NEGATIVE EXPERIENCES OF ENCOUNTERS IN HEALTHCARE

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To my family
ABSTRACT

A positive encounter is essential to the provision of qualitative healthcare. Experiences of negative encounters in healthcare may affect the patient’s wellbeing and health, and have a negative effect on the patient’s trust in the healthcare system. The overall aim of this thesis was to gain new knowledge about negative experiences of encounters in Swedish healthcare and, based on this knowledge, suggest potential measures to reduce or prevent such experiences. The thesis consists of four different studies:

STUDY I
Aim: To investigate patients’ experiences of not being treated well in medical healthcare in Stockholm County, Sweden. Methods: Systematic review of complaints of negative encounters to Patientnämnden in Stockholm registered in 2006 and 2007. The complaints were subjected to qualitative content analysis by categorization, and a complementary snapshot review of complaints on medical treatment was conducted. Results: The most common types of complaints were “rude, aggressive or arrogant behaviour”, followed by “being ignored, not listened to, or being taken seriously”. One third of the complaints about “medical treatment” also contained complaints about negative encounters. Women were found to complain on negative encounters more frequently than men.

STUDY II
Aim: To examine how long-term sick-listed persons perceive healthcare encounters, with special emphasis on negative encounters and feeling wronged. Methods: Postal questionnaire to 10 042 long-term sick-listed persons. Statistical analysis of Attributable Risk (AR) with 95% CI. Results: Response rate 58%. 1 628 of the respondents had experiences of negative encounters in healthcare, and of these 1 036 reported also having felt wronged. Types of negative encounters with highest AR for feeling wronged were “nonchalant behaviour” and “treated me with disrespect”. Men reported higher AR for feeling wronged than women, as did respondents with psychiatric diagnoses compared to other patients. Feeling wronged seems to be an outcome based on accumulated experiences of negative encounters.

STUDY III
Aim: To gain an improved understanding of experiences of negative healthcare encounters in the general population. Methods: Postal questionnaire to a sample of 1 484 inhabitants of Stockholm County. Conventional content analysis of data from open-ended questions. Results: Response rate 62.1%. 17 different types of complaints about negative encounters were identified and two comprehensive explanatory factors were established: “structure and allocation of healthcare” and “the staff’s attitudes and professional practice”.

STUDY IV
Aim: To investigate the hypothesis that complaints of adverse events related to encounters with healthcare personnel are underreported, and to identify barriers to filing such complaints. Methods: Postal questionnaire to a sample of 1 484 inhabitants of Stockholm County. Statistical analysis of proportions and OR with CI: 95%, and minor qualitative content analysis by categorization. Results: Response rate 62.1%. Patient complaints about negative encounters were found to be under-reported. The main barriers for filing complaints were “did not have the strength” or “did not know where to turn”, or that “it makes no difference anyway”. Experiences of negative encounters were also found to have a negative impact on people’s trust in healthcare.
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AR  Attributable Risk
CI  Confidence Intervals
HSAN  Hälso- och sjukvårdens ansvarsnämnd
OR  Odds Ratio
PaN  Patientnämnden (Patient’s Advisory Committee)
RTW  Return to work

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When I introduce myself and my field of research to new people I am always astonished by the many personal stories I am told about negative healthcare encounters. Many times I have also been surprised by the openness with which these situations are described, by persons who as yet are strangers to me. Their stories are often intimate, at times emotional, and sometimes they clearly transgress common social norms regarding social interaction between people who are not close relatives or friends. Not everyone wants to share experiences, but many are curious or wish to express their opinion in the matter. Clearly, the subject of healthcare encounters gives rise to an interest beyond the academic and seems to affect people emotionally.

The reason I became involved in research about healthcare encounters is that I believe that this is part of what constitutes the foundation for a secure, efficient and humane healthcare system. It may seem obvious to some, but increased complaints about how patients are encountered indicates that this view might not be shared by all. In this thesis I wish to expand the level of existing knowledge in the field, and to some extent discuss underlying factors which may lead to negative experiences of healthcare encounters. Most of the studies included in the thesis were conducted in Stockholm County, but many of the research topics and findings may just as well be relevant in other contexts. I hope that this thesis will serve as a reminder of how important the healthcare encounter can be and also offer some guidance on how to prevent negative experiences of encounters. If this should lead to at least one less future complaint, I believe my research to have proven its value.
1 BACKGROUND

The topic of this thesis is one that almost everyone can relate to. We have all been in contact with healthcare in one way or another and we all expect to be taken care of when we get ill, at least in countries maintaining a fairly comprehensive public healthcare system such as Sweden, which is also the country at the centre of this thesis.

Every year, there are more than 65 million healthcare visits in Sweden, and the majority take place in primary care. About 16 million of them occur in Stockholm County, which is also the region with the highest number of healthcare visits per person: on average a citizen of Stockholm visits healthcare 8 times per year. The national average is 6.9 healthcare visits.\(^1\) Most of the time these meetings proceed well and the patient in question feel adequately treated and satisfied with the encounter.

Most people also seem to have a high level of trust in the healthcare system and the persons working within it. A recent survey in Sweden has shown that a majority state to have confidence in physicians (79%) and nurses (84%).\(^2\) This positive attitude towards healthcare staff is, however, not limited to Sweden. Similar results have been obtained also in a comprehensive cross-national survey conducted in India, the USA, Brazil, Colombia, and 15 European countries, which confirms a generally high level of confidence in healthcare professionals, only exceeded by confidence in firefighters and teachers (average for all countries).\(^3\)

Returning to Sweden – more specifically, to the capital city of Stockholm – there is also, according to an annual survey conducted by the County Council (SLL), confidence in that the generally positive opinion of the organization of healthcare show a rising trend.\(^4\) In 2010 about 86% of a sample of citizens responded that they were pleased or very pleased with healthcare in Stockholm. And according to the report, the prospects of a further positive rise in public confidence are rated good.\(^4\) Yet, every year, the number of complaints concerning different aspects of healthcare increases.\(^5\)

1.1 THE HEALTHCARE ENCOUNTER

It is important to receive adequate treatment when ill, but this is not the only thing that affects the patients’ experience of the healthcare services. Another important aspect is a good relation between the patient and the caregiver. To many, this statement may seem evident: in most societies and social situations you are expected to treat other individuals with respect and consideration, and, arguably, at least by a virtue-ethics-
oriented person, if you fail in this you fail in your basic duty as a human being. In Swedish healthcare a respectful encounter is actually a formal requirement, based on the principle of universal human equality. However, there might be those who oppose such a view, maintaining that the only thing of relevance is receiving adequate medical treatment. The behaviour of healthcare staff is of minor importance, or none at all, and likewise the patient’s possibility to participate in decisions regarding their own care is considered as of lesser importance. Possibly, this view can sometimes also be held by caregivers. We have, after all, a long tradition of paternalistic medical practice, and it is not unthinkable that some parts of this tradition may still prevail in some settings, although attitudes have changed dramatically during the last century.

Either way, the great majority of the population in Stockholm seems to have positive experiences of encounters with healthcare professionals. Examples of what aspects characterizes a positive encounter is being listened to, being taken seriously, and being met with empathy, all of which are acclaimed social factors in most social settings. I will return to this below.

A noticeable trend in Sweden is that the term “kränkt” (wronged) has become increasingly common in the public discourse as well as in relation to healthcare encounters. For example, compared with ten years ago, police complaints regarding defamation (ärekränkning) have almost doubled; in 2002 there were 6 389 complaints compared to 11 508 complaints during 2011. A suggested explanation for this vast increase is that many reports can be put down to the increased use of internet forums and social media where people can communicate while remaining confidential. Probably more social transgressions and attacks will occur in a forum where the offender is not easily held responsible for such statements, compared to the non-virtual world. However, the internet alone does not explain the increased number of reports of feeling wronged, nor does it explain why the occurrence of such complaints is increasing in the healthcare setting.

Negative experiences of encounters in healthcare may be more common than we think. At least, this is the impression conveyed in recurrent media reports of poor conditions and patients’ testimonies concerning abusive and disrespectful treatment in healthcare. If this is true, does it mean that patients are being treated in a more negative manner today? Complaints on negative healthcare encounters is arguably a valuable source of information about patients’ experiences of Swedish healthcare, and
by learning more about them we can add to the foundation for a continuously high-
qualitative healthcare system in Sweden.

Although the field of research regarding healthcare encounters is expanding, still
little is known about how the general public perceives healthcare encounters per se. The
overall aim of this project is to learn more about peoples’ experiences of negative
encounters by studying descriptions of encounters in Swedish healthcare. The studies
included in this thesis are focused on the perspective of the patient, and does
accordingly not problematize the acts and behaviours of patients that may also affect
how the encounter evolves.

Moreover, this is a thesis originating in Medical Ethics, which enables a normative
discussion, i.e. a discussion of moral conceptions and ethical positions in relation to the
healthcare encounter.

1.2 THE SWEDISH HEALTHCARE SYSTEM: THE PATIENT IN THE
CENTER

In a historical context, patients, with few exceptions, have not enjoyed the same status
as they do today. The patient–physician relationship in particular has traditionally been
characterized by an unequal power balance, whereby physicians have often made
medical decisions on behalf of the patient, without conferring with the patient or asking
for consent.8,22

The asymmetric power relation is in some respects an inevitable feature of healthcare,
partly since patients are weakened by their condition and partly since healthcare
professionals possess medical knowledge that patients do not.23 In Sweden, however,
demands for strengthening of the patients’ position have been reinforced during the past
decades.24–27 The contemporary healthcare legislation stipulates that “Care shall be
provided with respect for the equal worth of all persons and for human dignity” and
“founded on respect for patient autonomy and integrity”7 (author’s translation). Thus, a
respectful encounter is a clearly defined requirement in healthcare. Swedish healthcare
nowadays requires that patients, to the extent that they are capable, be invited to
participate in decisions about their own care.28 The patients’ right to understandable
information has been highlighted as a main factor in achieving this. It has also been
stressed that the provider of the information needs to control and confirm that the
information has been properly understood.29
So, the role of today’s healthcare provider entails ensuring that the patient is well informed, so that he or she can make informed choices, and supplying the kind of information the patient needs and requests. The healthcare provider also needs to find out as much about the patient’s condition as possible in order to determine the right diagnosis, at the same time as he or she must be careful not to violate the patient’s integrity with the questions asked. For the caregiver it is sometimes difficult to know how to approach the patient; some patients want to have all available information and actively control each step of their way through the healthcare system, other patients prefer to leave all decisions to the physician or nurse treating them, while most patients end up somewhere in between.30, 31 Some patients are comfortable with openly sharing sensitive details about themselves, while others are not. These examples are but a few of many factors characterizing the complex interplay between the healthcare provider and the patient and which may cause misunderstandings, but they illustrate well the complicated nature of the healthcare encounter.

One can assume that many conflicts between patients and healthcare providers are never “detected” by a third party or officially registered. Many patients lack the energy or interest to proceed with their case once they are well again, and prefer perhaps simply to avoid that particular caregiver in the future. Others patients have complained at the site, and the compliant have been managed by the persons responsible once the problem has been revealed. Such complaints also escape official registration.

1.2.1 Reporting complaints
1.2.1.1 Socialstyrelsen, HSAN, and Patientförsäkringen
To complain about healthcare, the patient is primarily advised to contact the manager of the department of the hospital or clinic where the incident occurred. The department concerned is required to investigate the claim. However, there are also a number of official agencies to which the patient can turn. These public agencies have the mission to develop and maintain quality in healthcare, and great efforts have been made to build supportive systems that assist patients in reporting malpractices and adverse events. For complaints regarding health inquiry or patient safety one can contact Socialstyrelsen (the National Board of Health and Welfare, henceforth referred to in Swedish) for investigation of the event. Socialstyrelsen may forward the claim to HSAN (Hälso- och sjukvårdens ansvarsnämnd, the Medical Responsibility Board) if it requires legal examination. HSAN was set up in 1980 and has the authority to withdraw a physician’s
licence to practise or to adjudge suspension if the defendant is convicted. The patient may also turn to the Swedish Patient Insurance (In Swedish: Patientförsäkringen) for financial compensation if they are injured in healthcare.

1.2.1.2 **Patientnämnden**

For complaints about encounters, the patient or the patient’s family members have since 1999 been referred to The Patients Advisory Committee (Patientnämnden (PaN); henceforth referred to in Swedish). The function of PaN is to assist and support individual patients by conveying their complaints to the appointed caregiver or clinic and to manage their responses, which then are conveyed to the complainant. More specifically, PaN’s mission is to maintain quality and high patient safety in health care by

- providing information,
- promoting contacts between patients and healthcare professionals,
- guiding patients to the right authority,
- reporting deviations and observations of importance for patients to the healthcare providers and healthcare units in question.

PaN is an independent and impartial institution at county level with a proactive emphasis. PaN is not authorized to award penalties, but will mediate between the patient and the healthcare professional. The healthcare professional is obliged to respond to the complaint, and according to PaN, about 80% of the complaints are settled after a first response has been communicated.

Most complaints to PaN concerns physicians. The complaints that were reported to PaN in 2010 and could be attributed to a specified person or function in healthcare (around 70 per cent) revealed that the majority of these complaints, 72 per cent, involved physicians, followed by complaints against nurses (9 per cent), and dentists (8 per cent). The remaining 11 per cent concerned a large number of other professions and functions.

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* Lex Maria reports are not included in this section, since such reports can not be initiated by a patient.
† Until 2011 it was also possible to lodge complaints regarding negative encounters to Socialstyrelsen but after recent reorganizations all such claims are managed by PaN, unless they are investigated by HSAN.
As the above description shows, Sweden has developed an extensive system for handling errors in healthcare and for promoting quality improvement and patient safety. Yet discontent and the number of complaints are increasing every year. Similar trends are also seen in our neighbouring countries Finland, Denmark, and Norway.

1.3 PREVIOUS KNOWLEDGE ABOUT ENCOUNTERS IN HEALTHCARE

1.3.1 Positive and negative encounters

A review of previous reports of patients’ perceptions of positive and negative encounters in Sweden shows that a positive healthcare encounter is characterized in terms of being listened to, feeling included, feeling confirmed, feeling empathy, and feeling supported. The list of what constitutes negative experiences of encounters is more or less an inverted version of the above-listed features: not being listened to, not being taken seriously, lack of information, feeling treated like an object and not an individual, arrogant or aggressive behaviour, and not having one’s integrity respected are recurrent examples of negative patient experiences.

1.3.2 The patient-caregiver relation and health outcomes

A positive encounter may enable the patient and the caregiver to establish a good relation. Even though healthcare services generally are appreciated in Sweden, there are many occasions when conflicts arise. Cultural differences, language problems, difficulties in understanding each other (for example regarding intentions, or use of metaphors), power imbalance, failure to meet the patient’s expectations, and gender are some factors suggested as potential causes of conflict and for patients’ experiences of negative encounters.

The importance of the patient-caregiver relationship is often highlighted in literature. By and large, good relations rely on good communication, and the significance of communication is accordingly illuminated in many studies. Much of the literature offers support for the putative relationship between good communication and a patient-centred, harmonious, inclusive, and supportive relation between the caregiver and the patient. Such a positive relation may in turn have a positive impact on the patient’s adherence to treatment or therapeutic compliance, as well as positive outcomes in terms of patient satisfaction, safety, and wellbeing. Several studies also support the idea that the quality of the patient-physician relation may affect the patient’s health status, and point to the relevance of both
positive and negative experiences of encounters for the patients’ health. Associations have for example been reported regarding diabetes, cancer, acute tonsillitis and chronic disease.

1.3.3 Gender

According to the report “Jämställda klagomål (Equal complaints)” presented by SLL in 2006, women report 17% more complaints on healthcare compared to men in Sweden (adjusted for the overall healthcare consumption). Similar differences have also been found internationally. According to the report most complaints were about medical treatment, of which 64% originated from women. However, the type of complaint with the greatest gender difference concerned “bemötande”, i.e. negative encounters with healthcare personnel, where 72% of the complaints came from women. According to the report women complain in particular of not being listened to and not being taken seriously.

Recent studies in Sweden have focused on the fact of women being exposed to negative encounters more often than men, and on the risk of a negative encounter aggravating the experience of suffering in healthcare. To address such issues, a more “gender-sensitive care” has been proposed. However, the validity of women’s complaints has also been questioned. For example, one study conducted in Sweden by Pukk et al. which presents “strong evidence that there are both gender and age differences in the filing and adjudication of malpractice claims” also critically discusses this phenomenon of women complaining more often than men. While not actually propounding the idea, the authors do not exclude that the explanation to the higher complaint rates may be that women simply have a lower “complaint threshold”. However, it is also known that women more often suffer medical complications and errors in treatment of for example cardiovascular disease, cancer, and renal disease than men. This gender difference could also provide a credible explanation for at least part of women’s higher degree of complaints on healthcare.

1.3.4 Age

Age has been found to be a predictor for healthcare complaints, with young adults and middle-aged persons lodging complaints more often than older persons. For example, one study holds that older persons, aged ≥80 years lodged complaints about five times less often than patients aged 40 to 59 years. One reason could be different
patterns of behavior and expectation on participation depending on the patient’s age. Studies have for example shown that elder patients are less likely to actively seek information about their conditions from healthcare staff but more likely to want healthcare to make health-related decisions for them than younger patients do. Such behavioural differences may possibly explain lower complaint rates, in particular complaints regarding poor information, participation, and on not being listened to.

1.3.5 Persons born outside of Sweden

Persons born outside of Sweden have been found to be less content with their healthcare encounters in Stockholm County compared to persons born in Sweden. They are also known to respond less frequently to surveys and to have lower healthcare attendance rate. However, people born outside of Sweden are also a heterogeneous group, with different cultural dispositions and traditions regarding approaches to healthcare. People born in Latin America and people born in Asia have, for example, been found to exhibit very different healthcare-seeking behaviour when consulting primary care. Generalizations based on a division between “Swedes” and “foreign-born people” in research may thus be too blunt and have been criticized.

1.3.6 “Difficult patients”

One sign of failed healthcare relations is so-called “difficult” patients, i.e. patients who never seem content with their treatment while often having medically unexplained symptoms. A common denominator for many of these patients, according to a Danish study, is that they have been wronged by someone at an early stage of their contact with healthcare. This experience of having been wronged has then indirectly caused an extensive subsequent contact with healthcare.

Sharpe et al. list three main categories of patients who are found more difficult to help than others: patients with severe untreated illness, patients with medically unexplained symptoms, and patients with co-existing social problems. Patients with such ailments are also over-represented in complaints about healthcare, as are patients with psychiatric disorders. Since these patients do not feel that they are getting the help they need and will continue to seek help elsewhere in the hope of getting an answer or recognition, or, as argued by Hahn, Feiner and Bellin, to create a “compensatory alliance” in the healthcare setting, in order to compensate for conflicts or lack of social support from a family or a social network. Yet another
interpretation could be that some patients who continuously seek care may actually be “duelling with doctors” in an attempt to restore their honour.\textsuperscript{86}

The lack of a medical explanation or an evident course of treatment for a condition may result in feelings of helplessness, frustration and stress for the caregiver, which sometimes can be aggravated by meeting patients with high expectations and demands.\textsuperscript{87} Being unable to help the patient in any other way, the physician may in such situations consider alternative courses of treatment, with the consequence that these patients are often referred to some sort of psychiatric treatment.\textsuperscript{88, 89}

1.4 BIOMEDICAL ETHICS

1.4.1 Medical ethics

Medical ethics is an interdisciplinary research field that critically studies ethical aspects and conflicts within the field of healthcare and biomedical research.\textsuperscript{90} Like all ethics, medical ethics deals with norms and values, i.e., matters of right and wrong, good and bad, but specifically in healthcare and medical research. More specifically there are three main questions of interest for medical ethics. One concerns values (what is good or bad, desirable or undesirable?), the other concerns what we should do (‘which actions are correct and desirable?’), and the third is about who we should be (‘which moral character should we aspire to?’).\textsuperscript{90} Investigations of healthcare encounters from an ethical perspective mainly concern questions of what we should do, and to some extent which values are manifested in the healthcare encounter. In practice this means that we can discuss guidelines, practice and experiences, as well as engage in reflections regarding what kind of behaviour is desirable or undesirable, and why this is important.

1.4.2 Normative ethics

Normative ethics represents a part of moral philosophy aimed at solving questions of how we should live and act. There are general normative theories trying to answer these questions, such as for example consequentialism, deontological ethics, or virtue ethics.\textsuperscript{91} These theories often aim at establishing which features make actions right or wrong. Accordingly, normative ethics does not primarily focus on empirical issues regarding what actions people believe or consider to be right, nor on what is said in different regulations or how people actually do act. Regarding negative encounters,
normative reasoning is needed to decide whether if, and if so why, some types of encounters in fact are negative, while others are not.

1.4.3 **Empirical input in ethical research**

In this thesis, when using the term “empirical research” we refer knowledge based on direct or indirect observations or experiences,\(^9^2\) including both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

The studies included in this thesis are all based on empirical data drawn from either a registry (Study I) or from questionnaires (Study II-IV). It is not possible to derive normative conclusion from descriptive statements without adding normative arguments. However, most normative arguments in practice rest on empirical assumptions, which mean that the validity of the normative argument is partly dependent on facts. Empirical research can also generate normative hypotheses – by saying something about how something is, discussions of how it should be are likely to follow.

Some opponents of empirical ethical research claim that allowing empirical input into ethics opens for a loss of normativity and relativistic interpretations, impeding the researcher from drawing normative inferences.\(^9^3\), \(^9^4\) It is, thus, important to recognize that although empirical research cannot answer normative questions, it may be essential for identifying and solving practical problems; for example when assessing which action to take in a specific setting. This is probably a reason for empirical approaches in ethics becoming increasingly recognized by ethicists.\(^9^3\)

1.4.4 **Biomedical principles**

Much normative discussion in healthcare is based on Beauchamp & Childress’ classical work *Principles of Biomedical Ethics*,\(^9^5\) which presents a set of moral principles functioning as an analytical framework expressing underlying general values in common morality.\(^9^6\) Ethics in a healthcare context primarily concerns how the individual patient should be treated, that is, what are the harms and benefits of each action? In many cases this decision is unproblematic, but sometimes ethical conflicts arise.
There are four basic principles for moral action that ought to be considered during the assessment of which action to take in ethically challenging situations;

- the principle of *beneficence* which means that one should (always) try to help the patient by meeting his or her medical as well as humanitarian needs

- the principle of *non-maleficence* which means that one should avoid intentionally inflicting harm to the patient, for example by refraining from undue risk-taking

- the principle of *justice* which means that one should treat equal patients equally. This means that patients with equal needs should receive equal treatment (irrespective of, for example, gender, age, background, or socio-economic status)

- the principle of *respect for autonomy*, which means that one should respect the patient’s right to self-determination; this also includes providing the patient with information relevant to these decisions

These are so-called prima facie principles, not absolute principles, meaning that one principle cannot generally be said to trump the other.\(^{97, 98}\) The framework does not in itself constitute a complete ethical system stipulating how to balance the principles against each other in case of internal ethical conflicts. Rather it functions as a reminder of central ethical aspects that all need to be carefully considered when deciding which action is the right one to take in a certain setting.\(^{90}\) For example, a conflict between the principle of autonomy (which dictates that you should let the patient decide) and the principle of beneficence (which dictates that you should do good to the patient) may arise in cases where the patient rejects an evidence-based recommended treatment or intervention that would probably be successful. How should a medical professional act when encountering such dilemmas? In addition to these four principles there are also some other ethical aspects that may be considered, such as for example respect for personal integrity.\(^{90}\)
1.5 TERMINOLOGY

1.5.1 Negative encounter

The central term in this thesis is the Swedish term “bemötande”, which is defined in terms of behaviour towards someone; i.e., it is concerned with how the other person is treated or received. Unfortunately the term has no exact English equivalent with the same connotations. “Treatment” perhaps comes nearest, but is troublesome to use since in the healthcare context it is usually associated with medical treatment, which is something that the Swedish connotation of “bemötande” does not include. Rather it is behaviour towards the patient while examined or (medically) treated, but not including examination and treatment, that “bemötande” is about, i.e., the manner in which the actions are performed and thereby how the patient is met (e.g. amicably, empathically, aggressively, or impatiently). We have – with the exception of Study I, where we used the term “bad treatment” – chosen to apply the term “encounter” to denote the various aspects of behaviour, attitudes, and actions that are expressed and experienced in the meeting between healthcare personnel and the patient.

A philosophical clarification in relation to this may be needed: by asking in surveys about experiences of negative encounters, we cannot learn about what encounters are morally bad, but only about the respondents’ perceptions of those experiences.

1.5.2 Wronged

Another central concept, targeted in study II, is “kränkt”. This Swedish term also lacks an exact English equivalent. Several English terms, such as “insulted”, “abused”, “violated”, and “offended”, may be correct translations, depending on the context. However, all these terms, in themselves, are too narrow in scope to cover all potential applications of “kränkt” in the Swedish language. We have chosen to consistently use the term “wronged”, since it is the most comprehensive translation and shares with “kränkt” the implication that something inappropriate and of moral relevance has happened. It may, but does not necessarily, relate to someone having his or her rights disrespected, for example with regards to autonomy, personal integrity, or fairness.
1.5.3 Caregiver

The vast majority of complaints in Swedish healthcare concern physicians, followed by nurses and dentists. Unless of particular importance for a specific situation or example, we have chosen not to specify to which of these professions the included negative experiences of encounters can be attributed. Throughout the thesis we generally refer to “the caregiver” as the term is broad enough to cover all included professions.
2 AIMS OF THESIS

This is an empirically oriented thesis in medical ethics, with both explorative and normative ambitions, but with emphasis on descriptions. The overall aim of this thesis is to gain new knowledge about patients’ negative experiences of encounters in Swedish healthcare and, based on this knowledge, to suggest potential means of reducing or preventing such experiences.

Reducing the number of negative experiences of encounters in healthcare is important since it has been shown that such encounters have negative effects on patients’ health and wellbeing. The thesis consists of four different studies, each with its specific aims:

**Study I**: Systematic review of registered complaints of negative encounters to Patientnämnden (PaN), aimed at investigating patient’s experiences of not being treated well in medical healthcare in Stockholm County, Sweden.

**Study II**: Postal questionnaire to long-term sick-listed persons, aimed at examining how these patients perceive healthcare encounters, with a special focus on negative encounters and feeling wronged.

**Study III**: Postal questionnaire to the general population of Stockholm County, aimed at achieving a better understanding of experiences of negative healthcare encounters in the general population.

**Study IV**: Postal questionnaire to the general population of Stockholm County with the aim of investigating the hypothesis that complaints over adverse events related to encounters with healthcare personnel are underreported, and identifying barriers to filing such complaints.
3 ETHICAL APPROVAL

3.1 STUDY I, III, IV
Ethical approval was granted by the Regional Ethical Review Board in Stockholm in 2008, Dnr 2008/439-31.

3.2 STUDY II
Ethical approval was granted by the Regional Ethical Review Board in Linköping in 2003, Dnr 03-261.
### 4 METHODS

#### 4.1 OVERVIEW OF STUDIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Title and year of publication</th>
<th>Study design</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Experiencing bad treatment: qualitative study of patient complaints concerning their treatment by public health-care practitioners in the County of Stockholm 2009</td>
<td>Register study</td>
<td>Purposive sample: n=1 248</td>
<td>Qualitative content analysis and presentation of proportions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Review of registered complaints to PaN</td>
<td></td>
<td>Registered complaints to PaN in Stockholm County Council during 2006 and 2007</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>When do patients feel wronged? Empirical study of sick-listed patients’ experiences with healthcare encounters 2012</td>
<td>Cross-sectional study</td>
<td>Stratified proportional sample: n=10 042</td>
<td>Statistical analysis: AR with CI: 95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Postal questionnaire</td>
<td></td>
<td>Long-term sickness absentees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Response rate 58%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>Bad apples or bad barrels? Qualitative study of negative encounters among the general population in Stockholm County, Sweden (Manuscript)</td>
<td>Cross-sectional study</td>
<td>Stratified Sample: n=1 484</td>
<td>Qualitative content analysis and minor statistical analysis of frequency and proportions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Postal questionnaire</td>
<td></td>
<td>The general population in Stockholm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Response rate 62%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>The tip of an iceberg? A cross-sectional study of the general public’s experiences of reporting healthcare complaints in Stockholm, Sweden 2012</td>
<td>Cross-sectional study</td>
<td>Stratified Sample: n=1 484</td>
<td>Statistical analysis: proportions and OR with CI: 95% and minor qualitative content analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Postal questionnaire</td>
<td></td>
<td>The general population in Stockholm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Response rate 62%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 STUDY DESIGN

4.2.1 Study I

In the first study we conducted a systematic review of official complaints of negative encounters to Patientnämnden (PaN) in Stockholm County in 2006 and 2007. Complaints about being treated or received by healthcare staff in a negative manner (labelled “bad treatment” in this study) accounted for 13% of all complaints in 2006 and 2007. These complaints were selected for analysis: n=659/5 062 in 2006 and n=589/4 633 in 2007. In both years, 63% of the complaints about bad treatment originated from women and 37% from men. Information about age or background of the complainants was not available.

The method for analysis was qualitative content analysis by categorization. In addition, a minor complementary presentation of proportions was made.

As a first step, the material was read through a few times by the main researcher, to achieve a comprehensive understanding of the material. Then significant key phrases were selected and coded, and the codes categorized. Thereafter the material was passed over to a second researcher who conducted the same analytical procedure in order to settle a certain level of confirmability. The categorization can be described as an ongoing process, as the categories were continuously tried and rejected until a stable set of ten qualitatively distinct and substantial categories, and one additional category containing unspecified complaints on bad treatment, was established. Supportive and illustrative citations describing examples of events were identified and selected for each category.

Finally, the categories were sorted in hierarchic order based on their proportional prevalence. All complaints were included in the analysis, so there was no internal drop-out. Since the data was drawn from an anonymized official report, we did not collect individual consent.
4.2.2 Study II

In 2004 a survey was sent to 10,042 sick-listed persons in Sweden. This survey was a joint project between the faculty of Health Sciences at Linköping University and the department of Clinical Neurosciences at Karolinska Institutet. The aim of the survey was to find out how the respondents had perceived their contacts and encounters with healthcare staff and social insurance officers during their time on sick-leave. The questionnaire contained questions regarding both negative and positive experiences of encounters. See appendix 1.

The selection criteria were being absent for a sick-leave spell that had lasted for 6-8 months and still being registered on 31 December, 2003. The study population was drawn from a register administered by the National Social Insurance Agency and the survey was sent out to a proportionally stratified sample of 10,042 sick-listed persons; 4,011 (40%) men and 6,031 (60%). The questionnaire was mailed to their home address. Two reminders were sent out. The questionnaire had a structured design and contained 22 questions with fixed response alternatives. The questions and response alternatives were based on finding in several preceding empirical studies, theoretical models, and a pilot study.

In the present study we focused on the respondents’ answers regarding how they perceived their encounters with representatives of Swedish healthcare. In the questionnaire the respondents were first asked if they had experiences of negative encounters. If they answered affirmatively, they were then asked what kind of behaviours they had been exposed to by choosing from 23 fixed response alternatives; for example, “did not keep our agreements”, “interrupted me”, or “threatened me”. As a third and final step they were finally asked how they had responded emotionally to the negative encounter, given a choice between seven fixed response alternatives; for example, “ashamed”, “angry”, or “wronged”. See appendix 1.

The statistical measure used in study II was Attributable Risk (AR), also known as “population attributable fraction”, “population attributable risk proportion” or “attributable fraction”. AR has been described as “a useful approach to quantitatively describe the importance of risk factors on the population level. It measures the proportional reduction in (disease) probability when a risk factor is eliminated from the population, accounting for effects of confounding and effect-modification by nuisance variables”.

In the present study, AR can be interpreted as the fraction of the patients...
feeling wronged who would not feel wronged if a particular negative encounter could, for example by intervention, be removed. It takes into account both the prevalence of a type of negative encounter and the strength of the association with feeling wronged. AR was adjusted for gender, age, education, and reason for being sick-listed and presented with 95% confidence intervals (CI). To test the consistency of our results, we also analysed the AR for positive experiences and feeling respected.

4.2.3 Study III-IV
Studies III and IV are cross-sectional studies based on a postal survey that was distributed to a sample of the general population living in Stockholm County, Sweden in 2008. The main objective with the survey was to investigate the respondents’ experiences of negative encounters in healthcare as patients or as close relatives, and to investigate possible barriers to reporting complaints on negative encounters. The questionnaire also contained additional questions regarding trust and general experience of the Swedish healthcare system.

The questionnaire was developed by the research team. The questions were piloted in the department of LIME, Karolinska Institutet, and were modified twice in order to achieve as clear and balanced formulations as possible.

The final questionnaire contained seven questions with fixed response alternatives and room for additional comments, and two questions where the respondents’ were encouraged to provide lengthy free-text descriptions of their experiences. See appendix 2. The questionnaire also contained background questions regarding age, sex, and previous experiences of working within the healthcare system. The questionnaire stipulated no restrictions based on time or location for the acquired experience.

The questionnaire was distributed to a stratified sample of the population consisting of 1,484 persons (50% women and 50% men, aged 18-89 years) registered by the Swedish National Tax Board as living in Stockholm County in April 2008. Two reminders were sent out after two and four weeks respectively.

The responses were read through at the point of registry, and after the deadline for answering (July 2008), the material was transferred to an excel sheet by the main researcher. The page was divided into two parts: the description was pasted in the left column, and in the right column space was left for key phrases and indexing. Such layout enables quick familiarization with the material and also facilitates digital processing.
of the material. The data was subjected to two separate rounds of content analysis. See Figure 1.

**Figure 1: Illustration of each step in the content analysis in study III and study IV**

Postal survey  
Sample: n=1484

- **Study III: Indexing**  
  (Experiences of negative encounters?)
  - Descriptive items (n=17)
  - Sub-categories (n=6)
  - Categories (n=2)

- **Study IV: Indexing**  
  (Reasons for not filing a complaint?)
  - First-level themes (n=17)
  - Second level-themes (n=5)
4.2.3.1 Study III, analytical process

In study III the aim was to describe experiences of negative encounters in Swedish healthcare and to investigate possible explanations for these negative encounters. The main material for study III was drawn from the responses to the two final questions in the questionnaire, describing the respondents’ negative experiences of encounters with healthcare personnel, either as a patient or as a relative:

(Q.8) “Do you have experience of negative encounters as a patient?
- Yes/No
If yes, please provide a description of the event(s):…………………………..”

(Q.9) “Do you have experience of negative encounters as a relative or guardian of a patient?
- Yes/No
If yes, please provide a description of the event(s):…………………………..”

The descriptions were subjected to conventional content analysis for the purpose of identifying and categorizing descriptions, as well as underlying factors relevant to the respondents’ negative experiences of healthcare encounters. Conventional content analysis is used when existing research on the topic is limited and the aim of the study is to explore and describe a phenomenon or experience. This way we can gain a richer understanding of the phenomenon without imposing preconceived understandings or perceptions on the material. Instead, all categories are derived during analysis.

Indexing process

The indexing process was initiated by the main researcher who read the compiled text through thoroughly. Some contextual patterns emerged quite soon, and after a few pages initial key phrases had been identified. The material was read one more time and additional key phrases, i.e. meaning-bearing units, were identified. The next step was to develop themes induced from the text by grouping similar meaning bearing units together. These groups were initially given short denominations such as “violence”, “injustice”, “rude” and so forth. The groups were open for modification, and when one key phrase did not fit into an already existing thematic group a new one was created. At this stage 14 thematic groups or “items” were identified. The dataset was then passed over to a second researcher who also went through the text and independently
processed the data in similar vein. The second researcher suggested amendments in terms of inclusion criteria and after negotiating back and forth a new set of 16 items was established. The researchers then jointly went through the dataset to assess consistency, completeness, and overlapping of the proposed items. During this process, supportive illustrative quotations to each item were identified. Finally, two other researchers critically revised the proposal, also looking at consistency, completeness, and overlapping of item content. The joint efforts resulted in some further modifications and finally 17 “descriptive items” could be established. These 17 items were clustered and condensed into six sub-categories, which finally generated two overarching explanatory categories.109

A minor statistical analysis of frequency and proportions was conducted.

4.2.3.2  Study IV, analytical process
In the fourth study the objective was to investigate the hypothesis that complaints of adverse events related to the encounter with healthcare personnel were underreported to Patientnämnden (PaN), and to identify barriers to filing such complaints. In addition, we also investigated if trust and experiences of encounters in healthcare were associated. The main data were drawn from two questions in the questionnaire:

(Q.6) Have you ever filed a complaint regarding a healthcare encounter at the Patients’ Advisory Committee?
- Yes/No

(Q.7) Have you had reason to file a complaint to the Patients Advisory Committee but refrained from doing so?
- Yes/No

If yes, what was your reason for not complaining? ..............................................

The reasons stated for not filing complaints were subjected to qualitative content analysis and the results were presented in clusters. The reasons stated were, following a procedure similar to that described above (study III), first identified and classified into 17 basic (first-level) themes based on their main content. Thereafter the basic themes were clustered and condensed into a smaller set of five comprehensive second-level themes. 108 109
For carrying out the quantitative analysis, we used the software package Epi-Calc2000. Odds Ratios (OR) with 95% confidence intervals (CI) were calculated for the respondents’ general experience of encounters in healthcare (Q4) in relation to (Q8) their personal experience of negative encounters in healthcare, as well as for the respondents’ general experience of encounters in healthcare (Q4) and (Q3) their degree of trust. Lastly, we counted the respondents stating that they had had reason to file a complaint (Q6) but had refrained from doing so (Q7). See Appendix 2. The answers to questions 6 and 7 were measured in proportions with confidence intervals (CI 95%), in relation to the respondents’ general experience of healthcare, and in relation to the respondents’ level of trust in healthcare. When testing the “iceberg” hypothesis (that is; the hypothesis that complaints about negative encounters are under-reported) we applied the chi² test, with significance level 0.05.
5 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Below follows a summary of the main findings from the four studies:

5.1 STUDY I

The aim of study I was to investigate patient’s experiences of not being treated well in medical healthcare in Stockholm. We found that women had a higher complaint rate than men, and that the main reasons for reporting complaints on the encounter were experiences of rude, aggressive or arrogant behaviour, being ignored, not listened to, or not being taken seriously. For a complete list, see Table 2.

Experiences of negative encounters were in 2006 and 2007 the fourth most common reason for complaining to PaN and accounted for about 13% of all registered complaints. However, a random control of the complaints that had been categorized by staff at PaN as mainly concerning ‘medical treatment’ (the most common reason for filing a complaint to PaN) revealed that experiences of negative encounters (in the article referred to as “bad treatment”) may be much more common. In almost one third of the complaints on medical treatment there were also complaints about negative encounters. The complaints, however, had not been registered as such since the initial claim concerned another topic.
Table 2: Categories of complaints

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complaint category</th>
<th>Percentage of all complaints about bad treatment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Rude, aggressive or arrogant behaviour</td>
<td>22 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Being ignored, not being listened to, or being taken seriously</td>
<td>19 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Being denied examinations or treatments</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Lack of empathy</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Lack of respect for personal integrity</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Lack of time/waiting time, stressed personnel</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Personnel not separating private issues from their professional role</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Injustice and discrimination</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Sexual harassment</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Violence and coercion</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Unspecified bad treatment</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Different people have different ways of interpreting situations. In our discussion we underlined that someone’s perception of an occurrence and what actually happened may not always coincide. For instance, a patient may have been given sensitive information by the doctor out of earshot from others, yet may have gained the impression that others heard it. We suggest four possible perspectives on such events, based on combinations of actual bad treatment and perceived experience of
bad treatment (with ‘yes’ and ‘no’ as alternatives for each; see Figure 2). We suggest such a figure, showing the possible relations between subjective and objective interpretations of an event, as a useful tool when assessing whether a patient’s experience of a negative encounter can be justified or not:

- the patient feels badly treated and the patient was badly treated (1),
- the patient feels badly treated but the patient was not badly treated (2),
- the patient does not feel badly treated but the patient was badly treated (3), and
- the patient does not feel badly treated and the patient was not badly treated (4)

**Figure 2: Possible relations between perceived and actual bad treatment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived experience of negative treatment</th>
<th>Actual bad treatment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, since the negative health and wellbeing effects of negative experiences of healthcare encounters are present regardless of whether or not the patients in fact have been badly treated, the focus must be on reducing these experiences.
5.2 STUDY II

The aim of study II was to examine how patients perceive healthcare encounters, with a special focus on negative encounters and feeling wronged. The respondents were long-term sickness absentees.

The response rate was 58% (5 802). Of the respondents, 1 628 persons stated that they had experienced negative encounters with healthcare staff. Of this sample, 1 036 (64%) persons also reported having felt wronged by such an encounter. The most common types of experienced negative encounters were nonchalant and disrespectful behaviour by the caregiver. These two items also had the highest attributable risk of feeling wronged: “nonchalant behaviour” AR 71.1% [95% CI: 66.3-75.8] and “treated me with disrespect” AR 54.8% [95% CI: 49.8-59.8]. See Table 3. Women were found to be slightly over-represented regarding experience of negative encounters, but men more often reported feeling wronged if exposed to negative encounters. Men had higher AR for feeling wronged in relation to all types of negative encounters, though not all differences were statistically significant.

Further, the results indicate that many items associated with feeling wronged were intertwined, indicating that feeling wronged is an outcome based on several experiences of negative encounters in healthcare, either bundled together in one and the same event, or in a series of events.

With regard to our results, the discussion focuses on three main explanations to why negative encounters in healthcare occur: structural explanations, attitudes among healthcare personnel, and communication practices. Perceptions and expectations of the individual patient are also highlighted as a potentially actuating area where measures could be aimed for preventing dissatisfaction. Since different aspects of negative encounters are intertwined, we especially endorse efforts to improve communication skills, including the attitudes and official priorities communicated, as a potentially fruitful target for improving patient-caregiver interaction, and thus the experience of the encounter.
Table 3: AR with 95% CI for feeling wronged when having experienced different types of negative encounters with healthcare staff

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of negative encounter (Number of exposed respondents)</th>
<th>All (n=1628) AR% (95% CI)</th>
<th>Men (n=487) AR% (95% CI)</th>
<th>Women (n=1141) AR% (95% CI)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nonchalant behaviour (1280)</td>
<td>71.1 (66.3-75.8)</td>
<td>80.1 (73.3-86.9)</td>
<td>68.3 (62.6-74.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treated me with disrespect (1041)</td>
<td>54.8 (49.8-59.8)</td>
<td>63.5 (56.2-70.8)</td>
<td>52.2 (46.0-58.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not believe me (1042)</td>
<td>41.1 (36.1-46.1)</td>
<td>46.6 (38.1-55.1)</td>
<td>39.5 (33.5-45.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doubt my condition (1077)</td>
<td>36.8 (31.4-42.1)</td>
<td>42.4 (32.8-52.0)</td>
<td>35.1 (28.7-41.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not listen (982)</td>
<td>34.6 (30.2-39.0)</td>
<td><strong>44.6 (37.0-52.2)</strong></td>
<td>31.5 (26.3-36.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treated me as stupid (808)</td>
<td>32.5 (28.6-36.4)</td>
<td>38.6 (31.7-45.4)</td>
<td>30.7 (26.1-35.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was stressed/did not make time for me (1075)</td>
<td>24.9 (19.9-29.9)</td>
<td>35.6 (25.8-45.4)</td>
<td>21.7 (15.9-27.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questioned my desire/motivation to work (913)</td>
<td>23.9 (19.9-28.0)</td>
<td>25.7 (17.4-34.1)</td>
<td>23.4 (18.8-28.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interrupted me (659)</td>
<td>20.3 (17.1-23.4)</td>
<td><strong>28.5 (22.2-34.8)</strong></td>
<td>17.8 (14.2-21.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Made unreasonably high demands (787)</td>
<td>15.6 (12.0-19.2)</td>
<td><strong>26.8 (19.6-34.1)</strong></td>
<td>12.2 (8.1-16.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blamed me for my condition (451)</td>
<td>12.2 (10.0-14.4)</td>
<td><strong>18.0 (12.9-23.0)</strong></td>
<td>10.5 (8.0-12.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not let me take responsibility for myself (469)</td>
<td>10.7 (8.4-13.0)</td>
<td><strong>17.9 (12.1-23.7)</strong></td>
<td>8.5 (6.1-10.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dubbed my capacity to work (693)</td>
<td>9.3 (6.2-12.4)</td>
<td>15.8 (8.1-23.4)</td>
<td>7.4 (4.1-10.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not keep our agreements (418)</td>
<td>6.5 (4.4-8.6)</td>
<td>9.7 (4.4-15.0)</td>
<td>5.5 (3.3-7.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talked in a way I could not understand (397)</td>
<td>4.5 (2.3-6.7)</td>
<td>8.0 (2.7-13.3)</td>
<td>3.5 (1.1-5.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threatened me (116)</td>
<td>3.3 (2.4-4.2)</td>
<td><strong>6.1 (3.6-8.6)</strong></td>
<td>2.5 (1.6-3.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harmed me physically (103)</td>
<td>2.1 (1.2-3.0)</td>
<td><strong>5.0 (2.5-7.6)</strong></td>
<td>1.2 (0.3-2.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not make high enough demands (117)</td>
<td>1.7 (1.2-2.6)</td>
<td>1.9 (-0.5-4.4)</td>
<td>1.6 (0.7-2.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexually inappropriate behaviour (30)</td>
<td>0.7 (0.2-1.1)</td>
<td>1.4 (-0.0-2.9)</td>
<td>0.4 (0.0-0.8)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adjustments have been made for age, reason for being sick-listed, and education.

Bold figures indicate significant differences between men and women.
5.3 STUDY III

The purpose of the present study was to gain an improved understanding of negative encounters and to describe the general population’s experiences of negative encounters in healthcare. We also wanted to investigate factors possibly underlying the negative encounters.

The response rate was 62.1% (n=922); 58% were women and 42% were men. Of the 922 persons who completed the questionnaire, 340 had enclosed comments on at least one of the questions, and substantial descriptions of negative experiences as a patient or as a relative (Q8 and Q9) had been submitted by 295 of these respondents. Frequency and proportions were calculated for the first seven questions, and the free-text descriptions for questions Q8 and Q9 were subjected to conventional content analysis. 108

837 (92.5%) of all respondents stated that they had a very or fairly positive general experience of encounters in Swedish healthcare, while 67 (7.5%) respondents stated that they had a fairly or very negative general experience. At the same time, about one-third of the same respondents reported personal experiences of negative encounters, either as a patient or as a relative.

A gender-based difference was found. Of those with some kind of negative experience of encounters, a higher proportion were women [60.8% (CI 55.4-66.2)] than men [39.2% (CI: 33.8- 44.6)]. Negative experiences of encounters were also more common among younger respondents aged 18-49 years [59.9% (CI: 54.5-65.3)], than in the older age group aged 50-89 years [40.1% (CI: 34.7-44.5)]. The differences were statistically significant.

The analysis showed that descriptions of negative encounters (items) entailed poor availability, being denied medical examination and/or treatment, inadequate routines, inadequate information, disbelief, and unpleasant behaviour. For a complete list, see Table 4. The descriptive items were divided into six subcategories which could further be divided into two categories yielding overarching explanatory factors for the expressed behaviour: structure and allocation of healthcare, and the staff’s attitudes and professional practice. See Table 4.

These explanatory factors, although they may to some extent interact, indicate what kind of preventive measures might be proposed in order to avoid negative encounters depending on what level they stem from. For example, to make healthcare staff reflect
on their own behaviour and ethical standpoint, or to focus on communication and improving communication skills, may improve the patient-caregiver relation and raise patient satisfaction. Structurally determined experiences of negative encounters may on the other hand be prevented on an organizational level. For example, working in a substandard environment may cause the caregiver to feel stress or frustration, which may be reflected in their attitudes and behaviour. Many of these predicted negative events could be prevented by improving the organization of the workplace or changes in the allocation of resources.

Table 4: Descriptive items, subcategories, and comprehensive categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptive item</th>
<th>Subcategory</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Availability</td>
<td>A. Supply</td>
<td>Structure and allocation of healthcare (A, B, C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Being denied medical examination and/or treatment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Inadequate routines</td>
<td>B. Organization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Inadequate continuity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Inadequate co-ordination</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Inadequate information from healthcare</td>
<td>C. Information</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Lack of professional conduct</td>
<td>D. Professionalism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Lack of medical skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Did not listen</td>
<td>E. Defective attention</td>
<td>The staff’s attitudes and professional practice (C, D, E, F)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Disbelief</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Lack of interest/commitment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Lack of empathy/understanding</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Discrimination</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Unpleasant behavior</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Sexually undue behavior</td>
<td>F. Disrespectful behaviour</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Physical and verbal assault</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Disrespect for a patient’s personal sphere</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Letters in parenthesis allude to the subcategories included in the present category. The items overlap to some extent, due to purposive categorisation.
5.4 STUDY IV

In this paper the objective was to investigate the hypothesis that adverse events related to the encounter with healthcare personnel are underreported to Patientnämnden (PaN), and to identify barriers to filing such complaints. In addition, we investigated whether trust in and experiences of healthcare are related.

The response rate to the questionnaire was 62% (n=922). We found that patients often chose not to file a complaint even when they felt they had legitimate reasons to do so, and that the main barriers to filing complaints were that the patients did not have the strength to make them, did not know where to turn, or did not find it worthwhile since they did not believe it would make a difference. For a complete list, see Table 5.

Official complaints to PaN had been filed by 2.7% (n=23, CI: 1.7-3.7) of the respondents, but as many as 18.5% (n=159,CI: 15.9-21.1) of the respondents expressed in the questionnaire that they had indeed had legitimate reasons to complain, but had chosen to abstain from filing a formal complaint (p<0.001). This is a considerable discrepancy (1:7), and the result supports our hypothesis that complaints on negative encounters to PaN are underreported. A possible conclusion is that we probably only see the “tip of an iceberg” in official reports.

We also found that a negative general experience of healthcare (Q4) seems to have a negative effect on the patient’s general trust (Q5) in healthcare. Respondents with a general negative experience of Swedish healthcare also had a higher degree of underreporting adverse events than respondents with a general positive experience.

The study illuminates, in detail, barriers to filing complaints to PaN, and the findings should be useful for enabling healthcare staff to work actively to provide a supportive environment for patients in the case of adverse events. It is also recommended that both PaN and other actors in the healthcare system increase their efforts to provide patients with accurate information as well as create a supportive and safe system for handling complaints.
Table 5: Reasons for not filing official complaints to Patientnämnden

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First level themes</th>
<th>Second-level themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I did not have the strength (n=39)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was afraid of the consequences (n=8)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not like to complain (n=3)</td>
<td>Weakness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not want to relive the trauma (n=1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was not the closest relative (n=1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It makes no difference anyway (n=17)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had other priorities (n=14)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was too difficult (n=13)</td>
<td>Futility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not have time to do it (n=8)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The damage was already done (n=5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not know where to turn (n=18)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of knowledge. I did not know/think I had that option (n=4)</td>
<td>Lack of knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not complain out of consideration of the accused person (n=3)</td>
<td>Mercifulness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not complain due to collegial relations (n=2)</td>
<td>Other action taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I complained directly at the hospital (n=4)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No reason stated (n=19)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.5 ERRATA

5.5.1.1 Study I
The percentages presented in Table 1 in the published paper were recalculated during revision of the submitted manuscript. As the new percentages were reported, the order of the categories were not updated, which is why categories 7-10 have not been hierarchically ordered. See Table 2 in the thesis.

5.5.1.2 Study II
In the published paper (page 231) we account for 1621 respondents with both positive and negative (mixed) experiences of encounters, and 164 with only negative experiences. These two groups were merged in the subsequent analysis. However, we happened to leave out a description of how the merged group was first adjusted in the sense that respondents who had not completed all relevant questions were excluded. The exclusion resulted in an internal drop-out rate of 8.9% (n=157). The correct number of included respondents in the group with negative experiences is 1628 (as can be seen in Table 1 in the published paper).

5.5.1.3 Study IV
Unfortunately, the published paper contains two inaccuracies. One is more incriminating (nb. 1) since it refers to a different proportion (4.8%) than the one intended and could therefore be misleading. However, the analysis and following discussion are based on a calculation of the correct proportion (7.8%), wherefore the inferences are still valid. The other error is a misprint and makes no substantial difference for the interpretation or discussion.

1) Page 1. Abstract (results): “The degree of underreporting was greater among patients with a general negative experience of healthcare (37.3% CI: 31.9-42.7) compared with those with a general positive experience (4.8% CI: 2.4-7.2).
   Errata: The proportion “4.8% CI: 2.4-7.2” has been confused with the correct proportion of 7.8 (5.6-10); see Table 1 page 3 in the published paper.

2) Page 2. Material and methods: “Of the sample of 1500, 16 questionnaires were returned due to death or unknown address; altogether 992 participants (62.1%) returned a completed questionnaire…”
   Errata: The correct number is 922. See page 1 of the published paper.
6 DISCUSSION

In this chapter I intend to discuss what we have learned about the experience of negative encounters in healthcare, and to some extent how they can be prevented. The discussion is divided into two sections; first I will present some relevant methodological considerations, followed by an account of possible interpretations of the key findings in the studies and what practical conclusions to draw from them.

6.1 METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This thesis combines qualitative and quantitative approaches, and the focus has mainly been on descriptive analysis. By combination of methods and access to fairly large sets of data we could increase the chance of obtaining variety in the answers and at the same time, to some extent, be able to describe prevalence and certain relevant associations, thus providing a comprehensive view of the phenomenon of experiences of negative encounters in healthcare.

6.1.1 Validity and reliability

Validity concerns the consistency between what we claim to investigate and what we actually investigate. To achieve this we need to ensure reliability in the analysis; that is, a systematically reliable procedure. The requirements for validity differ somewhat in quantitative and qualitative studies, but both types require “internal validity”. In quantitative studies the internal validity relates primarily to “face validity” which is that the process and quality of the measurement are empirically based and also appear adequate to an objective observer. Validity in qualitative research, however, includes the whole process of determining sample, the collection of data, the analysis and choice of theoretical framework. Internal validity is a way to ensure credibility and requires the researchers to clearly describe each step of the method, as well as potential dropout factors. To ensure internal validity in our studies, we have emphasized clear and detailed descriptions of methods and analysis in the papers, and in study II the questions of the survey were also developed based on input from several preceding studies. This issue will be further explored below, as will potential biases and drop-out factors.

“Criterion validity” indicate that the results are consistent with results from studies by others or simultaneous measurements using another method or technique. Criterion validity is generally not considered in qualitative research, but can actually be
applied to some parts of our studies. The studies had different methodological designs so the findings are not comparable in all aspects, but the main results in studies I-III; i.e. the descriptions of what a negative encounter entails, are consistent through all studies included and also harmonize well with previous knowledge about healthcare encounters that was accounted for in the background section of the thesis. Independently of whether the respondents were provided with fixed alternatives of negative encounters, or whether they described the event in their own words, common denominators have been constant, which could be interpreted as a sign of criterion validity.

6.1.2 Reproducibility
Reproducibility means that all aspects of a study can be replicated and that the analysis would yield the same (sufficiently similar) results. This requires a systematically reliable procedure as well as a transparent study design with each step of the data collection and analysis specified. In quantitative research, where the sampling is systematized and standardized procedures (such as established laboratory techniques or standardized questions) and measurements are applied, this should generally not be a problem.\textsuperscript{112}

The questions and the statistical analysis in study II have been carefully described, and since the survey concerns a specific target population (long-term sick-listed persons), and has a structured design with fixed questions and response options, there should be no barrier to reproducibility.

Content analysis, however, cannot be fully detached from the researcher’s subjective interpretation, which makes reproducibility harder to obtain. Therefore, the analyses in study I, III and IV were conducted by two or more researchers jointly to ensure a certain level of confirmability,\textsuperscript{110} and each step in the study process has been carefully described. Given this transparency, it should be possible for an observer to grasp the conditions for the analysis, and to reproduce the study with the same or similar results.

6.1.3 Generalizability
Three of the studies included are based on surveys. Surveys are generally used to answer questions regarding \textit{how}, \textit{when}, \textit{where}, and \textit{what}, and are suitable for studies with a large sample population. The strength of surveys normally include their convenience, accuracy and representativity. Although some of the analyses of the
studies were qualitative, their being based on questionnaires actualizes the question of generalizability.\textsuperscript{113,114}

In study I, we performed a purposive sampling by using an existing registry where all available complaints of negative encounters in healthcare were included (n=1 248). We cannot define the sample population in more detail than with reference to their common experience of negative healthcare encounters (and their reporting them to PaN in Stockholm county). This generally means that we need to be very cautious in generalizing the results on the general population. However, since the primary aim was to find and define different categories of negative encounters, and not their statistical distribution, the question of generalizability is of minor importance.

Study II concerns long-term sick-listed persons, arguably a group distinguishable from the general population in that on average they have poorer health. Therefore the results may not be generalizable to the general population but only to long-term sick-listed individuals. The sampling strategy was proportional with regards to gender, and the number of participants high (n=5 802). \textsuperscript{1628} respondents were covered by the inclusion criteria (having experiences of negative encounters with healthcare personnel) and were included in our study. This sub-group was large enough to allow statistical analysis. The drop-out rate was relatively high, but considering that the sample included several individuals with severe diseases, it may be argued that the response rate is acceptable.\textsuperscript{37} However, I will discuss alternative views on participation of individuals with low health standard more thoroughly below (section 6.1.3.1.2: “Patients with a low health standard”).

The results in studies III-IV are derived from a systematically randomized fractional sample. Assuming that the sampling process has been conducted properly, the results we obtain from the sample should be more or less representative of the general population in Stockholm. The sample size for the survey based studies III and IV were set to n=1 500. This number was chosen because it was estimated to be sufficient to yield statistically significant results even with a low response rate. However, the questions of generalizability and representativeness are not a primary concern in these studies. Our purpose has primarily been to find and describe types of negative encounters or barriers to filing complaints, not their prevalence or distribution. It is, however, problematic for a qualitative study if some results (types of encounter in the present instance) never occur in the material, due to groups with unique experiences not participating. This would be the case, for example, if complaints of racism were absent
from the material due to no participants with different ethnic backgrounds participating in the study (however, regarding this specific example, we did manage to identify such encounters).

Are the findings generalizable to a broader population, for example to the population of Sweden? As mentioned earlier, due to the specific target population the findings of study II are probably not. Study I contains complaints about healthcare encounters experienced in Stockholm County by residents of Stockholm County. However, the findings on different types of complaint are similar to other studies of complaints on encounters, for example to Patientnämnden in Halland and northern Sweden, which speaks in favour of their being representative also experiences of a broader population. Studies III and IV, although conducted in Stockholm County, were not explicitly confined to experiences gained in Stockholm County, nor did we exclude descriptions of experiences gained elsewhere in Sweden. Since the Swedish healthcare system is more or less similarly organized all over the country, it might be reasonable to assume that similar experiences are likely to appear independently of whether you are in Stockholm or, say, in Umeå.

What people perceive as negative encounters is probably fairly similar in many countries, but factors such as healthcare systems (private or tax-funded, developed or under-developed), culture, values, perceptions of people’s right to self-determination and the like are likely to affect people’s expectations of the healthcare system and their perception of the healthcare encounter. Therefore, great caution must be exercised when attempting to generalize many of the findings in our studies to other countries.

6.1.3.1 *Drop out*

We know from earlier studies that men, younger persons, immigrants, and persons with less education are under-represented as participants in surveys, and it is reasonable to assume that the same excluding bias affects all our studies to some extent. In our studies too, for example, there is an under-representation of men and younger persons as participants. An educated guess is that immigrants as well as persons with less education may also have participated to a lesser extent. I have not been able to investigate such factors more profoundly within this thesis. However, I will comment more in detail below on two potential drop-out factors that may have special relevance to studies of healthcare encounters: language and health status.
6.1.3.1.1 Language

One issue which possibly biased the studies was that the studies were exclusively conducted in Swedish. It is difficult to quantify the effect of this language factor, but it is reasonable to assume that it affects all four studies. This is problematic if it means that participants who do not master the Swedish language are exposed to structural exclusion.

However, due to resource limitations, a questionnaire can only be distributed in a limited number of languages and there is no way of ensuring that the languages chosen will cover the needs of the whole sample population. This is the reality for everyone who works with surveys, and the problem is more or less accepted as valid losses.\textsuperscript{76} As already noted, such problem is also of less importance to qualitative studies than to quantitative ones.

Exclusion due to language difficulties is primarily pertinent in the survey-based studies, but probably also affects complaints to PaN about negative encounters. For example, for a non-native Swedish speaker it may be particularly difficult to find information about where to file complaints, especially if written information in hospitals and other healthcare facilities is mostly given in Swedish. Supposing that the person still manages to find the information, then another problem arises: that of registering the complaint. If there are no interpreters available, the complaint may not be translated, in which case it will not be registered.

Efforts have been made to reach and support these patients, and information in a variety of languages is now to be found, for example, on the PaN website.

6.1.3.1.2 Patients with a low health standard

It has also been claimed that patients with a heavy disease burden have a lower response rate in surveys compared to the general population.\textsuperscript{115} This is a logical consequence of being weakened by disease, and may result in an under-representation of this population and their specific complaints. The same reasoning is probably also applicable when it comes to those who are worse off health-wise, for instance patients in palliative care or patients with multiple or chronic diseases.

One may, however, question whether this also holds good regarding surveys that have to do with negative encounters in healthcare. Patients with severe diseases often have a higher degree of accumulated healthcare experiences and, as argued for in study II, have accordingly been exposed to a higher risk of being negatively encountered.
Could it not be that these patients are actually the ones who are particularly keen on participating? If you have experiences of negative encounters, is it not likely that you are more motivated to participate in a survey about negative encounters compared to those without such experiences?

6.1.3.1.2.1 Recall bias
A related issue concerns recall bias. Briefly; people react to and remember negative impressions more clearly than those they perceive as being positive; and contributes more strongly to the final impression than positive impressions and experiences does. This means that there should be a possible risk of a proportional over-reporting of negative events in comparison to positive events in surveys about healthcare encounters.

It has been argued that being attuned to bad/negative events rather than good/positive events is a general principle or law of psychological phenomena. This view is based on a presumed evolutionary requirement for organisms to be attentive to bad and presumably dangerous events in order to survive and successfully pass on their genes. The researchers of a thorough review of the literature about the issue concludes that there are hardly any exceptions to this principle, and add: “From our perspective, it is evolutionary adaptive for bad to be stronger than good”. This might explain which encounters the respondents remember and choose to describe. Most people expect to be treated nicely when they visit healthcare and do not reflect on the encounter unless something unexpected happened. This effect, however, has no relevant impact on the qualitative studies, although it might have helped the respondents to provide us with interesting data.

6.1.4 Other methodological concerns
Apart from general considerations regarding validity, reproducibility, and generalizability, there are also a few other aspects of methodological choices that I wish to clarify. In the following section I will first motivate our choice of sample populations and comment on our lack of focus on general background factors. I will then briefly comment on specific considerations that are relevant to the separate studies that I have not addressed in the above sections.
6.1.4.1  *Gender, education, country of birth, social status and health status*

The studies included in the thesis do not thoroughly analyse many of the known confounding factors such as gender, education, country of birth, social status, or health status. We claim such analysis would steer the focus away from the phenomenon of experienced negative encounters. Such analyses are important as a means to promote equal and adapted healthcare distribution and to promote patient safety, but require theoretical explanation-models that go beyond the scope of the thesis. We strongly recommend further complementary research on these factors in order to ensure a highly qualitative healthcare.

6.1.4.2  *Excluded background question*

Another methodological consideration relevant to studies III and IV is the issue of constructing relevant questions for the studies’ purposes. In order to design a successful questionnaire it is essential to carefully consider *why* each question should be included and *how* it is intended to be operationalized.\(^{112,118}\)

When developing the questionnaire serving as basis for study III and IV, we were careful to formulate, test, and re-formulate all the queries carefully in order to create clear and understandable questions, and limit all risks of misinterpretation. We also included background questions regarding gender, age and previous experience of having worked within healthcare, in hope of seeing if there was a difference in how respondents with professional experiences from the healthcare perceived encounters in healthcare, compared with respondents without such professional background. However, we did not anticipate the broad range of work experience within healthcare that was stated, and since we had not developed any precise definition of the professions to be included in the analysis, we were eventually forced to exclude this question from the analysis. (See appendix 2: Background questions) The lesson learned was to enlarge more carefully on how to operationalize the background variables to ensure validity and reliability,\(^{113}\) but also to be careful to clearly motivate each question.
6.1.5 Studies I-IV, specific methodological considerations

6.1.5.1 Study I:
The material analysed in Study I had already undergone categorization with reference to the main content of the complaint conducted by Patientnämnden before we took part of the material. Hence, there is a risk of complaints about negative encounters having “disappeared” during this process if they were deemed subordinate to another complaint. As with the case of drop-out factors, we believe that this does not affect the types of encounter occurring in the material. However, we admit a possible risk of the proportional distribution of the complaints being affected. For instance, complaints about being denied a requested treatment or examination could theoretically have been categorized as a complaint regarding “medical treatment”

6.1.5.2 Study III-IV:
In-depth interviews or focus group discussions are generally considered to be adequate methods for generating qualitative accounts of experiences. However, since we were not looking to convey complex social relationships or interaction, \textsuperscript{113} but rather “what”, “where”, “when”, and “how”, \textsuperscript{118} i.e. straightforward descriptions, a large sample, and maximal variation, we concluded that a semi-structured questionnaire would be a proper instrument to gather information about our research interest. In surveys you lose the opportunity to gain profound understanding, but instead receive input from a much larger sample of respondents than would ever be possible with the other options. Also, in study IV we wanted to find out how many of the respondents who had experience of lodging complaints with PaN, and also to measure trust in and general experience of Swedish healthcare – and to answer these questions you need a large sample.

6.1.6 Ethical considerations

6.1.6.1 Covering letters
The two questionnaires had, in accordance with the formal requirements for surveys, a covering letter attached describing the aim and scope of the study. The covering letters contained information about the participation being confidential, voluntary, and that respondents were free to withdraw from participation without having to give a reason for doing so. Information about how to get into contact with the researchers was enclosed. See appendices 1 and 2.
6.1.6.2 *On asking potentially harmful questions*

There are a few specific aspects that the researcher needs to consider when sending out a survey about potentially sensitive issues. The first is that it might be something the respondent is ashamed of, which may cause them not to answer (internal drop-out).\(^{115, 119}\) It may also, in some cases, cause them to modify their descriptions of the actual experience (social desirability bias).\(^{115}\)

It is also crucial to carefully consider whether your research can cause harm to the participant. Could asking questions about negative encounters possibly have any negative consequences, of such a kind as to provoke discomfort by reviving traumas and unpleasant memories? Will the presumed results be worth the risk of causing the participant harm in any way? It is, furthermore, advisable to be prepared to take responsibility for the respondent’s psychological or emotional reaction and to offer support if needed.

We asked ourselves these questions before sending out the questionnaire (Studies II and III) but concluded it to be sufficient to provide the respondents with information about how to contact the research team. Should extra need of support be needed, this would be handled ad hoc. The decision not to plan for potential supportive follow-up was based on the judgment that since the aim and intent of the study had been clearly described in the covering letter, the respondents could choose to neglect the questionnaire as soon as they realized that they might find it upsetting, or send in an empty questionnaire. The latter alternative was exercised by 88 persons.
6.2 Summarizing Discussion of Main Findings

So what have we learned in these studies? First of all, our suspicion that negative experiences of encounters in Swedish healthcare might be more widespread than what is seen in public reports seems to have been justified. However, this finding might be considered as not very surprising, given the fact that a general tendency of underreporting of complaints and adverse events is well-known from previous research.\textsuperscript{120–123} Nonetheless, looking at the details of the results, we will see that there is plenty more to be learned.

6.2.1 Experiences of Negative Encounters in Healthcare

The commonness of negative experiences of encounters in healthcare was first noted during Study I, where we made a complementary snapshot review of complaints on medical treatment and found that about one-third of them also contained complaints about a negative encounter. In Study II, 28\% of the respondents stated that they had experiences of negative encounters. Finally, in the questionnaire analysed in papers III and IV, 37\% of the respondents were found to have negative experiences. Studies III and IV, however, differed notably from Studies I and II in their design, since they included accounts of experiences gained both in the role as patient and in the role as a relative, but also because the questionnaire did not have a time restriction as to when the experience was gained. These structural differences, and the fact that the questionnaire clearly addressed the topic of negative encounters (with a potential risk of selection bias), may explain the somewhat higher proportion of negative experiences found in these studies.

6.2.2 Descriptions of the Negative Encounter

There is consistency between the studies about what the respondents perceive as a negative encounter. Complaints on arrogant, nonchalant, and disrespectful behaviour were frequently reported as reasons for feeling negatively encountered (and also wronged). These terms are all more or less generic, but paint a picture of a patient-caregiver relation that does not live up to basic social requirements such as treating each other with respect and consideration. Other complaints concern not being listened to, being ignored, or not being believed. Such experiences can be interpreted rather as a question of being deprived of your right to be involved in decisions concerning your own treatment, and being hindered in asserting your right to self-determination.
Availability, stressed personnel, poor coordination, and inadequate routines point at experiences gained through exposure to what may be a substandard healthcare service, yet they are often perceived as a matter of being negatively encountered by a specific individual. Such experiences may have to do with patients’ expectations on the healthcare service. When a caregiver is unable to live up to the patient’s expectations, the patient may hold that person responsible, although at times it may rather be a matter of organizational flaws or rationing decisions. Experiences of violence, coercion, sexually undue behaviour, discrimination, and verbal assaults are also present in all included studies, although not very frequently. The art and the occurrence of the types of experiences of encounters found in our studies harmonize well with previous knowledge about experiences of negative encounters. 5,10,37,41,44,124

Another take-home message is that patients do not necessarily separate between how they are treated by medical staff (the encounter) and the medical treatment they receive. Rather, to many they are two sides of the same coin. It should not come as a surprise that those seeking care expect a certain standard of competence and professionalism regarding both medical treatment and how they are treated as persons. A person who seeks care ultimately does so in hope of feeling better afterwards and in “feeling better”, it is reasonable to assume that the patient includes both physical and mental comfort since both are essential to wellbeing. That many patients do not differentiate between the encounter and the medical treatment is a strong indication that the quality of the encounter needs to be prioritized in healthcare.

6.2.3 Underlying causes for experiences of negative encounters: attitudes and behavior, or structure?

An interpretation of the findings is that negative experiences of encounters can, on a basic level, be explained by the staff’s attitudes and behaviour (professional practice) or by how the healthcare service is structured. These factors may also interact. Personal attitudes and behaviour may not always correspond with official values in the healthcare system, and might affect how caregivers interact with certain patients. They may also be caused by a lack of professionalism, where the caregivers fail to adjust their expression of personal emotions or behaviour to the requirements of their professional role, thus failing to meet the expectations of the patients.

Structurally caused experiences of negative encounters, however, often relate to the patient perceiving the caregiver as stressed, unavailable, or unwilling to agree to a
requested examination or treatment. The behaviour of healthcare personnel is highly influenced by organizational and structural restrictions as well as official priority settings. Working in a sub-standard environment, with harsh rationing restrictions, may be frustrating for the healthcare staff, who may not be able to hide their discontent, or even project their frustration on the patients.

6.2.3.1 Communication
Many of the complaints on negative encounters would probably never have been filed if there had been a better communication. This statement is probably applicable to many of the negative experiences, but concerns, in particular, complaints regarding poor information, not feeling listened to, being interrupted, or complaints against caregivers who have not kept agreements. Communication practices can be affected by structural aspects, such as allocation of time for each patient, or personal attitudes or beliefs (for example, people may have different ideas about how to address elders), but are also in many cases caused by poor communication skills by the caregiver. Good communication skills include the capability to listen and to summarize, to inform, to include, and discuss with the patient on a level suitable for that specific individual, and is associated with better safety and positive health outcomes. Poor communication is associated with lower adherence to treatment, lower levels of patient satisfaction, higher complaint rates, and an increased risk of exposure to medical malpractice and adverse events, factors that may lead to poorer health outcomes, and put patient safety in danger.

Communication has been proposed as important for improvement of the healthcare encounter and healthcare service in all four included studies. In study I communication was proposed as a means for the caregiver to understand how the patient perceives the encounter, since it enables adjustment to the patient’s needs. In study II and III we discuss that improving the communication skills among healthcare staff would be a potentially effective way to prevent both structurally determined negative experiences of encounters and negative experiences of encounters affected by the caregiver’s attitudes and behaviour. The findings in study IV indicate the importance of a well-functioning communication as a way to identify barriers to report complaints and to better support and reach patients who need help to lodge complaints to Patientnämnden.
6.2.4 Effects of the encounter

Yet another insight is that the impact of experienced negative encounters can be meaningfully measured. In previous research, we have learned about associations between experiences of encounters and different types of health outcomes. In study II we were able to ourselves see associations between the sick-listed persons’ experience of negative encounters and the emotional outcome of feeling wronged. We also found that a combination of accumulated negative experiences may increase the perception of having been wronged. Furthermore, a related study (based on the same survey but not included in this thesis) showed that negative encounters and feeling wronged also have an impact on the respondents’ perceptions of having been hindered or supported in their return to work (RTW) after having been on sick-leave. Positive encounters and feeling respected significantly made the respondents feel supported, while experiences of negative encounters and having felt wronged were considered to have a hindering effect on their ability to return to work.

These are but a few examples of measurable impacts of negative and positive experiences of healthcare encounters, and we strongly suggest the field to be further explored. For example, it would be interesting to try to estimate the actual impact of experiences of encounters and RTW by comparing the results with existing registers of these respondents’ sick-leave length.

6.2.4.1 On feeling wronged

In study II 64% of the participants who had negative experiences of healthcare encounters also claimed to have felt wronged. This is indeed a rather high number, and may to some extent be explained by the fact that the respondents arguably belong to a vulnerable patient group with severe medical conditions. According to the respondents, feeling wronged was often preceded by nonchalant behaviour, having felt disrespected, not having been believed, or that the caregiver had doubted the patient’s condition. Men were found more liable to feel wronged if exposed to negative encounters than women.

However, these results give no indication as to why such large proportion of the respondents felt wronged. One possible suggestion could be that patients actually are worse encountered today. Reorganizations and constraints on the healthcare system may have hampered the space for individualized care in many public healthcare
settings, with little room for prioritizing a pleasant encounter. Another could be that patients of today object more to being negatively encountered than was the case some years ago. This may be due to changes in the healthcare system where the aim for patient centeredness has steered the patient towards a more client-oriented status, but may also have to do with increased access to information and knowledge about patient rights. This theory may partly explain why younger persons report negative encounters more often than older persons. A third potential reason could be that the use of the term wronged has increased simply because the connotation of the term has expanded. The answer, yet to be found, may include a mixture of them all.

6.2.5 Barriers to filing complaints on negative encounters
Study IV deviates from the others since it does not focus on types of negative encounters, but instead on how people act after having been exposed to them. We found a considerable discrepancy between the number of respondents claiming to have had reasons to file an official complaint of a negative encounter with Patientnämnden (18.5%) and the number stating that they had actually done so (2.7%). These numbers indicate that such complaints, at least to Patientnämnden, are largely under-reported.

The main obstacles to filing complaints were that the respondent, at the time, did not have the strength to do it, did not think it would make a difference anyway, or that they did not know where to turn.

Reasons that are connected to “lack of knowledge” (Second-level themes, see Table 5) may indicate a lack of information, reasons connected to “Weakness” could be interpreted as a sign of insufficient support, and reasons connected to a belief of it to be futile may in its turn possibly be taken as a sign of low trust in the healthcare system. These responses illuminate the importance of a supportive healthcare system that provides the patients with information as well as support in lodging complaints. Complaints about adverse events are, after all, an important source of information, germane to the improvement of everyday activity.

6.2.6 Age and gender
The findings that younger persons had more negative experiences of encounters than older persons, and that women had more negative experiences than men were consistent through all the studies included. These findings are also consistent with results in for example Norway, Germany, and Sweden.
Our studies offer no explanation as to why younger persons feel less well encountered in healthcare. Up-to-date studies by others are also few and far between, and do not propose any relevant explanations to this trend.

More is written about gender differences. Although we did not set out to study gender differences, the findings of our studies tally closely with previous knowledge about women’s more extensive experiences of negative encounters in healthcare compared to men.\[42-44, 65, 67\] Does this mean that we know that women are actually worse treated? Some researchers question such interpretations and, without impugning the validity of these findings, I also believe that it may be of interest to discuss alternative approaches. As argued in study I, what our studies show is not in fact that women are subjected to worse encounters but that they perceive themselves as subjected to worse encounters. A similar interpretation is presented by Pukk et al.,\[69\] namely that women might have a lower threshold for acceptance of negative encounters and file complaints for “less” than men do. In relation to the findings in Study II, where we found that women reported more experiences of negative encounters than men, and that men reported significantly higher levels of feeling wronged if being negatively encountered than women, this interpretation gains some support. If it is true that women are more negatively encountered than men, why then do a higher proportion of the men feel wronged, which on an emotional scale represents a stronger negative feeling than, for example, not feeling listened to (item of negative encounter)? Possible explanations may be related to traditional gender structures, where women conventionally have had lower status than men, and that this makes them perceive encounters differently.\[67\] For example, does the fact that men are more prone to feel wronged once they are not encountered well have anything to do with males having higher expectations of being positively encountered?\[127\]

Women’s lower status may partly explain that they are in fact more poorly treated than men, but it could also mean that women become more receptive, or sensitive, to not being encountered well, being reluctant to let discriminatory traditions repeat themselves. This would be one possible explanation as to why a larger proportion of women report experiences of negative encounters. Women’s lower expectations of the encounter may also explain why they are less likely to feel wronged by it – it doesn’t come as a great surprise. Men, on the other hand, may be less sensitive to negative behaviour since, expecting as they do, to be treated well, they tend not to interpret the encounters negatively. On the other hand, when it becomes obvious to
them that the encounter is negative, they tend to react more strongly to the transgression by more frequently feeling wronged.

Another view could be that men hesitate to complain unless they consider the event as truly severe. This behaviour may also be determined by gender roles, where the male is expected to be confident, strong, and to not show vulnerability.

Our findings offer no clear guidance, but we cannot exclude that the reason why women report more experiences of negative encounters could be that they, for different reasons, have a lower complaint threshold.

6.3 ENCOUNTERS IN HEALTHCARE – WHY ARE THEY SO IMPORTANT?

In any informal meeting between individuals a certain level of politeness, truthfulness, caring, and respect is expected. In a healthcare setting there are further requirements and expectations. One might think that a healthcare system which successfully treats and prevents injuries, diseases, and other medical conditions would be considered to fulfil its purpose. So why this focus on healthcare staff behaving respectfully and pleasantly? Part of the explanation might be found in the perception of professionalism. An important aspect of professionalism in healthcare concerns mutual expectations of the patient–caregiver relation. The parties entering into a doctor-patient relationship make a special sort of social contract based on the patient’s right to proper information regarding their diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment, while the caregiver is entitled to relevant information from the patient. Beauchamp and Childress refer to this obligation as veracity and claim that adherence to the rule of veracity fosters trust, essential in all healthcare relations.¹²⁸

The relation between caregiver and patient is also special due to the often vulnerable situation of the patient and the degree of intimacy which requires the caregiver to act in a respectful manner. A healthcare consultation often involves a certain level of nakedness and physical contact, as well as a dialogue regarding private and potentially sensitive issues; a way of interacting that is normally reserved for spouses or partners and that requires a high level of trust, an important aspect of which is to also guarantee confidentiality. Trust is essential in healthcare for many reasons, and the building of trust is essential to patient safety. If patients do not have confidence in the caregiver, they might not give the caregiver all information needed for correct diagnosis.¹⁴ A low
level of trust may affect healthcare-seeking behaviour by causing delays or, at worst, causing the patient not to seek care at all.

So this gives us two preliminary answers to why encounters in healthcare are important: the positive encounter is an important aspect of professionalism in healthcare and since patients are placed in an intimate situation when in a vulnerable condition (which is to say that healthcare encounters are particularly sensitive). It is therefore important that patients feel that they can trust the healthcare staff.

6.3.1 Encounters and perceptions of encounters

Before we proceed to discuss in further detail the reasons why healthcare encounters matter, I would like to stress that what happens in such an encounter and how the encounter is perceived by the patient or the caregiver are not always the same thing. In study I this is demonstrated in a model showing four theoretical ways of perceiving the healthcare encounter with regard to whether the complaint can be objectively or subjectively justified (See Figure 2). As the model illustrates, a neutral observer would probably not label all complaints as valid, so arguably the question remains: why should we care about the perceptions of healthcare encounters? As already mentioned, trust is a relevant aspect of healthcare encounters. There is no intrinsic connection between trustworthiness and trust in the sense of trustworthy behaviour by one party guaranteeing the confidence of the other party. While a reasonable behaviour by healthcare staff certainly is relevant to trust, it does not settle the issue. Whether an individual feels that she can trust another depends on perceptions and interpretations made by that individual. Therefore the patient’s subjective experiences are highly relevant to that patient’s ability to trust the healthcare system and the individuals who represents it.

6.3.2 The ethics of healthcare encounters

Let us now take a more systematic look at the ethically relevant aspects of experiences of encounters in healthcare. I will use the four bioethical principles propounded in the influential book *Principles of biomedical ethics* by Beauchamp and Childress as tools for analysis: beneficence, non-maleficence, justice, and respect for autonomy. Although there are other ways of analysing the moral territory of healthcare, these principles have become increasingly predominant as healthcare principles, and are
often advocated by practitioners as being both basic and useful in understanding the ethical problems in healthcare.

6.3.2.1  **Beneficence and non-maleficence**

The principle not to harm (non-maleficence) provides a strong argument for not exposing the patient to negative encounters, while the principle to do good (beneficence) provides a strong argument in favor of exposing the patient to positive experiences of encounters. This conclusion is based on the empirical findings that positive encounters seem to generate positive effects and negative experiences of encounters adverse effects with regards to the patients’ health, wellbeing, and self-assessed ability to return to work (RTW). Since the raison d’être of the healthcare system is the promotion of health and wellbeing, there is little reason to doubt that positive encounters are instrumentally valuable in healthcare, while negative encounters are correspondingly undesirable.

It is hard to find arguments in favor of negative encounters in healthcare. If such encounters can be justified at all, their justification would have to rely on the premise that the consequences would otherwise be worse for the patient. In other words, it is imaginable that a negative encounter may on some rare occasions be a means to a better end than what would otherwise occur. However, this would still not ascribe a positive value to the behaviour underlying the experience of the negative encounter, but to its effects.

The argumentation so far is entirely consequentialist. It should therefore be asked if negative encounters also have a negative intrinsic value, or if their negative value stems entirely from their consequences. While beneficence is normally understood as a purely consequentialist principle, non-maleficence can be understood in both consequentialist and deontological terms. The deontological aspects of non-maleficence involve avoiding actions that are bad in themselves. Thus, not to harm someone may be understood as avoiding treating someone with disrespect and avoiding to disrespect that person’s rights. This standpoint involves respect for autonomy, and giving every individual a fair treatment without being discriminated against. I will return to this later in the discussion.

Before going any further, it is also worth noting that someone may in fact do harm while intending to do good. Events perceived as negative encounters may be the consequences of caregivers’ unsuccessful attempts to do good to the patient. There are,
for instance, cases where patients have complained about excessive care or that caregivers in their attempt to provide good care have taken a patronizing approach, with the consequence that the patient has felt degraded, treated like a child, or humiliated.

6.3.2.2 Justice
As noted above, one way in which negative encounters may be bad in themselves is that they may be unfair. For instance, negative encounters due to acts of discrimination or segregation are obviously problematic from the point of view of justice and fairness (at least if discrimination is understood as being illegitimately being treated worse than others or worse than one could reasonably expect to be). One may also interpret complaints from patients who have been denied examinations or treatments they desire or feel entitled to as founded on their perception of fairness. They may, of course, be wrong about this. Refusals to offer examinations or treatments are generally based on medical grounds or, for instance in cases with extremely expensive treatments, due to limited resources. Paradoxical as it may seem, this means that such decisions not to offer examinations or treatments may actually be justified on equity grounds. Nonetheless, some complaints may be grounded in actual injustices and many are most likely grounded in perceived ones.

6.3.2.3 Respect for Autonomy
This principle states decision-capable patients’ right to self-determination. A positive encounter is a prerequisite of good communication, which in turn is a precondition for making the patient capable of participation and self-determination. Not to be listened to is among the most common complaints about encounters in the healthcare system. According to the Swedish guidelines for patient-centered care patients should be actively involved in decisions regarding their own care. To enable patients to exercise their autonomy, one has to provide relevant information as well as maintaining good communication. Arguably, this has not been achieved in cases where patients have experienced that they have not been listened to. Thus it can be argued that this kind of poor service involves lack of respect for patient autonomy.

A disrespectful encounter could also be interpreted as evidence that the caregiver does not see the patients as equals, and therefore does not grant them the dignity they are entitled to.
To sum up, one can say that a positive encounter meets the requirements of all four principles, while a negative encounter goes against one or more of them.
7 APPLICATION AND SUGGESTED POLICIES

Since negative healthcare encounters are arguably bad as such and are also related to factors such as delayed treatment, negative health outcomes and thereby loss in wellbeing, reduced trust in the healthcare system, and perceived delay in the patient’s ability to return to work, I am convinced it is important to actively try to prevent or at least reduce them. The findings from the studies included in this thesis do not suggest specific practical methods to be used, but imply a number of potential strategies. Before taking action, one needs to know at what level to act. We propose that experiences of negative encounters can be explained by two general factors: structure and individual behaviour and attitudes. In order to do something about the problem one must first identify the level it stems from.

7.1 STRUCTURE

Changes in structure generally require policy decisions on a political or organizational level and often actualize the question of resource allocation. Changes in distribution of resources may affect the healthcare staff’s work conditions and ability to carry out their activities with high quality, and thus how patients and their relatives perceive the healthcare encounter.

- Increased allocation of resources would enable healthcare to better meet and satisfy patients’ requests for examinations and treatments. For example, it is likely that there would be fewer complaints about availability, short consultations, and stressed personnel if the workforce was expanded and more time could be allocated for each patient. Also, complaints about waiting time both in emergency care and when referring patients to specialists would probably decrease if more resources were calculated for each patient.

- If increased resources are not an option, one can try to better communicate the official priorities, which may make it easier for patients to assess whether they get the service they are entitled to, and on what grounds (which may lead them to perceive their healthcare encounters differently, though this cannot be guaranteed). Such information to patients may also have the positive effect of nurturing realistic expectations as to what patients will receive from the healthcare system in the future.
How healthcare distributes information to patients in different contexts is largely a structural issue, although dissatisfaction with information is often perceived by the patient as an issue of poor communication skills on the part of a specific caregiver. In emergency care, for example, improved communication of information about the anticipated waiting time may be a structural measure for improvement. Routines for this have already been implemented in many healthcare settings, but there are still sites lacking this service, which means that there is room for improvement. This measure coupled with clear communication of priorities, I argue, would avert many complaints to do with distribution of care and waiting time. I base this view on previous findings presented in literature, as well as on the testimonies from participants in my studies (for example in study I), stressing that patients usually show understanding for adverse events, as long as they are given an excuse, or at least an explanation.129

7.2 INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR AND ATTITUDES

How one behaves towards others may depend on deeply rooted convictions and habits but also on temporary circumstances such as trouble at home, lack of sleep, or momentary mood swings. Although potentially difficult to modify, healthcare encounters can be improved through education and training aiming at self-reflection and self-control.

Training during medical education, nursing education, and other specialties should emphasize the importance of positive encounters in healthcare, and provide opportunities for the students to practise on this. One way of improving skills in the handling of patient encounters is to let students practise on each other in a fictional situation. Such practice can, for example, be documented by video recording and discussed afterwards by the participating students and their peers. If a self-reflective process is made part of the education, the students will be better prepared for their future meeting with patients.

Training can also focus directly on successful communication. The students may benefit from basic knowledge about different models for communication,
and this way learn to adapt the information to the perceptual level and capability of different patients

- Continuous reflection and feedback on students’ practical experiences from clinical situations may also influence behaviours and attitudes. This makes it important for the students’ that supervisors or superiors actively monitor and support their professional development.

- Training in ethics may be a way to influence the attitudes of future healthcare professionals, in particular by stressing the importance of respectful treatment, including respect for autonomy and personal integrity. It is also a way to generally promote the students’ capacity for critical and constructive reflection on their own and others’ behaviour. In such training, one may choose to refer back to the main types of ethical theories (deontological theories, consequentialism, and virtue ethics) by emphasizing patient rights and ethical restrictions on what behaviour healthcare staff may subject patients to, by highlighting possible consequences of healthcare encounters and why they matter, and by discussing which personal characteristics, such as empathy, patience, sensitivity, being a good listener, and being guided by a desire to do good and not harm, are particularly desirable among medical staff for ensuring a positive encounter.

Apart from the structurally and individually adapted suggestions for policies, I also would like to take the opportunity to stress a few more things of relevance for handling and preventing future complaints, namely the need for supportive systems for reporting healthcare complaints and the importance of acknowledging that more and more healthcare encounters are “digital encounters”.

7.2.1.1 Supportive systems
It is of great importance to develop and maintain efficient and supportive systems for reporting healthcare complaints. It is central to extend the accessibility of the service to all patients, and to ensure that no groups are excluded due, for example, to language skill shortcomings. Information in different languages, availability of interpreters, and proactive communication of the services to the patients and healthcare staff may be of
great relevance here. The system(s) should also be able to analyse and constructively use the reported complaints in continuous improvement of the healthcare experience.

7.2.1.2 Digital encounters

To an increasing extent, patients are interacting with healthcare by other means than physical (IRL) encounters. Advice, time booking, and renewal of prescriptions are already being handled by many people via the computer screen, touch pad, or Smartphone. Since there is an experience of an encounter with “the other side” regardless of whether the meeting takes place in real life or is digitally mediated, it is important that the insights from studies of interpersonal encounters should also be applied as guiding principles when designing and implementing e-health applications.

Arguably, the digital encounter has properties that can be more satisfying than the human encounter. Here are just a few examples: digital services are more available; bookings and cancellations are synchronized and easier to manage; information can be read and re-read, which lowers the risk of misunderstandings; you do not risk exposing your problems or worries to other patients or unauthorized staff (which may happen, for instance, in waiting rooms). An educated guess is that user-friendly and well-functioning interfaces will be perceived as positive digital encounters, while counter-intuitive and inert interfaces will be looked upon as negative encounters. Therefore, it is important to carefully consider what features and interaction design make patients perceive the interaction with healthcare through a digital interface as a positive encounter.
8 SIGNIFICANCE
As has already been thoroughly discussed, maintaining a standard of positive and respectful encounters in healthcare is important in its own right as well as for positive health outcomes and patients’ trust in healthcare. The field of research regarding encounters in healthcare has expanded during the last decade but little is still known about the general population’s experiences of negative encounters in healthcare. This thesis aimed at filling that gap. A solid empirical base is a precondition for a constructive debate about the occurrence and implications of positive and negative encounters in healthcare. It is also needed in order to accomplish fruitful changes. The aim of this project was to provide the relevant knowledge.
9 IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Interviews with patients feeling wronged
Interviews would be a natural next step in order to deepen our knowledge about patients who feel wronged in their healthcare encounters. This would enable us to better understand the mechanisms behind the experience of feeling wronged, and perhaps also to examine the contemporary use of language (discourse analysis) in order to find out if the increased use of the term may be due to linguistic changes. It would also be of interest to examine how men and women reason about their perceptions of being wronged.

Encounters and the idea of responsibility
It would also be interesting to explore encounters of certain specific patient groups, and the idea of responsibility. The question is whether the healthcare staff’s own values and attitudes may sometimes affect the encounter of certain patients, for example patients with lung cancer or obesity, conditions that may be perceived as self-inflicted. Values and attitudes may include perceptions of the patient’s own responsibility for certain illnesses and which treatment interventions should be offered. The healthcare professionals’ own values may conflict with official values in healthcare and could, if put into practice, mean some patient groups being discriminated against, stigmatized, or not receiving adequate medical treatment.

Impact of encounters and RTW
Previous studies have found associations between experiences of encounters and health outcomes. In a study related to this thesis, our research group also found evidence that experiences of negative encounters and feeling wronged are perceived as hindering the respondents (patients on sick-leave) from returning to work (RTW), while a positive encounter and the feeling of being respected (as opposed to feeling wronged) is perceived as facilitating the respondents RTW. However, it would be interesting to investigate whether there are actual differences in duration of sick-leave between these two groups. A proposed idea for a future study would therefore be to review the actual period of sick-leave for each respondent in relation to a questionnaire about factors having an impact on RTW.
10 CONCLUSION

This thesis concerns experiences of encounters in Swedish healthcare. A positive encounter in healthcare is important as such, but also because of the impact it may have on health outcomes, wellbeing, and trust in the healthcare system.

The focus of this thesis has been on negative experiences of encounters in healthcare. Being met with arrogance, disrespect, not being listened to, stressed personnel, and rude behaviour are some of the aspects of events that are perceived as a negative encounter.

We propose that experiences of negative encounters may be explained by two overarching explanatory factors: structure of the healthcare organization, and the staffs’ attitudes and behaviour. Depending on which of the two factors underlies the experience, different strands of preventive measures are available.

Poor communication was also identified as a factor prevalent in many events of negative encounters, and is suggested as a main target for intervention. Good communication is likely to avert many complaints attributable to structure, but also complaints induced by inability of the healthcare staff to establish a well-functioning patient–caregiver relation adapted to the needs of the patient.

Only one out of seven respondents who claimed to have had reason to complain about negative encounters in healthcare had gone through with their complaint to Patientnämnden. We conclude that such adverse events are heavily under-reported and that knowledge of barriers to filing complaints should be used constructively when developing inclusive, supportive and safe systems for handling future healthcare complaints.

To improve patients’ experiences of encounters in healthcare, several different strands of action have been suggested, including reallocation or increased resources, communication of official priorities, and improved information about waiting time at the sites. We also suggest practice in ethical reflection and self-reflection during medical education, practice of communication skills, and continuous support and supervision of the students’ professional development.
This thesis has its point of departure in my personal experience of how people seem to relate to the subject of negative encounters on a personal level, and how they are often eager to discuss their own experiences of negative encounters in healthcare with me. Is their inclination to discuss these experiences perhaps grounded in not having felt listened to and confirmed during the healthcare encounter, and thus feeling driven to seek acknowledgment elsewhere? These people have generally not been seriously ill. On the contrary, their experiences often come from seeking care for minor ailments. The way I see it, this is yet another indication of how positive encounters are fundamental to what the patient expect from the healthcare service. For this reason, and all the reasons forest forth in this thesis, it is evident that research and interventions aimed at achieving positive encounters in healthcare need to be prioritized.
SVENSK SAMMANFATTNING

Att få ett gott bemötande i sjukvården är något som de allra flesta tycker är viktigt. Som patient eller närstående befinner man sig ofta i en utsatt ställning då man är försvagad på grund av sjukdom, men också på grund av en ojämn maktbalans mellan patient och vårdgivare ifråga om kunskap och tillgång till resurser. Av denna anledning är det av stor vikt att sjukvårdspersonal bemöter sina patienter med respekt och omsorg. Negativa erfarenheter av bemötande i sjukvården har kunnat kopplas till upplevda negativa hälsoeffekter, och kan påverka patientens förtroende för sjukvården.

Det övergripande syftet i denna avhandling var att bredda kunskapen om detta ämne, för att på så sätt möjliggöra en diskussion om potentiella strategier för att minska förekomsten av patienters upplevelser av dåligt bemötande i svensk sjukvård.

Avhandlingen består av fyra delstudier. Studie I är en registerstudie där klagomål till Patentnämnden har studerats, och studie II, III, och IV baseras på enkäter som handlar om upplevelser av bemötande i svensk sjukvård. Studie I och III har en huvudsakligen kvalitativ inriktning, medan studie II och IV i första hand är kvantitativa.


Studie II baseras på en enkät som under 2004 gick ut till långtidssjukkrivna och som handlade om deras upplevelse av bemötande i sjukvården samt hos försäkringskassan. Det primära syftet var att undersöka förekomsten av olika typer av dåligt bemötande i sjukvården samt vilken typ av bemötande som orsakade en känsla av att bli kränkt. Analysen visade att nonchalant och respektlös beteende var starkt relaterat till känslan av att bli kränkt, men även att erfarenhet av att inte bli trodd, bli ifrågasatt, att inte bli lyssnad på, samt att bli behandlad som dum var kopplat till känslan av att bli kränkt. Analysen pekar mot att känslan av att ha blivit kränkt sällan orsakas av en separat upplevelse av dåligt bemötande, utan är en effekt av
ackumulerade negativa erfarenheter. Kvinnor rapporterade oftare erfarenhet av dåligt bemötande, men män rapporterade i högre grad att de känt sig kränkta då de hade utsatts för dåligt bemötande.


Resultaten från studierna diskuteras slutligen utifrån hur de relaterar till tidigare kunskap och teorier, men även normativt utifrån ett perspektiv där fyra grundläggande principer om att göra gott, att inte göra ont, rättvisa, samt rätt till självbestämmande (autonomi) är vägledande. Slutligen presenteras ett antal potentiella strategier och åtgärder för att minska förekomsten av patienters upplevelser av dåligt bemötande i sjukvården, och på detta sätt skapa ett bättre, tryggare och mer effektivt sjukvårdsystem.
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