic programmes [37]. Alongside the communication about death and dying, other
4 typical problems experienced by families of advanced cancer patients can include dealing with
5 feelings of separation and loss, role overload, the need to conceal feelings, feelings of isolation,
6 fatigue and exhaustion, and feelings of inadequacy regarding necessary skills [38]. Therefore, as a
7 clinical implication, we suggest that a holistic quality EOL care approach should not only focus on
8 patients but also provide as much support as possible for family members and close friends .
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17 Some limitations must be considered when interpreting the results of this study. Firstly, the items
18 used in the semi-structured interview in this study were developed by the investigators and were
19 not based on a validated instrument. Nevertheless, most research in this area has been qualitative,
20 so this study can be a helpful addition to the existing research. Secondly, the study was cross-
21 sectional, showing only correlations but no causal associations between expectations, fears and
22 experiences. It would be worthwhile to evaluate these associations in further studies in a
23 longitudinal way. Thirdly, most of the family members were female. Further studies with a balanced
24 gender distribution would be valuable. Finally, due to the high refusal rate, it cannot be excluded
25 that the results are influenced by selection bias. Thus, the results may cannot be generalised to
26 other populations. Nevertheless, the fact that many persons refuse the study due to fear of
27 emotional burden underlines the importance of the topic and the relevance of expectations.
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38 To conclude, there seems to exist a 'self-other' paradox: palliative patients and their relatives expect
39 substantial personal relief when openly talking about end-of-life issues, but also expect the other
40 person to be burdened by such a conversation. Professionals repeatedly need to initiate end-of-life
41 conversations to help families speaking about end-of-life issues.
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Availability of data and materials

The datasets generated and analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Ethical approval

The study was approved by the institutional review board of the Medical School, Philipps-University of Marburg (AZ:47/12). This study was performed in line with the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki.

Consent to participate

Written informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

Consent for publication

Participants signed informed consent regarding publishing their data in an anonymous form.

Contributors

All authors have made a substantial contribution to the work through data acquisition, data collection, analysis, interpretation of data, drafting the article, and approving the final version to be published.

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Competing interests

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare that are relevant to the content of this article.

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2 **Figure legends**
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5 Figure 1. Persons who should decide about end-of-life care
6

7 Figure 2. Expectations of end-of-life discussions among cancer patients and family members in an informal versus a
8 professional context
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11 Figure 3. End-of-life fears among cancer patients and family members
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Table 1. Sociodemographic and medical data of the study sample

| Variables | | Patients (N=85) | Family Members (N=66) | Group Differences |
|----------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| | | N (%) / M (SD) | N (%) / M (SD) | t- / χ^2 - Value |
| Age in years | | 62.8 (11.4) | 56.3 (12.7) | 3.24, p =.002 |
| Gender (male) | | 56 (65.9%) | 19 (28.8%) | 20.45, p <.001 |
| Years of education | 9 | 52 (61.2%) | 33 (50%) | 3.442, p =.328 |
| | 10 | 15 (17.9%) | 18 (27.3%) | |
| | 12-13 | 16 (18.8%) | 15 (22.7%) | |
| Working Status | Working | 4 (4.8 %) | 39 (59.1%) | 64.85, p <.001 |
| | Disability pension | 16 (18.8 %) | 3 (4.7%) | |
| | Pension | 37 (43.5 %) | 15 (23.4 %) | |
| | On sick leave | 21 (24.7 %) | 1 (1.6 %) | |
| | Unemployed | 1 (1.2 %) | 3 (4.7 %) | |
| | Housewife/man | 5 (5.9 %) | 3 (4.7 %) | |
| Family Status | Married | 53 (62.4 %) | 48 (72.7%) | 9.278. p =.026 |
| | Divorced | 14 (16.5 %) | 3 (4.5%) | |
| | Single | 7 (8.2 %) | 11 (16.7%) | |
| | Widowed | 11 (12.9 %) | 4 (6.1%) | |
| | Living together with partner (yes) | 62 (72.9 %) | 55 (83.3%) | |
| | Children (yes) | 73 (85.9 %) | 53 (80.3%) | |
| Religious Confession | Catholic | 15 (17.6 %) | 11 (16.7 %) | 1.244, p =.742 |
| | Protestant | 55 (64.7 %) | 45 (68.2 %) | |
| | Other | 2 (2.4 %) | 3 (4.5 %) | |
| | None | 13 (15.4 %) | 7 (10.6 %) | |
| Relation to Patient | Partner | | 44 (66.7 %) | |
| | Son/ Daughter | | 15 (22.7 %) | |
| | Parent | | 1 (1.5 %) | |
| | Other | | 6 (9.1 %) | |
| Tumor group | Lungs | 25 (29.4 %) | | |
| | Gastro-intestinal | 14 (16.5 %) | | |
| | Hepatobiliary | 3 (3.5 %) | | |
| | Urogenital | 8 (9.4 %) | | |
| | Gynecological | 7 (8.2 %) | | |
| | ENT (ear, nose, throat) | 2 (2.4 %) | | |

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|----|-----------------|---------------------------------|-------------|------------------|
| 1 | | | | |
| 2 | | Brain tumor/ Medulloblastome | 4 (4.7 %) | |
| 3 | | | | |
| 4 | | | | |
| 5 | | Haematological | 10 (11.8 %) | |
| 6 | | | | |
| 7 | | Other | 12 (14.1 %) | |
| 8 | Treatment | Chemotherapy | 72 (84.7 %) | - |
| 9 | | Radiation | 49 (57.6 %) | - |
| 10 | | Surgery | 43 (50.6 %) | - |
| 11 | | | | |
| 12 | | | | |
| 13 | HADS Depression | | 5.64 (3.21) | 6.67 (3.09) |
| 14 | | | | -1.971, $p=.051$ |
| 15 | HADS Anxiety | | 5.83 (3.49) | 8.97 (3.63) |
| 16 | | | | -5.368, $p<.001$ |
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Table 2. Conversational partner in end-of-life discussions

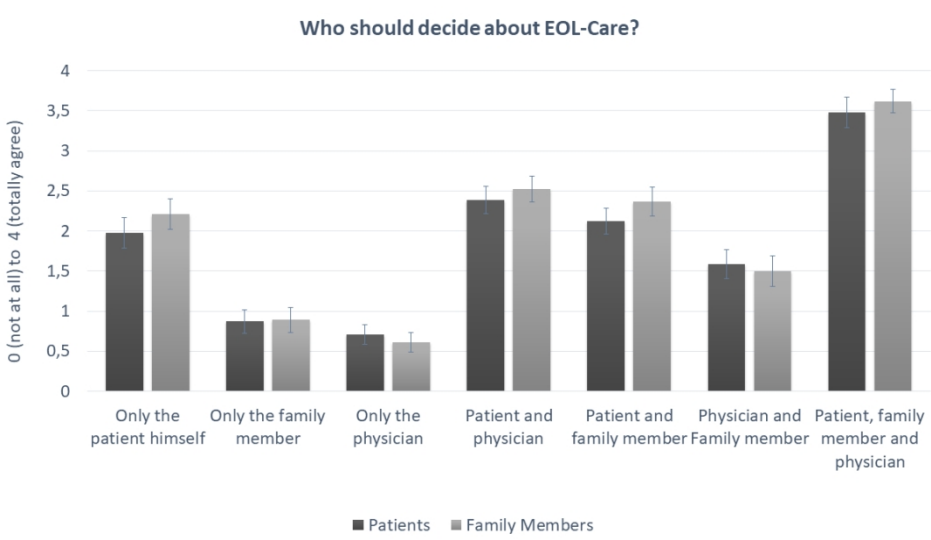
| End-of-life communication | | Patients (n=84) | Family members (n=65) |
|--|--------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Have you spoken about (your/his/her) last period-of life? | A lot | 3 (3.5%) | 5 (7.6%) |
| | Frequently | 10 (11.8%) | 16 (24.4%) |
| | From time to time | 31 (36.5%) | 22 (33.3%) |
| | Rarely | 21 (24.7%) | 11 (16.7%) |
| | Never | 19 (22.4%) | 11 (16.7%) |
| Professional Context | Physician | 26 (30.6%) | 25 (37.9%) |
| | Nurse | 2 (2.4%) | 7 (10.6%) |
| | Pastor | 10 (11.8%) | 4 (6.1%) |
| | Psychologist | 4 (4.7%) | 5 (7.6%) |
| Informal Context | Family | 47 (55.3%) | 47 (71.2%) |
| | Partner | 45 (52.9%) | 43 (65.2%) |
| | Friends | 30 (35.3%) | 30 (55.6%) |
| | Other patients | 5 (5.9%) | 10 (15.2) |
| | With the patient himself | - | 45 (68.2%) |

Table 3. Correlations between the expectations, fears and experiences in patients and family members

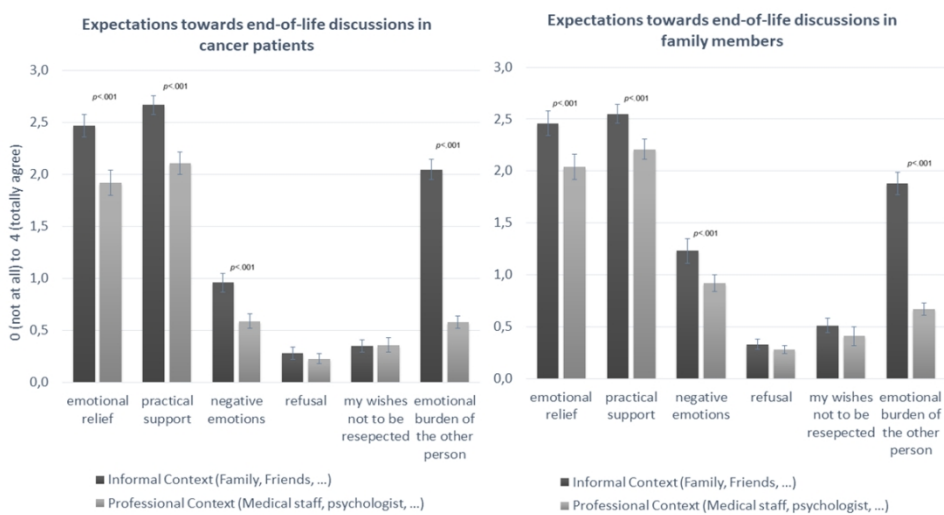
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
|--|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|
| EXPECTATIONS | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 Emotional relief | - | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 Practical support | .777** | - | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 Negative emotions | .099 | -.008 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4 Refusal | -.046 | -.150 | .344** | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 5 My wishes not to be respected | -.072 | -.175* | .173* | .645** | - | | | | | | | | |
| 6 Emotional burden of the other person | .024 | .039 | .441** | .166* | .175* | - | | | | | | | |
| FEARS | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7 Avoidance of the topic | -.066 | -.85 | .090 | -.063 | .017 | 0.64 | - | | | | | | |
| 8 Thoughts are burdening | .045 | -.044 | .375** | .064 | .079 | .286** | .376** | - | | | | | |
| 9 Very afraid of EOL | .136 | -.015 | .383** | .129 | .036 | .187* | .029 | .387** | - | | | | |
| 10 Afraid of Talking | .096 | .040 | .502** | .240** | .162* | .210 | .139 | .280** | .465** | - | | | |
| 11 Avoidance of Talking | .013 | .036 | .256** | .138 | .100 | .222** | .374** | .348** | .168* | .516** | - | | |
| EXPERIENCES | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 12 burdening | -.005 | -.102 | .499** | .302** | .177 | .232* | .017 | .382** | .478** | .438** | .209* | - | |
| 13 helpful | .362** | .320** | -.104 | -.127 | -.111 | .061 | -.331** | -.130 | .012 | -.232* | -.316** | -.247** | - |
| 14 satisfied | .232* | .211* | -.156 | -.183* | -.203* | -.049 | -.129 | -.048 | -.048 | -.081 | -.053 | -.419** | .506** |

Note. *p<.05, **p<.01, (n=118-151)

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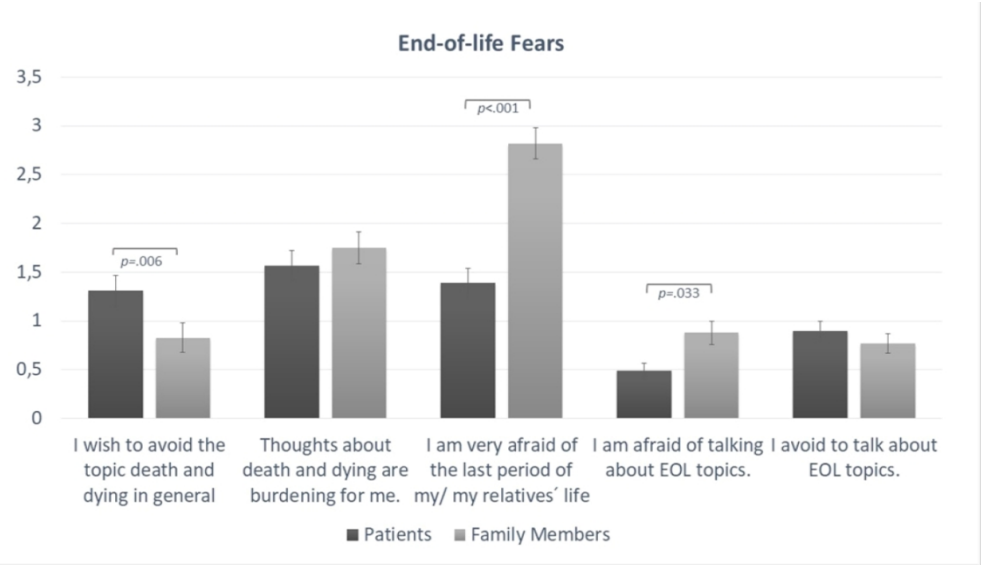


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STROBE Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of *cohort studies*

| | Item No | Recommendation | Page No |
|------------------------------|---------|--|---------|
| Title and abstract | 1 | (a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract (b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found | 3 3 |
| Introduction | | | |
| Background/rationale | 2 | Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported | 4f |
| Objectives | 3 | State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses | 5 |
| Methods | | | |
| Study design | 4 | Present key elements of study design early in the paper | 5 |
| Setting | 5 | Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection | 5 |
| Participants | 6 | (a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants. Describe methods of follow-up (b) For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and unexposed | 5 |
| Variables | 7 | Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable | 5f |
| Data sources/ measurement | 8* | For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group | 5 |
| Bias | 9 | Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias | 6 |
| Study size | 10 | Explain how the study size was arrived at | 6 |
| Quantitative variables | 11 | Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why | 6 |
| Statistical methods | 12 | (a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for confounding (b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions (c) Explain how missing data were addressed (d) If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up was addressed (e) Describe any sensitivity analyses | 6 |
| Results | | | |
| Participants | 13* | (a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed (b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage (c) Consider use of a flow diagram | 6 |
| Descriptive data | 14* | (a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential confounders (b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest (c) Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount) | Table 1 |
| Outcome data | 15* | Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time | 7ff |

| | | | | |
|----|--------------------------|----|--|---------------------------|
| 1 | Main results | 16 | (a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included | 6-9, Table 2, and Figures |
| 2 | | | | |
| 3 | | | (b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized | |
| 4 | | | (c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period | |
| 5 | Other analyses | 17 | Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses | Table 3 |
| 6 | Discussion | | | |
| 7 | Key results | 18 | Summarise key results with reference to study objectives | 9 |
| 8 | Limitations | 19 | Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias | 12 |
| 9 | Interpretation | 20 | Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence | 9-12 |
| 10 | Generalisability | 21 | Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results | 12 |
| 11 | Other information | | | |
| 12 | Funding | 22 | Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based | 13 |

26 *Give information separately for exposed and unexposed groups.

27
28
29 **Note:** An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at <http://www.plosmedicine.org/>, Annals of Internal Medicine at <http://www.annals.org/>, and Epidemiology at <http://www.epidem.com/>). Information on the STROBE Initiative is available at <http://www.strobe-statement.org>.

BMJ Open

Expectations, end-of-life fears and end-of-life communication among palliative cancer patients and caregivers: a cross-sectional study

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|---------------------------------|--|
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| Secondary Subject Heading: | Oncology, Patient-centred medicine, Palliative care |
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7 among palliative cancer patients and caregivers: a cross-sectional study
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11 von Blanckenburg, Pia,¹ Riera Knorrenschild, Jorge,² Hofmann, Mareike,¹ Fries, Hansjakob,³
12 Nestoriuc, Yvonne,^{4,5} Seifart, Ulf,⁶ Rief, Winfried,¹ Seifart, Carola⁷
13
14

15
16 **Corresponding author:**

17 Dr. Pia von Blanckenburg
18 Department of Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy
19 Philipps-University of Marburg Gutenbergstr. 18, 35032 Marburg
20 eMail: blanckep@staff.uni-marburg.de
21 Phone: 0049 6421 2824951
22
23

24
25 ¹ Department of Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy, Philipps-University of Marburg, Marburg,
26 Germany
27

28 ² Department of Internal Medicine, Div. Haematology and Oncology, Philipps-University of Marburg,
29 Marburg, Germany
30

31 ³ Department of Internal Medicine III - Oncology, Hematology and Rheumatology, University
32 Hospital Bonn, Bonn, Germany
33

34 ⁴ Department of Clinical Psychology, Helmut-Schmidt-University, University of the Federal Armed
35 Forces Hamburg, Germany
36

37 ⁵ Department of Systems Neuroscience, University Medical Centre Hamburg-Eppendorf, Hamburg,
38 Germany
39

40 ⁶ Rehabilitation clinic Sonnenblick, Marburg, Germany
41

42 ⁷ Faculty of Medicine, Research Group Medical Ethics (AGEM), Philipps-University of Marburg,
43 Marburg, Germany
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Strengths and limitations of this study

- In contrast to earlier research, expectations and concerns towards end-of-life discussions were investigated quantitatively in palliative patients and caregivers
- Differences between patients and caregivers were analysed using multivariate analysis
- The cross-sectional design cannot analyse causal relations – further longitudinal research is needed.

For peer review only

ABSTRACT

Objectives During serious illness, open communication with caregivers can ensure high quality care. Without end-of-life communication, caregivers may become surrogates and decision-makers without knowing the patient's preferences. However, expectations and fears may influence the initiation of communication. The present study investigates differences between palliative cancer patients and caregivers regarding expectations of end-of-life communication, end-of-life fears, and experiences with end-of-life communication.

Design A cross-sectional study using a semi-structured interview and a paper-based questionnaire

Setting University Hospital in Germany

Participants 151 participants: 85 palliative cancer patients (mean age: 62.8 years, 65.9% male) and 66 caregivers (mean age: 56.3 years, 28.8% male)

Primary and secondary outcome measures Expectations, end-of-life fears, and experiences of end-of-life discussions

Results Patients and caregivers wish for the patient to be self-determined. In general, participants reported more positive than negative expectations of end-of-life discussions. Importantly, concerns about emotionally burdening other person was rated much higher in an informal context than a professional context ($F(1,149)=316,958, p<.001, \eta^2=.680$), even though the emotional relief was expected to be higher ($F(1,149)=46.115, p<.001, \eta^2=.236$). Caregivers reported more fears about the last period of life and more fears about end-of-life discussions than palliative patients, whereas palliative patients tended to avoid the topics of death and dying to a greater extent.

Conclusions There seems to exist a 'self-other' asymmetry: palliative patients and their caregivers expect substantial personal relief when openly talking about end-of-life issues, but also expect the other person to be burdened by such communication. Professionals repeatedly need to initiate end-of-life communication.

INTRODUCTION

In palliative care, patients with a life-threatening disease and their caregivers are perceived as “unit of care”, meaning that both parts are the focus of a care plan [1]. Caregivers can be relatives or significant others. During the course of illness, there is often a moment when the responsibility for medical decisions shifts from the patient to the caregiver due to patient’s poor condition [2, 3]. However, research shows, that caregivers are often not well prepared for these decisions. In one study, only 21 percent of the relatives were aware of patients’ preferences regarding possible EOL situations, although 75 percent rated themselves confident about knowing patients’ goals [4].

Open end-of-life (EOL) communication between the patient and the caregiver can improve the quality of end-of-life care. It can ensure that decisions made are consistent with the patient’s values and wishes. EOL communication is defined as “a clinical interaction, which includes discussion of death and dying as part of the progression of illness or a potential outcome despite treatment efforts” [5]. In a broader sense, EOL communication can include topics around death and dying such as patient’s wishes about medical treatment (e.g. wished treatment options), but also emotional, spiritual and organizational aspects (e.g. funeral, last will or the wished place of dying) [6]. Not knowing patients’ wishes can lead to emotional burden and distress in surrogates [7, 8]. The prevalence of depression and complicated grief was shown to be higher in bereaved families without EOL communication [9], which highlights the importance of those discussions.

However, patients and their caregivers seem to avoid EOL communication [10, 11]. Many challenges are known that discourage them from talking about EOL issues: the patient-caregiver relationship (e.g. differences in values or opinions), a lack of communication skills (e.g. not knowing how to talk about EOL care) or external circumstances (e.g. not having any close person to talk to) [11]. Important barriers on a cognitive level can be expectations towards the communication process (e.g. talking about death speeds up the process of dying) [11]. Expectations are specific and flexible cognitions that 1) are future-oriented and 2) concentrate on whether or not an event or an experience will occur [12]. Expectations predict different health-related behaviours such as the intake of medication in breast cancer patients or the utilization of psychosocial help [13–15]. The role of caregivers’ expectations in healthcare communication was recently investigated in a paediatric setting [16]. In the EOL care context, expectations such as “Speaking about my own death will upset you” may especially deter persons from EOL communication. To our knowledge, there is no study that has analysed and compared the extent of different expectations of EOL

1
2 communication in palliative patients and their caregivers in a structured and quantitative way to
3
4 complement existing qualitative research [11].
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7 Apart from cognitions, emotional factors (e.g. protecting others from difficult emotions) and death
8 anxiety prevent persons from EOL communication. Death anxiety (thanatophobia) includes the fear
9 of death and avoidance of news that remind of death [17]. 8.2–42 percent of cancer patients
10 showed moderate levels of death anxiety [18–21], but it is also prevalent in healthy populations [22,
11 23]. Death anxiety can be a relevant factor in avoiding EOL topics, whereas death acceptance is
12 associated with higher levels of awareness and ability to reflect on death and dying [24, 25]. Thus,
13 death anxiety and the tendency to avoid death-related topics are relevant determinants to address
14 in the context of EOL communication.
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22 Therefore, the present study examined a) who should make decisions about EOL care; b) the
23 spectrum of expectations towards EOL communication; c) the level of EOL fears; and d) experiences
24 with EOL communication among palliative cancer patients and their caregivers. In our research, the
25 term palliative cancer patients refers to cancer patients with a life-limiting illness and a life
26 expectancy of less than 12 months. Lastly, the study analysed e) the correlations between reported
27 expectations, fears and experiences.
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34 **METHODS**

35 **Setting**

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37 All patients who met the inclusion criteria from the outpatient chemotherapy centre of a University
38 hospital were informed about the study by their treating physician. If caregivers accompanied
39 patients to their treatment or consultation there were additionally briefed on the study. After
40 written informed consent, a separate appointment was made to conduct a structured interview and
41 to complete the paper-pencil-questionnaire. Patients and caregivers were interviewed by two
42 psychology Master's students and three medical doctoral students under the supervision of CS, YN,
43 MH and PB. Interviews took place at doctors' consultation room at the outpatient chemotherapy
44 centre. Participants first filled in the questionnaire and were then asked the interview questions.
45 The interviewers were trained through role plays and also prepared for difficult situations. If
46 patients or caregivers felt distressed by the EOL topics, a psycho-oncological consultation was
47 offered. Participants were free to discontinue the interview or the questionnaire at any time.
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Participants

Inclusion criteria for all participants were sufficient German language skills and a minimum age of 18. For the patient group, a diagnosis of a malignant neoplasm with a limited prognosis judged by the surprise-question ("Would I be surprised if this patient died in the next year?") by the attending physician, was an additional inclusion criterion. Caregivers had to be a person close to the cancer patient, taking care of her or him and a potential surrogate (e.g. partner, child, parent, close friend, family member chosen by the patient etc).

Ethics

The study was approved by the institutional review board of the Medical School, University of Marburg (AZ:47/12). Before participation, subjects gave written informed consent.

Assessment instruments

Sociodemographic and clinical variables were assessed by the treating physician or derived from the medical records.

EOL fears, EOL expectations and the experience with EOL communication were assessed using a structured interview. The interview topic guide was developed by a group of five clinicians and researchers from different professions with expertise in the field. The interview guideline was piloted with ten palliative cancer patients from the outpatient chemotherapy centre for comprehensibility and content (pretest). The research group decided to deal with potentially stressful topics in a structured interview instead of a questionnaire, as this was considered a more sensitive approach for the patients and caregivers. All interview questions could be answered on a Likert scale from 0 ("not at all") to 4 ("totally agree" or "very much"). Three questions addressed self-determination in EOL care (e.g. "It is important to me to be self-determined."); seven questions were about persons who should decide about EOL care (e.g. "I want decisions about my medical EOL care to be taken only by myself"); six questions addressed expectations of EOL care (e.g. "I expect... emotional release/ practical support/ emotional burden/..."); and five questions were about fears regarding EOL communication (e.g. "I am very afraid of my/ my relatives' last period of life", "I avoid talking about EOL topics"). Moreover, three questions asked if and whom palliative patients and their caregivers had spoken to (in the informal or professional context; choosing from a list of conversation partners, with the option to add a free text). They were then asked whether they had

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2 talked about several prespecified EOL topics, such as: medical care, nursing care, organisational
3 issues, emotional issues, social issues or religiosity/ spirituality. Each of these EOL topics was
4 preceded by a list of examples of what this topic might involve. "Medical care": e.g. treatment of
5 somatic problems like dyspnoea, nausea, pain or maintaining quality of life, living will, life-sustaining
6 treatment, "emotions": e.g. feelings like grief, anger, fear or sadness", "social aspects": e.g.
7 unresolved conflicts, dealing with relatives and friends, saying goodbye, "nursing care": e.g. nursing
8 care while crisis and/or in the last period of life, place of dying, "organisational aspects": e.g.
9 financial and legal issues, life pension, inheritance, or funeral, and "religiosity/spirituality": "talking
10 e.g. about religious beliefs or desires, thoughts about death and the hereafter". Finally, three
11 questions related to the experience of EOL communication ("burdening", "helpful", "satisfying").
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21 Anxiety and depression were measured using the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS,
22 German-Version) [26], which is a commonly used self-administered paper-based questionnaire.
23 Items are rated on a four-point scale and scored from 0 to 3 with a higher score indicating more
24 anxiety/depression. Therefore, total scores for each subscale range from 0 to 21, with a Cronbach's
25 alpha of $\alpha=.81$ for the anxiety-scale and $\alpha=.69$ for the depression scale.
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31 **Patient and Public Involvement**

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34 During the interview development process, ten patients were asked in a pretest about the interview
35 schedule (priorities, experience, and preferences). Moreover, during the pretest, patients were
36 asked to assess the burden of the interview/ questionnaire and time required to participate in the
37 research. Patients and the public were not otherwise involved in the design and planning of the
38 study.
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48 **Data analysis**

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50 Analyses were performed using SPSS 26 (SPSS Inc. IBM, Chicago, Illinois, USA), with statistical
51 significance set at $p < .05$. The data were screened for univariate outliers, missing data and violations
52 to the assumptions of analysis. Missing data at random (2.1%) were imputed using multiple
53 imputation. To analyse expectations, fears and experiences of EOL communication in palliative
54 cancer patients and caregivers, and to control for possible influences of demographic and clinical
55 characteristics, (multivariate) analysis of covariance (MANOVA and MANCOVA) and univariate
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2 analysis of covariance (ANOVA) were conducted. For categorical data, chi-square tests were used.
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4 Pearson correlations were used to analyse relationships between variables. Further details are
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6 reported in the results section.
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8 RESULTS

9 Participants

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14 A total of 165 palliative patients were eligible, of which 76 (46.1%) refused to participate. The most
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16 common reasons for refusal were fear of emotional burden ($n=32$, 42.1%), physical exhaustion
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18 ($n=15$, 19.7%), and the patient not wanting to talk about this topic ($n=11$, 14.5%). Of the 143 eligible
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20 caregivers of these patients, 68 (47.6%) participated. Caregivers refused participation because of a
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22 fear of emotional burden ($n=25$, 32.5%) and effort ($n=18$, 32.4%). In addition, four patients (4.49%)
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24 and two caregivers (2.94%) discontinued their participation due to problems of a physical (e.g. pain)
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26 or organisational nature. Thus, the final sample consisted of 85 palliative cancer patients and 66
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28 caregivers. Demographic and clinical characteristics of the study participants are listed in Table 1.
29

30 **Table 1**

31 Who should decide about end-of-life care?

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35 The item “It is important to me to be self-determined” was agreed to by 95.3 percent of patients
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37 and 92.4 percent of caregivers. Moreover, 89.3 percent of patients and 89.1 percent of caregivers
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39 agreed with the item: “The right to self-determination must be valid beyond death” ($V=.98$,
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41 $F(2,145)=0.143$, $p=.869$, $\eta_p^2=.002$). In a MANOVA, there were no significant differences between
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43 patients and caregivers regarding self-determination. To specify who should decide about EOL care
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45 and to analyse possible differences between patients and caregivers, a MANOVA with the between-
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47 subject factor ‘status’ and seven different degrees of personal involvement in decisions about EOL
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49 care (see Figure 1) as dependent variables was conducted. No significant effect of status ($V=.97$,
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51 $F(7,143)=0.615$, $p=.743$, $\eta_p^2=.029$) was found. Thus, patients and their caregivers reported the same
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53 preferences, that patients, their caregivers and physicians should participate in a shared decision-
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55 making process about EOL care.
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57 **Figure 1**

58 Expectations of end-of-life discussions

To analyse differences in expectations of EOL communication in the professional versus the informal context among palliative cancer patients and their caregivers, a MANOVA with the between-subject factor 'status', the within-subject factor 'context' and six different expectations of EOL fears as dependent variables was conducted (Figure 2). No significant effect of status ($V=.93$, $F(6,144)=1.757$, $p=.112$, $\eta_p^2=.068$) was found, but a significant effect of context was seen ($V=.94$, $F(6,144)=65.806$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.733$). Subsequent univariate analyses showed a higher score for the expectation of emotional relief ($F(1,149)=46.115$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.236$) and the expectation of practical support ($F(1,149)=38.665$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.206$) in the informal context than in the professional context. Moreover, univariate analyses showed a significant higher score in the expectation of negative emotions ($F(1,149)=54.820$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.269$) and in the expectation regarding the emotional burden of the other person ($F(1,149)=316.958$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.680$) in the informal context than in the professional context. There were no context effects on the expectations of refusal ($F(1,149)=0.194$, $p=.118$, $\eta_p^2=.016$) or wishes not being respected ($F(1,149)=0.131$, $p=.320$, $\eta_p^2=.007$).

Thus, palliative cancer patients and their caregivers reported a higher tendency to expect emotional relief and practical support from communication with their family and friends than from communication with professionals. On the other hand, they reported higher expectations of negative emotions and burdening the other person in informal communication than in communication with professionals. The results remained stable after controlling for possible confounders such as age and gender.

****Figure 2****

End-of-life fears

In a MANOVA with the between-subject factor status and five different aspects of EOL fears as dependent variables, a significant effect of status ($V=.72$, $F(5,143)=10.963$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.277$) was found. A subsequent univariate analysis showed a generally higher score for the wish to avoid topics of death and dying in patients ($F(1,148)=4.623$, $p=.033$, $\eta_p^2=.030$) than in caregivers. Moreover, univariate analyses showed a significantly higher score for "I am very afraid of the last period of my/my relative's life" ($F(1,148)=42.279$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.223$) and for "I am afraid to talk about EOL topics" ($F(1,148)=7.702$, $p=.006$, $\eta_p^2=.050$) in caregivers than in patients. There were no status effects on the reported aspects "Thoughts about death and dying are burdening for me" ($F(1,148)=1.219$, $p=.419$, $\eta_p^2=.004$) or "I avoid talking about EOL topics" ($F(1,148)=.782$, $p=.378$, $\eta_p^2=.005$). Patients reported a higher tendency to avoid topics of death and dying in general,

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2 whereas caregivers reported higher anxiety scores (Figure 3). The results remained stable after
3
4 controlling for possible confounders such as age and gender.
5

6 7 **Evaluation of end-of-life communication**

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9 Patients and caregivers were asked if they had spoken about EOL topics and with whom. Results
10 showed that the majority of patients and caregivers had talked about the patient's last period of
11 life, but 22.7 percent of patients and 16.7 percent of caregivers had not. The results are shown in
12 Table 2. There were no differences between caregivers and patients in the distribution of EOL
13 communication ($\chi^2(4,1)=6.352$; $p=.174$). Most patients and caregivers had talked about these
14 themes in an informal context (55.3% and 71.2%). Main topics were medical care and emotions.
15 Nevertheless, caregivers talked more often about nursing care ($\chi^2(4,1)=7.930$; $p=.005$) and social
16 aspects ($\chi^2(1)=11.465$; $p<.001$) than patients. Moreover, the majority of patients found the
17 communication helpful or very helpful (51.3%) or more or less helpful (30.3%), and satisfying or very
18 satisfying (49.5%) or more or less satisfying (30.3%). There were no significant differences for
19 caregivers ($\chi^2(4,1)=1.574$; $p=.814$) and patients ($\chi^2(4,1)=5.228$; $p=.265$). Of the caregivers, 48.4
20 percent found the communication helpful or very helpful and 31.8 percent more or less helpful,
21 while 53.1 percent found the communication satisfying and 34.8 percent more or less satisfying.
22 Significant differences were seen in terms of emotional burden of communication ($\chi^2(4,1)=15.160$;
23 $p=.004$), with 26.4 percent of caregivers rating communication as burdening or very burdening, and
24 34 percent as more or less burdening, while only 9.1 percent of the palliative cancer patients
25 evaluated communication as burdening or very burdening, and 31.8 percent as more or less
26 burdening.
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43 ****Table 2****

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49 **Associations between expectations, fears and experiences**

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51 Table 3 shows the cross-sectional correlations between the expectations, fears and experiences of
52 patients and caregivers. As expected, positive experiences are associated with positive expectations
53 and negative experiences (burden of the conversation) are associated with negative expectations
54 and fears.
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60 **DISCUSSION**

1
2 The study investigated the expectations and concerns of palliative cancer patients and caregivers
3 regarding end-of-life communication. A large majority of the participants wish to be self-determined
4 regarding EOL issues and death. Patients and caregivers unanimously wished that they should
5 decide about EOL care together with physicians. Overall, participants reported more positive than
6 negative expectations of EOL communication. Importantly, concerns about emotionally burdening
7 other people with EOL communication was rated much higher in an informal context (e.g. with
8 caregivers and/or significant others) than with professionals, even though the emotional relief was
9 expected to be higher in the informal context than in a professional context. Caregivers reported
10 more fears about the last period of life as well as talking about it, whereas palliative patients tended
11 to avoid the topic of death and dying to a greater extent than their caregivers.
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21 In line with earlier research [27, 28], we found that three out of four patients with advanced cancer
22 had talked about the last period of life. We found no significant differences between patients and
23 caregivers. This means they chose to engage or not to engage in EOL discussions similarly.
24 Remarkably, 22.6 percent of the palliative patients had never spoken to anybody about their end of
25 life; additionally, it is not clear what “rarely” meant in each individual case. Nevertheless, the
26 frequency of EOL communication needed by patients and their carers can be highly individual and
27 variable. For some, repetitive conversations about the same existential dilemma or concern are
28 valuable, can support a person's decision-making process significantly and include parting, grieving
29 and leaving behind. For others, it can be important to clarify issues and make decisions so that they
30 can then focus on matters of life at other times. A helpful framework can be the concept of double
31 awareness [29]. Double awareness is the flexibility of mind between life awareness and death
32 awareness and the possibility of simultaneously switching and tolerating the ambivalence of life and
33 death [29]. Moreover, different EOL topics might be of relevance at different times or situations: in
34 one time, emotions as grieving and leaving behind can be in the front, whereas in other
35 conversations organizational or care-related topics are the ones to look at.
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50 However, a significant proportion of patients had not communicated about EOL decisions and a
51 large proportion of caregivers were not adequately informed. In this light, the difference in
52 expectations between the informal context and the professional context observed in this study is of
53 distinct importance.
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58 The most notable result is that the interviewed persons expected substantial personal relief when
59 openly talking about EOL issues in an informal context but expected the other person to be
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1
2 burdened by such a conversion. Notably, this 'self-other' asymmetry applies to both groups, the
3 palliative care patients and the caregivers. This asymmetry was not found in the professional context.
4 On the one hand, persons expect more emotional relief and practical support from communication
5 with loved ones, pointing out the importance and high relevance of informal caregivers in the sense
6 of building a unit of care [1]. On the other hand, concerns about causing negative emotions and
7 burdening the other person were dramatically higher in the informal than in the professional
8 context. Emotion-related factors such as protective buffering can be relevant barriers to EOL
9 communication [11]. The belief that it will hurt the other person to address death and dying seems
10 to be very salient and a relevant barrier to EOL communication. Further research exploring possible
11 interventions involving the dyadic perspective as unit of analysis would be worthwhile [30].
12 However, in a professional context, this strong barrier seems to be remarkably lower. Consequently,
13 it seems to be almost mandatory for professionals to initiate and foster EOL communication instead
14 of waiting for initiation by the patient. This way the issue can be placed on a professional level,
15 which might be easier to bear.
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18 Overall, patients and their caregivers reported more positive than negative expectations of EOL
19 communication. Given the high psychological burden of emotional stress and uncertainty due to the
20 tense situation, the fact that positive expectations exceeded negative ones seems very promising.
21 Specifically, expected emotional relief and increased support from communication could serve as
22 motivating factors to initiate EOL communication. Moreover, the results show that expectations of
23 experiencing negative emotions are correlated with EOL fears and the tendency to avoid talking.
24 This is not surprising because avoidance is a very common reaction to fear and is part of the
25 classification systems of phobias (e.g. thanatophobia) [18]. Therefore, another possible explanation
26 for the first observation might be that a decisive proportion of those who had reservations towards
27 communication about death and dying did not participate in this study, resulting in a biased sample.
28 Of the persons who declined to participate, 42.1 percent did so out of fear of the emotional burden
29 and 14.5 percent because the person did not want to talk about this topic. The high refusal rate
30 seems to be a common problem in research on EOL topics. In another study with healthy
31 participants, a similar phenomenon was found: those with higher scores for death anxiety were
32 more likely to drop out [31]. For future research, it would be meaningful to find a way to include
33 those people who are afraid and not open to the topic. Possibly extremely short and low-threshold
34 questionnaires or interviews and short interventions addressing the person's expectations could be
35 helpful.
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2 The finding of significant correlations between expectations and experiences supports the
3 importance of learning processes in the development of expectations [32]. Thus, if someone
4 experienced positive end-of-life communication in the past, he/she will probably expect positive
5 communication on these topics in the future. Moreover, a vicious circle can occur whereby a
6 negative experience entails negative expectations which in turn lead to negative experiences in
7 terms of a nocebo effect [33]. Further research examining the role of expectations in EOL
8 communication in a longitudinal way could address the causal relationship between the two
9 constructs. In a next step, interventions could be developed that aim to optimise expectations [34,
10 35].

11
12 Interestingly, in some areas caregivers are even more affected than patients such as anxiety levels
13 for both EOL fears and state anxiety. This is congruent with the prior findings of Leroy et al. [36]
14 showing that caregivers of advanced cancer patients tend to be more anxious than patients, with
15 prevalences of 32–72 percent [37–39]. Caregivers suffer from high levels of distress, emotional
16 burden and unmet needs [31]; thus it is relevant to incorporate dyadic programmes [40]. Alongside
17 communication about death and dying, there are other typical problems faced by families of
18 advanced cancer patients such as dealing with feelings of separation and loss, role overload, the
19 need to conceal feelings, feelings of isolation, fatigue and exhaustion, and feelings of inadequacy
20 regarding necessary skills [41]. Therefore, as a clinical implication, we suggest that a holistic high
21 quality EOL care approach should not only focus on patients but also provide as much support as
22 possible for caregivers and close friends .

23
24 Some limitations must be considered when interpreting the results of this study. Firstly, the items
25 used in the semi-structured interview in this study were developed by the investigators and were
26 not based on a validated instrument. Nevertheless, most research in this area has been qualitative,
27 so this study can be a helpful addition to the existing research. Secondly, the study was cross-
28 sectional, showing only correlations but no causal associations between expectations, fears and
29 experiences. It would be worthwhile to evaluate these associations in further longitudinal studies.
30 Thirdly, most of the caregivers were female. Further studies with a balanced gender distribution
31 would be valuable. Finally, due to the high refusal rate, it cannot be excluded that the results are
32 influenced by selection bias. Thus, the results cannot be transferred to other populations.
33 Nevertheless, the fact that many people refused study participation due to fear of emotional burden
34 underlines the importance of the topic and the relevance of expectations.

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To conclude, there seems to exist a 'self-other' asymmetry: palliative patients and their caregivers expect substantial personal relief when openly talking about end-of-life issues, but also expect other people to be burdened by such conversations. Professionals repeatedly need to initiate end-of-life communication to help families speaking about end-of-life issues.

For peer review only

Availability of data and materials

The datasets generated and analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Ethical approval

The study was approved by the institutional review board of the Medical School, Philipps-University of Marburg (AZ:47/12). This study was performed in line with the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki.

Consent to participate

Written informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

Consent for publication

Participants signed informed consent regarding publishing their data in an anonymous form.

Contributors

CS, WR, YN, US and JRK planned the study and revised the manuscript, HJF accomplished the interviews, MH, PvB and CS supervised the study, PvB conducted the analysis, interpreted the data, drafted the article.

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Competing interests

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare that are relevant to the content of this article.

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2 **Figure legends**
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5 Figure 1. Persons who should decide about end-of-life care
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7 Figure 2. Expectations of end-of-life discussions among cancer patients and caregivers in an informal versus a
8 professional context
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11 Figure 3. End-of-life fears among cancer patients and caregivers
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For peer review only

Table 1. Sociodemographic and medical data of the study sample

| Variables | | Patients (N=85) | Caregivers (N=66) | Group Differences |
|----------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| | | N (%) / M (SD) | N (%) / M (SD) | t- / χ^2 - Value |
| Age in years | | 62.8 (11.4) | 56.3 (12.7) | 3.24, $p=.002$ |
| Gender (male) | | 56 (65.9%) | 19 (28.8%) | 20.45, $p<.001$ |
| Years of education | 9 | 52 (61.2%) | 33 (50%) | 3.442, $p=.328$ |
| | 10 | 15 (17.9%) | 18 (27.3%) | |
| | 12-13 | 16 (18.8%) | 15 (22.7%) | |
| Working Status | Working | 4 (4.8 %) | 39 (59.1%) | 64.85, $p<.001$ |
| | Disability pension | 16 (18.8 %) | 3 (4.7%) | |
| | Pension | 37 (43.5 %) | 15 (23.4 %) | |
| | On sick leave | 21 (24.7 %) | 1 (1.6 %) | |
| | Unemployed | 1 (1.2 %) | 3 (4.7 %) | |
| | Housewife/man | 5 (5.9 %) | 3 (4.7 %) | |
| Family Status | Married | 53 (62.4 %) | 48 (72.7%) | 9.278. $p=.026$ |
| | Divorced | 14 (16.5 %) | 3 (4.5%) | |
| | Single | 7 (8.2 %) | 11 (16.7%) | |
| | Widowed | 11 (12.9 %) | 4 (6.1%) | |
| | Living together with partner (yes) | 62 (72.9 %) | 55 (83.3%) | |
| | Children (yes) | 73 (85.9 %) | 53 (80.3%) | |
| Religious Confession | Catholic | 15 (17.6 %) | 11 (16.7 %) | 1.244, $p=.742$ |
| | Protestant | 55 (64.7 %) | 45 (68.2 %) | |
| | Other | 2 (2.4 %) | 3 (4.5 %) | |
| | None | 13 (15.4 %) | 7 (10.6 %) | |
| Relation to Patient | Partner | | 44 (66.7 %) | |
| | Son/ Daughter | | 15 (22.7 %) | |
| | Parent | | 1 (1.5 %) | |
| | Other | | 6 (9.1 %) | |
| Tumor group | Lung | 25 (29.4 %) | | |
| | Gastro-intestinal | 14 (16.5 %) | | |
| | Hepatobiliary | 3 (3.5 %) | | |
| | Urogenital | 8 (9.4 %) | | |
| | Gynecological | 7 (8.2 %) | | |
| | ENT (ear, nose, throat) | 2 (2.4 %) | | |

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|-----------------|---------------------------------|-------------|-------------|------------------|
| | Brain tumor/ Medulloblastome | 4 (4.7 %) | | |
| | Haematological | 10 (11.8 %) | | |
| | Other | 12 (14.1 %) | | |
| Treatment | Chemotherapy | 72 (84.7 %) | - | |
| | Radiation | 49 (57.6 %) | - | |
| | Surgery | 43 (50.6 %) | - | |
| HADS Depression | | 5.64 (3.21) | 6.67 (3.09) | -1.971, $p=.051$ |
| HADS Anxiety | | 5.83 (3.49) | 8.97 (3.63) | -5.368, $p<.001$ |

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Table 2. Communication partner in end-of-life communication

| End-of-life communication | | Patients (n=84) | Caregivers (n=65) | |
|--|---------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|------------|
| Have you spoken about (your/his/her) last period-of life? | A lot | 3 (3.5%) | 5 (7.6%) | |
| | Frequently | 10 (11.8%) | 16 (24.4%) | |
| | From time to time | 31 (36.5%) | 22 (33.3%) | |
| | Rarely | 21 (24.7%) | 11 (16.7%) | |
| | Never | 19 (22.4%) | 11 (16.7%) | |
| In which Context did you talk about end-of-life topics? | Professional Context | Physician | 26 (30.6%) | 25 (37.9%) |
| | | Nurse | 2 (2.4%) | 7 (10.6%) |
| | | Pastor | 10 (11.8%) | 4 (6.1%) |
| | | Psychologist | 4 (4.7%) | 5 (7.6%) |
| | Informal Context | Family | 47 (55.3%) | 47 (71.2%) |
| | | Partner | 45 (52.9%) | 43 (65.2%) |
| | | Friends | 30 (35.3%) | 30 (55.6%) |
| | | Other patients | 5 (5.9%) | 10 (15.2%) |
| | | With the patient himself | - | 45 (68.2%) |
| | | - | - | - |
| What kind of topics have you spoken about? | Medical Care | 49 (57.6%) | 47 (71.2%) | |
| | Nursing Care | 34 (40.0%) | 42 (63.6%) | |
| | Religiosity/ Spirituality | 23 (27.1%) | 27 (40.9%) | |
| | Organizational aspects | 54 (23.5%) | 46 (69.7%) | |
| | Emotions | 42 (49.4%) | 46 (69.7%) | |
| | Social aspects | 24 (28.2%) | 37 (56.1%) | |

Table 3. Correlations between the expectations, fears and experiences in patients and caregivers

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
|--|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|
| Expectations | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 emotional relief | - | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 practical support | .777** | - | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 negative emotions | .099 | -.008 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4 refusal | -.046 | -.150 | .344** | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 5 my wishes not to be respected | -.072 | -.175* | .173* | .645** | - | | | | | | | | |
| 6 emotional burden of the other person | .024 | .039 | .441** | .166* | .175* | - | | | | | | | |
| Fears | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7 avoidance of the topic | -.066 | -.85 | .090 | -.063 | .017 | 0.64 | - | | | | | | |
| 8 thoughts are burdening | .045 | -.044 | .375** | .064 | .079 | .286** | .376** | - | | | | | |
| 9 very afraid of eol | .136 | -.015 | .383** | .129 | .036 | .187* | .029 | .387** | - | | | | |
| 10 afraid of talking | .096 | .040 | .502** | .240** | .162* | .210 | .139 | .280** | .465** | - | | | |
| 11 avoidance of talking | .013 | .036 | .256** | .138 | .100 | .222** | .374** | .348** | .168* | .516** | - | | |
| Experiences | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 12 burdening | -.005 | -.102 | .499** | .302** | .177 | .232* | .017 | .382** | .478** | .438** | .209* | - | |
| 13 helpful | .362** | .320** | -.104 | -.127 | -.111 | .061 | -.331** | -.130 | .012 | -.232* | -.316** | -.247** | - |
| 14 satisfied | .232* | .211* | -.156 | -.183* | -.203* | -.049 | -.129 | -.048 | -.048 | -.081 | -.053 | -.419** | .506** |

Note. *p<.05, **p<.01, (n=118-151)

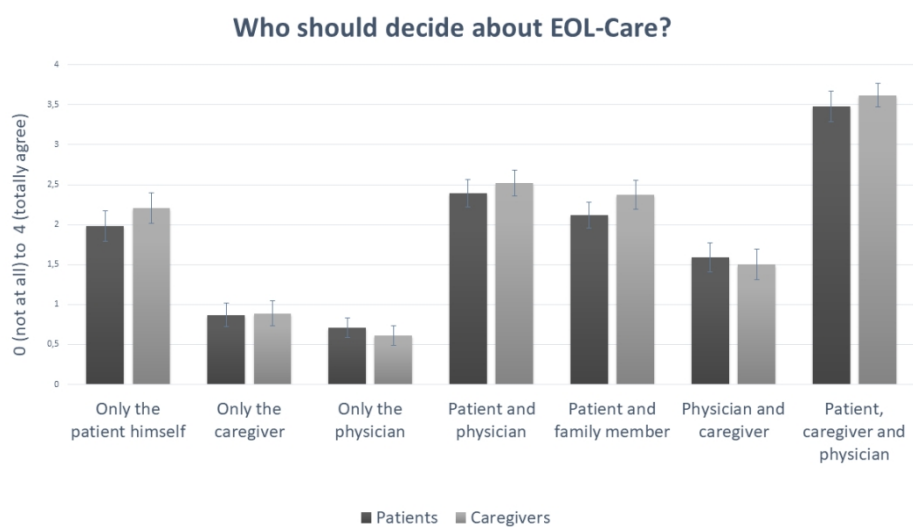


Figure 1. Persons who should decide about end-of-life care

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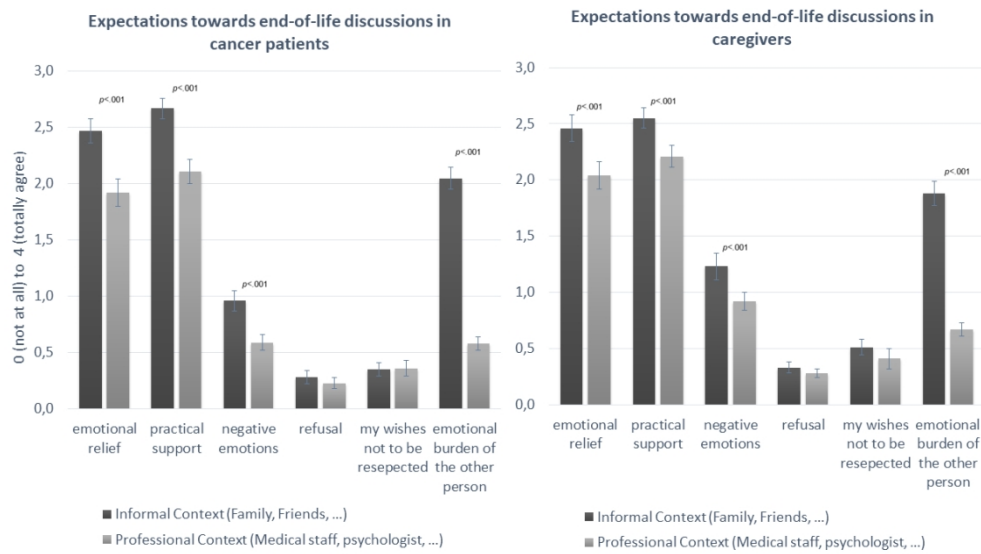


Figure 2. Expectations of end-of-life discussions among cancer patients and caregivers in an informal versus a professional context

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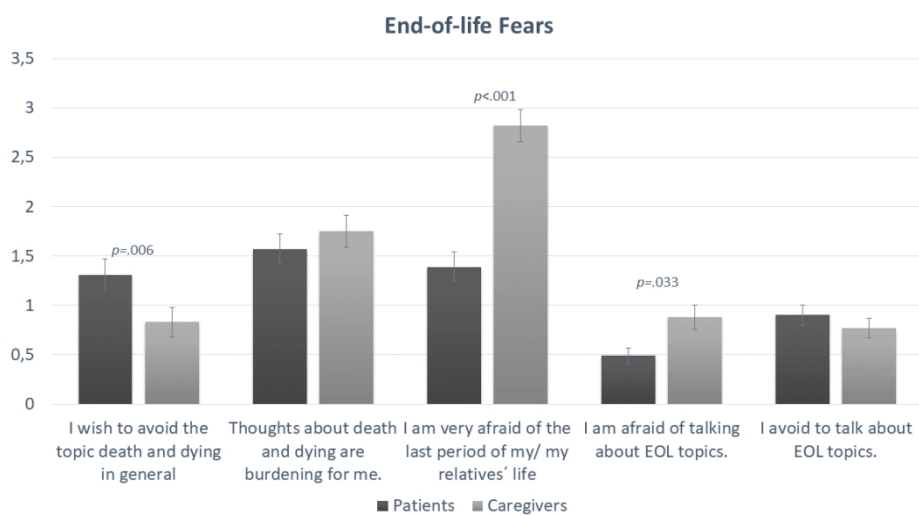


Figure 3. End-of-life fears among cancer patients and caregivers

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STROBE Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of *cohort studies*

| | Item No | Recommendation | Page No |
|------------------------------|---------|--|---------|
| Title and abstract | 1 | (a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract (b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found | 3 3 |
| Introduction | | | |
| Background/rationale | 2 | Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported | 4f |
| Objectives | 3 | State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses | 5 |
| Methods | | | |
| Study design | 4 | Present key elements of study design early in the paper | 5 |
| Setting | 5 | Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection | 5 |
| Participants | 6 | (a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants. Describe methods of follow-up (b) For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and unexposed | 5 |
| Variables | 7 | Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable | 5f |
| Data sources/ measurement | 8* | For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group | 5 |
| Bias | 9 | Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias | 6 |
| Study size | 10 | Explain how the study size was arrived at | 6 |
| Quantitative variables | 11 | Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why | 6 |
| Statistical methods | 12 | (a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for confounding (b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions (c) Explain how missing data were addressed (d) If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up was addressed (e) Describe any sensitivity analyses | 6 |
| Results | | | |
| Participants | 13* | (a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed (b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage (c) Consider use of a flow diagram | 6 |
| Descriptive data | 14* | (a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential confounders (b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest (c) Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount) | Table 1 |
| Outcome data | 15* | Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time | 7ff |

| | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|----|---|---------------------------------------|
| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 | Main results | 16 | (a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included (b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized (c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period | 6-9, Table 2, and Figures |
| 10 11 12 | Other analyses | 17 | Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses | Table 3 |
| 13 | Discussion | | | |
| 14 | Key results | 18 | Summarise key results with reference to study objectives | 9 |
| 15 16 17 | Limitations | 19 | Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias | 12 |
| 18 19 | Interpretation | 20 | Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence | 9-12 |
| 20 21 | Generalisability | 21 | Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results | 12 |
| 22 | Other information | | | |
| 23 24 25 | Funding | 22 | Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based | 13 |

*Give information separately for exposed and unexposed groups.

Note: An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at <http://www.plosmedicine.org/>, Annals of Internal Medicine at <http://www.annals.org/>, and Epidemiology at <http://www.epidem.com/>). Information on the STROBE Initiative is available at <http://www.strobe-statement.org>.