

Perspective

Good intentions are not enough: how informatics interventions can worsen inequality

Tiffany C. Veinot,¹ Hannah Mitchell,² and Jessica S. Ancker²

¹School of Information and Department of Health Behavior and Health Education, School of Public Health, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA and ²Department of Healthcare Policy & Research, Division of Health Informatics, Weill Cornell Medical College, New York, New York, USA

Corresponding Author: Tiffany Veinot, MLS, PhD, School of Information, University of Michigan, 3443 North Quad, 105 S. State Street, Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1285, USA (tveinot@umich.edu)

Received 6 October 2017; Revised 12 April 2018; Editorial Decision 16 April 2018; Accepted 3 May 2018

ABSTRACT

Health informatics interventions are designed to help people avoid, recover from, or cope with disease and disability, or to improve the quality and safety of healthcare. Unfortunately, they pose a risk of producing intervention-generated inequalities (IGI) by disproportionately benefiting more advantaged people. In this perspective paper, we discuss characteristics of health-related interventions known to produce IGI, explain why health informatics interventions are particularly vulnerable to this phenomenon, and describe safeguards that can be implemented to improve health equity. We provide examples in which health informatics interventions produced inequality because they were more accessible to, heavily used by, adhered to, or effective for those from socioeconomically advantaged groups. We provide a brief outline of precautions that intervention developers and implementers can take to guard against creating or worsening inequality through health informatics. We conclude by discussing evaluation approaches that will ensure that IGIs are recognized and studied.

Key words: health equity, consumer health informatics, population health informatics, social determinants of health, evaluation, unintended consequences

INTRODUCTION

Health is marked by pervasive inequalities known as health disparities. Disparities arise when disease incidence, prevalence, morbidity, mortality, or survival is worse in a population subgroup than in the general population.^{1,2} Health disparities are thought to emerge from health system disparities³ and socioeconomic factors that create differential access to “flexible resources” including money, status, power, freedom, knowledge, and social capital.^{4,5} Such flexible resources can be used to reduce negative health exposures and adopt health-enhancing behaviors.^{4,5} Differential resource access is linked to social conditions such as: inequity in education, occupational prestige, and income^{5,6}; residential segregation⁷; environmental barriers^{8,9}; stigmatization¹⁰; and discrimination.^{7,11} Accordingly, our health and healthcare are strongly influenced by our race and

ethnicity, our socioeconomic status (SES), our age, our gender, where we live, and whom we love. Health equity is important on ethical grounds, and because disparities produce negative social and economic consequences at a national scale.¹²

Those of us in health informatics aspire to improve well-being, to alleviate suffering, and to make healthcare better and safer. Because we have such benevolent goals, we often think the worst thing that could happen is for our efforts to have no effect. However, there is a real and more pernicious possibility: that our technological interventions do work, but they work better for those who are already better off. When this happens, our work actually *increases* inequality. This phenomenon, unfortunately well established in public health, is known as “intervention-generated inequality” (IGI).^{13,14}

Some of the great public health success stories of the last 50 years have been marked by IGIs. For example, during the period when the

tobacco smoking rate in the US population dramatically declined, inequality in smoking rates rose sharply. It is undoubtedly positive that the adult smoking rate has dropped from 47% in 1953 to 15% today.^{15,16} Yet in 1953, smoking rates were similar at all education levels,¹⁵ while today, fewer than 4% of graduate-degree holders smoke compared to 34% among adults with a high school-level education.¹⁶ While this does represent significant improvements in smoking rates for lower-SES people, their gains were of a much smaller magnitude than those of their more educated counterparts. Among the reasons is that some anti-smoking interventions are less effective for people with lower education levels.^{17–19} If we had a chance to revisit 20th-century anti-smoking initiatives with today's knowledge, we might instead seek policies that provided the biggest benefits to those with the least education. Benefiting this group is likely to be a good allocation of limited public resources because low-SES groups typically carry the heaviest burden of disease.

In this perspective article, we propose that health informatics interventions pose a particular risk of producing IGI because they are likely to disproportionately benefit more advantaged people. We discuss characteristics of interventions known to produce IGI, explain why informatics interventions are vulnerable to this phenomenon, and describe some precautions we can take to improve health equity through informatics.

HOW DO HEALTH-RELATED INTERVENTIONS GENERATE INEQUALITY?

An intervention produces inequality if it is (a) more accessible to, (b) adopted more frequently by, (c) adhered to more closely by, or (d) more effective in socioeconomically advantaged groups such as those with more resources or education^{13,14} (Figure 1). Because disadvantaged social status is strongly associated with worse health status,¹ the intervention can leave behind the people most in need of health-related assistance. Even in cases where interventions produce an average improvement because of beneficial effects on many individuals, they can still worsen disparities between the most and least advantaged.

Access

Inequitable access occurs when interventions are made available through channels not equally available to all. The information technologies through which we deliver informatics interventions are disproportionately available to well-off, educated, young, and urban patients^{20–23} and to urban and academic medical centers.²⁴ Computers, smartphones, and commercial health-tracking devices are used more often by people with higher incomes and education (for example, 95% of Americans earning at least \$100 000 have smartphones, compared to only 64% of those earning \$30 000 or less).^{25,26} Access to broadband Internet cannot be assumed or may be more expensive in rural settings,^{5,27} and lack of neighborhood broadband has been associated with non-adoption of patient portals.²⁸ Low-income and racial minority groups may have Internet access only on mobile devices,²⁷ and many disadvantaged groups, including seniors, may use cell phones rather than smartphones.^{27,29} In the Global South (the developing nations of Africa, Latin America, and Asia), 2G wireless remains a key infrastructure for access to the Internet.^{30,31}

Other intervention delivery channels that are disproportionately available to the better off include corporate wellness programs (available only to the employed^{32,33}) and even medical centers (available disproportionately to the insured).³⁴

Bias is another potential source of inequitable access. When we delved into socioeconomic disparities among patient portal users,

we found that minorities and uninsured patients were less likely to get portal accounts set up by their clinicians.³⁵ Although clinicians may have been merely trying to select patients likely to use the portal, the result was unequal access to what was then a novel technology.³⁵

Adoption or uptake

Early adopters who first take up innovations tend to have more social and economic resources; only later (if at all) do innovations reach those with fewer resources.^{36,37} In health informatics, we see that online mental health and substance use interventions are adopted more frequently by people with higher SES,^{38–40} even though these conditions are more prevalent among those with lower SES (eg^{41–44}). Patient portal adoption has also been marked by SES disparities, especially in the early years of portals.^{35,45}

Poor usability creates a barrier to adoption that is bigger for those with less computer experience.^{46,47} For example, less computer-savvy patients required more assistance and succeeded in fewer tasks when using an electronic patient portal.^{48,49} Chronic disease patients may need more technical or provider support to use a portal than is typically available.⁵⁰

Distrust in either technology or the medical system can be a barrier to adoption.^{51–54} African-Americans are more likely than whites to distrust the medical system and report experiencing racism in it.⁵⁵ African-Americans are also more likely express concern about threats to privacy from electronic health records.^{56,57} Barriers to adoption also arise when people cannot find experienced friends or acquaintances to help them try or learn to use a new technology, a phenomenon more likely in less affluent social networks.^{37,58–60}

Adherence

After trying an innovation, people with less formal education are more likely to drop out of it; this has been found in interventions for mental health,^{61,62} smoking,^{63–65} pediatric health conditions,⁶⁶ alcohol consumption,^{67,68} healthy eating, and physical activity.^{69–71} The pattern was also found in completion of highly structured online modules,^{61,64,72} use of less-structured interventions,^{63,66,67,69,71} and completion of assessments in a study.^{67,70} Adherence may be higher among more advantaged groups because of usability- and literacy-related demands, along with better access to money, time, and coping skills.^{73,74} Also, when people face material stressors such as housing or food insecurity, health maintenance and disease management may have lower priority.^{75,76}

Effectiveness

Informatics interventions are sometimes less effective in disadvantaged populations. In some cases, this may be because of reduced efficacy within the population (eg less numerate patients will derive less benefit from quantitative information about health risks than more numerate people will).⁷⁷ In other cases, efficacy may be similar but overall effectiveness may be impaired by the other factors noted above: poor access, adoption, or adherence.^{78–82} The effectiveness gap is clear in the evidence about information-technology interventions. For example, technology-based physical activity interventions for senior citizens result in less activity among women than men^{83,84} and among older seniors than younger ones^{85,86}—two groups already less likely to exercise.⁸⁷ Many information technology-based interventions targeting diet and obesity are less effective in those with lower SES,^{88–91} even though they are already less likely to have a healthy diet⁹² and are more likely to be obese.^{93,94} Patient education and decision-support interventions that promote patient en-

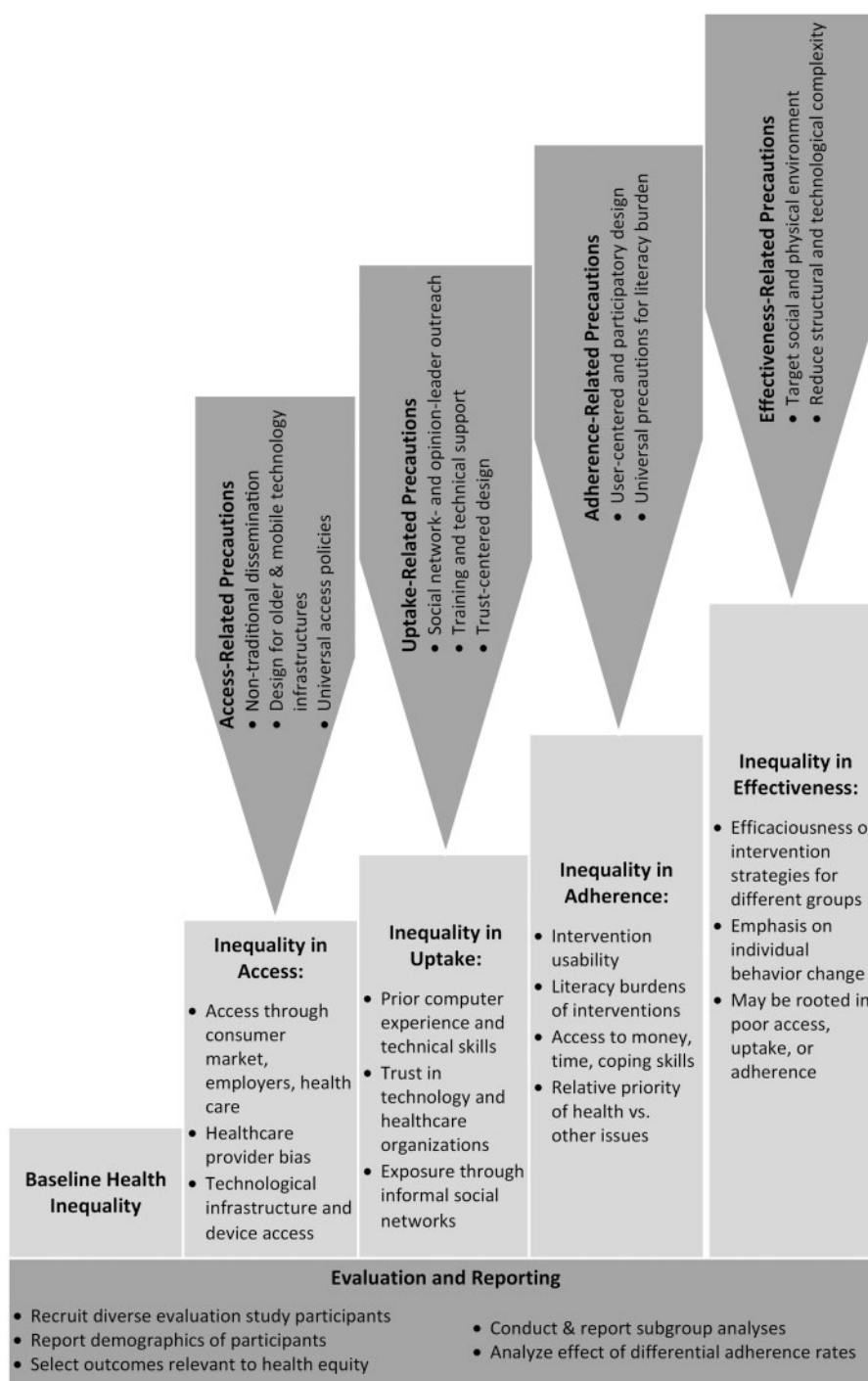


Figure 1. Model for intervention-generated inequality (IGI) prevention.

agement are frequently less effective in people with lower education, literacy, or health literacy levels,^{77,95–100} and these are the populations that are already less likely to be actively involved in their healthcare.^{101,102} Overall, interventions focused on individual behavior change are likely to be less effective in disadvantaged populations because barriers to change are greater in these populations. These barriers range from low literacy (impairing comprehension) to limited resources (including longer distances to sources of healthy food or parks for outdoor recreation) to competing pri-

orities (eg lack of time to focus on health priorities while working multiple jobs).^{14,103}

WHAT PRECAUTIONS CAN WE TAKE TO AVOID WORSENING INEQUALITY?

The access-adoption-adherence-effectiveness framework can be helpful for health informaticists and researchers seeking to avoid or minimize IGI.

Table 1. Inclusive design decisions and affected groups

Design element	Some affected groups	Example	Relevant literature
Interaction design			
Modes of input	Deaf people, People with cognitive impairments, people with low literacy	Due to literacy challenges, Deaf people may be more able to input information using icon selection and manipulation	118–121
Error handling	People with cognitive impairments, people with low literacy, seniors	People with low literacy make more spelling errors; thus search interfaces should have high error tolerance regarding spelling	118,122
Information architecture			
	People with Cognitive Impairments, Seniors	Due to memory issues, seniors find it easier to find information within a system with a shallow information hierarchy	123,124
Information design			
Visual presentation of information	Blind people, deaf people, people with low literacy, seniors	Tonal feedback can ensure comprehension of graphs and data visualizations by blind people	115,125–127
Auditory presentation of information	People with cognitive impairments, people with low literacy, seniors	People with low literacy or cognitive impairments may better comprehend textual information accompanied by audio narration	126,128,129
Interface design			
Layout	Blind people, seniors	For seniors, information should be placed in the center of the screen so as to address reduced peripheral vision	130,131
Buttons and icons	People with cognitive impairments, seniors	Older adults may find it easier to tap on larger buttons and icons	132,133
Navigation design	Blind people, people with low literacy, seniors	People with low literacy find it easier to navigate within mobile applications that use linear (versus hierarchical) navigation	131,134,135
Sensory design			
Graphics	Blind people, deaf people	To facilitate use with a screen reader, alt-text must be provided for all images, including icons and blank images	136,137
Type	People with low vision, seniors	Larger font sizes are more legible for seniors, and people with low vision	121,138
Colors	Blind people, Deaf people	For deaf individuals, color and boldness of text can provide visual intensity that communicates emotional prosody	137
Contrast	Seniors, people with low vision	High-contrast images and text will be more easily perceived by older adults with vision loss	126,139

To achieve equal *access*, we should broaden our channels for dissemination to include nontraditional venues such as libraries, faith-based organizations, and community groups. Because public libraries provide access to the Internet for many without individual access,¹⁰⁴ they are particularly important for reaching low-SES people. We can also keep in mind the need to reach out to less well-off users by developing technologies that use slower Internet speeds and older infrastructures such as short message service.¹⁰⁵ Blended online-offline interventions may also improve access. Patients in disadvantaged groups may be less likely to opt in to innovations, so, as we recently showed with an electronic patient portal, replacing an opt-in approach with a universal access/offer policy can narrow disparities.¹⁰⁶

To ensure equality in *adoption*, we need to devote resources and time to thoughtful dissemination and implementation strategies for novel technologies. These are likely to include training, social networks, and opinion leader outreach,¹⁰⁷ and substantial technical support for new users.¹⁰⁸ “Trust-centered design” promotes systematic attention to trust in intervention strategy, functionality, and interaction design.^{109,110}

Truly user-centered and participatory design can improve *adherence*, *adoption*, and *effectiveness*. Even when there are insufficient resources for lengthy participatory design processes, we can apply

established principles of inclusive design to ensure that innovations are accessible to all (Table 1). We also recommend the “universal precautions” approach to health literacy,^{111,112} in which organizations design communications strategies with the assumption that any patient may need literacy support,¹¹³ rather than seeking to identify subsets of low-literacy patients for special attention. Universal-precautions measures include writing actionable content,¹¹⁴ using plain language, using visuals such as pictographs,^{115–117} and minimizing text-based input.¹¹⁸

Overall, our goal should be equity in *effectiveness*. Interventions that target “upstream” factors such as the social and physical environment and food access are more likely to be equally effective for advantaged and disadvantaged groups than interventions that target individual behavior.^{140,141} Efforts to simplify structural and technological complexity are likely to disproportionately benefit less advantaged groups¹⁴²; one reason for this may be the effort involved in negotiating additional barriers to health behaviors that emerge in high-poverty contexts (eg¹⁴³). One successful complexity-reduction effort was to hyperlink medical terms in a patient portal directly to an online medical encyclopedia, simplifying searches by bypassing the need to use search engines or filter untrustworthy sources.¹⁴⁴ The population who used the hyperlinks reflected the racial diversity

Table 2. Designing and analyzing health informatics evaluations with health equity in mind

- Identify equity-relevant independent variables
- Choose at least one equity-relevant outcome variable
- Recruit diverse participants, and report their sociodemographics in detail
- Ensure sufficient statistical power for subgroup analysis or analysis of effect modifiers
- Plan for qualitative data collection regarding potential unintended consequences, probing for equity-relevant issues

of the patient population, without the racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic disparities found in general Internet health information seekers.¹⁴⁵ Work system-oriented technology design approaches^{146,147} could also reduce complexity of patient work in the home and community, with special attention to addressing the manifestations of socio-economic constraints where possible.

We also propose that improved evaluation and reporting in the health informatics literature will help achieve more equitable outcomes. Formative and summative evaluation must include more participants from disadvantaged groups, meaning we must be willing to devote additional resources to sampling through interpersonal contacts (cluster or snowball sampling), community organizations,^{39,148} maximum variation sampling for qualitative interviews,¹⁴⁹ and quota sampling for surveys.¹⁵⁰ At a minimum, published studies should report relevant sociodemographics of samples. These demographics should include at least some of the so-called PROGRESS-Plus factors of known concern to health equity: place of residence, race/ethnicity/culture/language, occupation, gender/sex, religion, education, SES, and social capital as well as age, disability, and sexual orientation.^{151,152} We also encourage researchers to plan for health-equity focused analyses, including powering their evaluation studies for subgroup analysis or analysis of effect modifiers, while following rigorous standards for heterogeneity of treatment effect (HTE) analyses¹⁵³ (Table 2). Intervention researchers should also plan studies that seek to understand unintended consequences; qualitative data collection probing equity issues would be especially suited for this task.

Finally, we also encourage health informatics practitioners and researchers to recognize the larger policies and social issues that create and exacerbate health inequality. In recognition of the multifaceted nature of the problems we face, health informaticists might consider engaging in broader research on social determinants of health beyond those directly pertinent to information technology, as well as advocating for evidence-based policies that narrow health-related inequality.

CONCLUSION

Many health informatics interventions may not themselves address many of the social factors contributing to health disparities, such as poverty, residential segregation, and discrimination. However, in situations where they have any effect at all, they carry a risk of creating IGI, and thus worsening underlying inequalities. We propose that such IGI can be minimized or prevented through thoughtful decisions about access, uptake, adherence, and effectiveness. IGI can also be detected through careful evaluation design. We encourage health informaticists to recognize the potential that their work has to create IGI, and to consider the precautions outlined here to pre-

vent them. If we address the potential for IGI proactively, we will have a better chance of meeting our collective aspirations to improve health and healthcare—not just for those who already benefit from health-related advantages, but also for those who need us most.

FUNDING

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

CONTRIBUTORS

TV and JA collaboratively conceptualized this piece. TV prepared the first draft of the paper except for the content on healthcare provider bias, adoption/uptake, health literacy, evaluation/reporting, and Table 2—all of which were prepared by JA. TV and HM conducted literature searches in support of the paper. All authors contributed to refining all sections and critically editing the paper.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

None declared.

REFERENCES

1. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. *National Healthcare Disparities Report 2009* (AHRQ 10-0004). Rockville, MD: US Dept of Health and Human Services; 2010.
2. Kawachi I, Daniels N, Robinson DE. Health disparities by race and class: why both matter. *Health Aff (Millwood)* 2005; 24 (2): 343–52.
3. Ufari P, Artiga S. *Disparities in Health and Health Care: Five Key Questions and Answers*. Washington, DC: Kaiser Family Foundation; 2016. <http://www.kff.org/disparities-policy/issue-brief/disparities-in-health-and-health-care-five-key-questions-and-answers/> Accessed August 11, 2017.
4. Phelan JC, Link BG, Tehranifar P. Social conditions as fundamental causes of health inequalities: theory, evidence, and policy implications. *J Health Soc Behav* 2010; 51 Suppl: S28–40.
5. Phelan JC, Link BG. Controlling disease and creating disparities: a fundamental cause perspective. *J Gerontol B Psychol Sci Soc Sci* 2005; 60 (Special_Issue_2): S27–33.
6. Masters RK, Link BG, Phelan JC. Trends in education gradients of 'preventable' mortality: a test of fundamental cause theory. *Soc Sci Med* 2015; 127: 19–28.
7. Phelan JC, Link BG. Is racism a fundamental cause of inequalities in health? *Annu Rev Sociol* 2015; 41 (1): 311–30.
8. Iezzoni LI. Eliminating health and health care disparities among the growing population of people with disabilities. *Health Affairs* 2011; 30 (10): 1947–54.
9. Drum CE, Krahn GL, Peterson JJ, Horner-Johnson W, Newton K. Health of people with disabilities: determinants and disparities. In: Drum CE, Krahn GL, Bersani HA, eds. *Disability and Public Health*. Washington, DC: American Public Health Association; 2009: 125–44.
10. Hatzienbuehler ML, Phelan JC, Link BG. Stigma as a fundamental cause of population health inequalities. *Am J Public Health* 2013; 103 (5): 813–21.
11. Branstrom R, Hatzienbuehler ML, Pachankis JE, Link BG. Sexual orientation disparities in preventable disease: a fundamental cause perspective. *Am J Public Health* 2016; 106 (6): 1109–15.
12. National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. *Communities in Action: Pathways to Health Equity*. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press; 2017.
13. Lorenc T, Oliver K. Adverse effects of public health interventions: a conceptual framework. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 2014; 68: 288–90.

14. White M, Adams J, Heywood P. How and why do interventions that increase health overall widen inequalities within populations In: Babones SJ, ed. *Social Inequality and Public Health*. Bristol, UK: Policy Press; 2009: 65–82.
15. Roper E, Roper B. *A Study of People's Cigarette Smoking Habits and Attitudes*. Charleston, SC: Ness Motley Law Firm Documents; 1953.
16. Jamal A, King BA, Neff LJ, Whitmill J, Babb SD, Graffunder CM. *Current Cigarette Smoking Among Adults—United States, 2005–2015*. Atlanta, GA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; 2016.
17. Stroebe W, ebrary Inc. *Social Psychology and Health*. Maidenhead, Berkshire: McGraw Hill/Open University Press; 2011.
18. McKay HG, Danaher BG, Seeley JR, Lichtenstein E, Gau JM. Comparing two web-based smoking cessation programs: randomized controlled trial. *J Med Internet Res* 2008; 10 (5): e40.
19. Seidman DF, Westmaas JL, Goldband S, Rabius V, Katkin ES, Pike KJ. Randomized controlled trial of an interactive internet smoking cessation program with long-term follow-up. *Ann Behav Med* 2010; 39 (1): 48–60.
20. Fox S, Duggan M. *Mobile Health 2012*. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center's Internet & American Life Project; 2013.
21. Zickuhr K. *Who's Not Online and Why*. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center; 2013.
22. Smith A, Page D. *The Smartphone Difference: US Smartphone Use in 2015*. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center; 2015.
23. Rainie L. *Digital Divides 2016*. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center; 2016.
24. Jha AK, Burke MF, DesRoches C, et al. Progress toward meaningful use: hospitals' adoption of electronic health records. *Am J Manag Care* 2011; 17 (12 Spec No): Sp117–24.
25. Fox S, Duggan M. *Tracking for Health*. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center; 2013. <http://www.pewinternet.org/2013/01/28/tracking-for-health/> Accessed August 14, 2017.
26. Anderson M. *Digital Divide Persists Even as Lower-Income Americans Make Gains in Tech Adoption*. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center; 2017.
27. Pew Research Center. *Internet/Broadband Fact Sheet*. Washington, DC: Pew Internet & American Life Project; 2017. <http://www.pewinternet.org/fact-sheet/internet-broadband/> Accessed August 30, 2017.
28. Perzynski AT, Roach MJ, Shick S, Callahan B, Gunzler D, Cebul R, et al. Patient portals and broadband internet inequality. *J Am Med Inform Assoc* 2017; 24: 927–32.
29. Pew Research Center. *Mobile Fact Sheet*. Washington, DC: Pew Internet & American Life Project; 2017. <http://www.pewinternet.org/fact-sheet/mobile/> Accessed August 30, 2017.
30. Anziloti E. *Visualizing the State of Global Internet Connectivity*. Boston, MA: CityLab; 2015. <https://www.citylab.com/life/2016/08/visualizing-the-state-of-global-internet-connectivity/496328/> Accessed August 30, 2017.
31. *Operators and Vendors Predict Long Life for 2G*. London, UK: MobileWorldLive; 2015. <https://www.mobileworldlive.com/featured-content/top-three/operators-vendors-forecast-long-life-2g/> Accessed August 30, 2017.
32. Wicznier J. Your company wants to make you healthy. *The Wall Street Journal* 2013, April 8.
33. Anonymous. *MHealthy Rewards FAQ*. Ann Arbor, MI; 2017. <https://hr.umich.edu/benefits-wellness/health-well-being/mhealthy/about-mhealthy/mhealthy-rewards/mhealthy-rewards-faqs> Accessed August 17, 2017.
34. Giskes K, Kunst AE, Ariza C, et al. Applying an equity lens to tobacco-control policies and their uptake in six Western-European Countries. *J Public Health Pol* 2007; 28 (2): 261–80.
35. Ancker JS, Barron Y, Rockoff M, et al. Use of an electronic patient portal among disadvantaged populations. *J Gen Intern Med* 2011; 26 (10): 1117–23.
36. Oldenburg B, Glanz K. *Diffusion of Innovations*. Health Behavior and Health Education—Theory Research, and Practice. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass; 2008: 313–30.
37. Rogers EM. *Diffusion of Innovations*. New York, NY: Free Press; 1962/1983.
38. Al-Asadi AM, Klein B, Meyer D. Pretreatment attrition and formal withdrawal during treatment and their predictors: an exploratory study of the anxiety online data. *J Med Internet Res* 2014; 16 (6): e152.
39. Koziol-McLain J, McLean C, Rohan M, et al. Participant recruitment and engagement in automated eHealth trial registration: challenges and opportunities for recruiting women who experience violence. *J Med Internet Res* 2016; 18 (10): e281.
40. Linke S, Murray E, Butler C, Wallace P. Internet-based interactive health intervention for the promotion of sensible drinking: patterns of use and potential impact on members of the general public. *J Med Internet Res* 2007; 9 (2): e10.
41. Zimmerman FJ, Katon W. Socioeconomic status, depression disparities, and financial strain: what lies behind the income-depression relationship? *Health Econ* 2005; 14 (12): 1197–215.
42. Lahelma E, Laaksonen M, Martikainen P, Rahkonen O, Sarlio-Lähteenkorva S. Multiple measures of socioeconomic circumstances and common mental disorders. *Soc Sci Med* 2006; 63 (5): 1383–99.
43. Springer SA, Pesanti E, Hodges J, Macura T, Doros G, Altice FL. Effectiveness of antiretroviral therapy among HIV-infected prisoners: reincarceration and the lack of sustained benefit after release to the community. *Clin Infect Dis* 2004; 38 (12): 1754–60.
44. Hasin DS, Goodwin RD, Stinson FS, Grant BF. Epidemiology of major depressive disorder: results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcoholism and Related Conditions. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2005; 62 (10): 1097–106.
45. Sarkar U, Karter AJ, Liu JY, et al. Social disparities in internet patient portal use in diabetes: evidence that the digital divide extends beyond access. *J Am Med Inform Assoc* 2011; 18 (3): 318–21.
46. Nijland N, van Gemert-Pijnen JE, Kelders SM, Brandenburg BJ, Seydel ER. Factors influencing the use of a Web-based application for supporting the self-care of patients with type 2 diabetes: a longitudinal study. *J Med Internet Res* 2011; 13 (3): e71.
47. Habibovic M, Cuijpers P, Alings M, et al. Attrition and adherence in a WEB-Based Distress Management Program for Implantable Cardioverter defibrillator Patients (WEBCARE): randomized controlled trial. *J Med Internet Res* 2014; 16 (2): e52.
48. Taha J, Sharit J, Czaja SJ. Usability of an electronic personal health record (PHR) among a diverse group of adults. *Proc Hum Factors and Ergon Soc Annu Meet* 2014; 58 (1): 619–23.
49. Ali S, Hafeez B, Ancker JS. Applying a Task-Technology Fit Model to Adapt an Electronic Patient Portal for Patient Work. *Appl Clin Inform* 2018; 9 (1): 174–84.
50. Winkelman WJ, Leonard KJ, Rossos PG. Patient-perceived usefulness of online electronic medical records: employing grounded theory in the development of information and communication technologies for use by patients living with chronic illness. *J Am Med Inform Assoc* 2005; 12 (3): 306–14.
51. Jimison H, Gorman PN, Nygren P, Walker M, Norris S, Hersh W. *Barriers and Drivers of Health Information Technology Use for the Elderly, Chronically Ill and Underserved*. Rockville, MD: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality; 2009.
52. Kim B, Han I. The role of trust belief and its antecedents in a community-driven knowledge environment. *J Am Soc Inf Sci Technol* 2009; 60 (5): 1012–26.
53. Lyles CR, Sarkar U, Ralston JD, et al. Patient-provider communication and trust in relation to use of an online patient portal among diabetes patients: the Diabetes and Aging Study. *J Am Med Inform Assoc* 2013; 20 (6): 1128–31.
54. Tieu L, Sarkar U, Schillinger D, et al. Barriers and facilitators to online portal use among patients and caregivers in a safety net health care system: a qualitative study. *J Med Internet Res* 2015; 17 (12): e275.
55. LaVeist TA, Nickerson KJ, Bowie JV. Attitudes about racism, medical mistrust, and satisfaction with care among African American and white cardiac patients. *Med Care Res Rev* 2000; 57 Suppl 1: 146–61.

56. National Partnership for Women and Families. *Engaging Patients and Families: How Consumers Value and Use Health IT*. Washington, DC: National Partnership for Women and Families; 2014.
57. Walters N. *Maintaining Privacy and Security While Connected to the Internet*. Washington, DC: AARP Public Policy Institute; 2017.
58. Russell C, Campbell A, Hughes I. Ageing, social capital and the Internet: findings from an exploratory study of Australian 'silver surfers'. *Australas J Ageing* 2008; 27 (2): 78–82.
59. Jensen JD, King AJ, Davis LA, Guntzville LM. Utilization of internet technology by low-income adults: the role of health literacy, health numeracy, and computer assistance. *J Aging Health* 2010; 22 (6): 804–26.
60. Friemel TN. The digital divide has grown old: determinants of a digital divide among seniors. *New Media Soc* 2016; 18 (2): 313–31.
61. Alfonsson S, Olsson E, Hursti T. Motivation and treatment credibility predicts dropout, treatment adherence, and clinical outcomes in an internet-based cognitive behavioral relaxation program: a randomized controlled trial. *J Med Internet Res* 2016; 18 (3): e52.
62. Karyotaki E, Kleiboer A, Smit F, *et al*. Predictors of treatment dropout in self-guided web-based interventions for depression: an 'individual patient data' meta-analysis. *Psychol Med* 2015; 45 (13): 2717–26.
63. Nash CM, Vickerman KA, Kellogg ES, Zbikowski SM. Utilization of a Web-based vs integrated phone/Web cessation program among 140,000 tobacco users: an evaluation across 10 free state quitlines. *J Med Internet Res* 2015; 17 (2): e36.
64. Strecher VJ, McClure J, Alexander G, *et al*. The role of engagement in a tailored web-based smoking cessation program: randomized controlled trial. *J Med Internet Res* 2008; 10 (5): e36.
65. Zeng EY, Vilardaga R, Heffner JL, Mull KE, Bricker JB. Predictors of utilization of a novel smoking cessation smartphone app. *Telemed J E Health* 2015; 21 (12): 998–1004.
66. Meischke H, Lozano P, Zhou C, Garrison MM, Christakis D. Engagement in "My Child's Asthma", an interactive web-based pediatric asthma management intervention. *Int J Med Inform* 2011; 80 (11): 765–74.
67. Murray E, White IR, Varagunam M, Godfrey C, Khadjesari Z, McCambridge J. Attrition revisited: adherence and retention in a web-based alcohol trial. *J Med Internet Res* 2013; 15 (8): e162.
68. Jander A, Crutzen R, Mercken L, Candel M, de Vries H. Effects of a web-based computer-tailored game to reduce binge drinking among Dutch adolescents: a cluster randomized controlled trial. *J Med Internet Res* 2016; 18 (2): e29.
69. Robroek SJ, Lindeboom DE, Burdorf A. Initial and sustained participation in an internet-delivered long-term worksite health promotion program on physical activity and nutrition. *J Med Internet Res* 2012; 14 (2): e43.
70. Svensson M, Hult M, van der Mark M, *et al*. The change in eating behaviors in a web-based weight loss program: a longitudinal analysis of study completers. *J Med Internet Res* 2014; 16 (11): e234.
71. Van't Riet J, Crutzen R, De Vries H. Investigating predictors of visiting, using, and revisiting an online health-communication program: a longitudinal study. *J Med Internet Res* 2010; 12 (3): e37.
72. Kure-Biegel N, Schnohr CW, Hindhede AL, Diderichsen F. Risk factors for not completing health interventions and the potential impact on health inequalities between educational groups—a mixed method study from Denmark. *Int J Equity Health* 2016; 15: 54.
73. McGill R, Anwar E, Orton L, *et al*. Are interventions to promote healthy eating equally effective for all? Systematic review of socioeconomic inequalities in impact. *BMC Public Health* 2015; 15 (1): 457.
74. Macintyre S. *Inequalities in Health in Scotland: What Are They and What Can We Do About Them*. Glasgow, Scotland: Medical Research Council: Social and Public Health Sciences Unit; 2007.
75. Schrijvers CT, Stronks K, van de Mheen HD, Mackenbach JP. Explaining educational differences in mortality: the role of behavioral and material factors. *Am J Public Health* 1999; 89 (4): 535–40.
76. van Oort FV, van Lenthe FJ, Mackenbach JP. Material, psychosocial, and behavioural factors in the explanation of educational inequalities in mortality in The Netherlands. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 2005; 59 (3): 214–20.
77. Ancker JS, Kaufman DR. Rethinking health numeracy: a multidisciplinary literature review. *J Am Med Inform Assoc* 2007; 14 (6): 713–21.
78. Kaipainen K, Payne CR, Wansink B. Mindless eating challenge: retention, weight outcomes, and barriers for changes in a public web-based healthy eating and weight loss program. *J Med Internet Res* 2012; 14 (6): e168.
79. Lin M, Mahmooth Z, Dedhia N, *et al*. Tailored, interactive text messages for enhancing weight loss among African American adults: the TRIMM randomized controlled trial. *Am J Med* 2015; 128 (8): 896–904.
80. Manicavasagar V, Horswood D, Burckhardt R, Lum A, Hadzi-Pavlovic D, Parker G. Feasibility and effectiveness of a web-based positive psychology program for youth mental health: randomized controlled trial. *J Med Internet Res* 2014; 16 (6): e140.
81. Mattila E, Orsama AL, Ahtinen A, Hopsu L, Leino T, Korhonen I. Personal health technologies in employee health promotion: usage activity, usefulness, and health-related outcomes in a 1-year randomized controlled trial. *JMIR Mhealth Uhealth* 2013; 1 (2): e16.
82. Ware LJ, Hurling R, Bataveljić O, *et al*. Rates and determinants of uptake and use of an internet physical activity and weight management program in office and manufacturing work sites in England: cohort study. *J Med Internet Res* 2008; 10 (4): e56.
83. Harris T, Kerry SM, Victor CR, *et al*. A primary care nurse-delivered walking intervention in older adults: PACE (pedometer accelerometer consultation evaluation)-Lift cluster randomised controlled trial. *PLoS Med* 2015; 12 (2): e1001783.
84. Peels D, van Stralen M, Bolman C, *et al*. The differentiated effectiveness of a printed versus a Web-based tailored physical activity intervention among adults aged over 50. *Health Educ Res* 2014; 29 (5): 870–82.
85. van Stralen MM, de Vries H, Bolman C, Mudde AN, Lechner L. Exploring the efficacy and moderators of two computer-tailored physical activity interventions for older adults: a randomized controlled trial. *Ann Behav Med* 2010; 39 (2): 139–50.
86. Kanera IM, Willems RA, Bolman CA, Mesters I, Verboon P, Lechner L. Long-term effects of a web-based cancer aftercare intervention on moderate physical activity and vegetable consumption among early cancer survivors: a randomized controlled trial. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act* 2017; 14 (1): 19.
87. Lehne G, Bolte G. Impact of universal interventions on social inequalities in physical activity among older adults: an equity-focused systematic review. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act* 2017; 14 (1): 20.
88. Springvloed L, Lechner L, de Vries H, Candel MJ, Oenema A. Short- and medium-term efficacy of a Web-based computer-tailored nutrition education intervention for adults including cognitive and environmental feedback: randomized controlled trial. *J Med Internet Res* 2015; 17 (1): e23.
89. Haapala I, Barengo NC, Biggs S, Surakka L, Manninen P. Weight loss by mobile phone: a 1-year effectiveness study. *Public Health Nutr* 2009; 12 (12): 2382–91.
90. Partridge SR, McGeechan K, Bauman A, Phongsavan P, Allman-Farinelli M. Improved eating behaviours mediate weight gain prevention of young adults: moderation and mediation results of a randomised controlled trial of TXT2BFit, mHealth program. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act* 2016; 13 (1): 44.
91. Elbert SP, Dijkstra A, Oenema A. A mobile phone app intervention targeting fruit and vegetable consumption: the efficacy of textual and auditory tailored health information tested in a randomized controlled trial. *J Med Internet Res* 2016; 18 (6): e147.
92. Darmon N, Drewnowski A. Does social class predict diet quality? *Am J Clin Nutr* 2008; 87 (5): 1107–17.
93. Ogden CL, Lamb MM, Carroll MD, Flegal KM. *Obesity and Socioeconomic Status in Adults: United States, 2005–2008*. Atlanta, GA: Centers of Disease Control and Prevention; 2010. <https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/products/databriefs/db50.htm> Accessed August 9, 2017.

94. Cameron AJ, Spence AC, Laws R, Hesketh KD, Lioret S, Campbell KJ. A Review of the relationship between socioeconomic position and the early-life predictors of obesity. *Curr Obes Rep* 2015; 4 (3): 350–62.
95. Kim SP, Knight SJ, Tomori C, et al. Health literacy and shared decision making for prostate cancer patients with low socioeconomic status. *Cancer Invest* 2001; 19 (7): 684–91.
96. Street RL Jr, Voigt B, Geyer C Jr, Manning T, Swanson GP. Increasing patient involvement in choosing treatment for early breast cancer. *Cancer* 1995; 76 (11): 2275–85.
97. Berry DL, Halpenny B, Hong F, et al. The personal patient profile-prostate decision support for men with localized prostate cancer: a multi-center randomized trial. *Urol Oncol* 2013; 31 (7): 1012–21.
98. Meropol NJ, Egleston BL, Buzaglo JS, et al. A web-based communication aid for patients with cancer: the CONNECT Study. *Cancer* 2013; 119 (7): 1437–45.
99. Davis TC, Wolf MS, Bass PF, 3rd, et al. Literacy and misunderstanding prescription drug labels. *Ann Intern Med* 2006; 145 (12): 887–94.
100. McCray AT. Promoting health literacy. *J Am Med Inform Assoc* 2004; 12 (2): 152–63.
101. Smith SK, Dixon A, Trevena L, Nutbeam D, McCaffery KJ. Exploring patient involvement in healthcare decision making across different education and functional health literacy groups. *Soc Sci Med* 2009; 69 (12): 1805–12.
102. Hibbard JH, Cunningham PJ. How engaged are consumers in their health and health care, and why does it matter? *Res Brief* 2008; (8): 1–9.
103. McLaren L, McIntyre L, Kirkpatrick S. Rose's population strategy of prevention need not increase social inequalities in health. *Int J Epidemiol* 2010; 39 (2): 372–7.
104. Becker S, Crandall MD, Fisher KE, Kinney B, Landry C, Rocha A. *Opportunity for All: How the American Public Benefits from Internet Access at U.S. Libraries* Seattle, WA: University of Washington; 2010. http://impact.ischool.washington.edu/documents/OPP4ALL_FinalReport.pdf Accessed August 11, 2017.
105. Bullock G. *IT Leader Edward Happ to Head Two New Information Centers at UMSI*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan; 2017. <https://record.umich.edu/articles/it-leader-edward-happ-head-two-new-information-centers-umsi> Accessed August 30, 2017.
106. Ancker JS, Nosal S, Hauser D, Way C, Calman N. *Access Policy and Digital Divide in Patient Access to Medical Records*. Health Policy and Technology; 2017; 6 (1): 3–11.
107. Simoni JM, Nelson KM, Franks JC, Yard SS, Lehavot K. Are peer interventions for HIV efficacious? A systematic review. *AIDS Behav* 2011; 15 (8): 1589–95.
108. Hardy JK, Veinot TC, Yan X, et al. User acceptance of location-tracking technologies in health research: implications for study design and data quality. *J Biomed Inform* 2018; 79: 7–19.
109. Veinot TC, Campbell TR, Kruger DJ, Grodzinski A. A question of trust: user-centered design requirements for an informatics intervention to promote the sexual health of African-American youth. *J Am Med Inform Assoc* 2013; 20 (4): 758–65.
110. Kukafka R, Khan SA, Hutchinson C, et al., eds. Digital partnerships for health: steps to develop a community-specific health portal aimed at promoting health and well-being. In: AMIA Annual Symposium Proceedings; November 10-14, 2007; Chicago, IL.
111. Ancker JS. Addressing health literacy and numeracy through systems approaches. In: Patel VL, Arocha JF, Ancker JS, eds. *Cognitive Informatics in Health and Biomedicine: Understanding and Modeling Health Behaviors*. Cham: Springer International Publishing; 2017: 237–51.
112. Greenhalgh T. Health literacy: towards system level solutions. *BMJ* 2015; 350: h1026.
113. DeWalt DA, Brouckson KA, Hawk V, et al. Developing and testing the health literacy universal precautions toolkit. *Nurs Outlook* 2011; 59 (2): 85–94.
114. Broderick J, Devine T, Langhans E, Lemerise AJ, Lier S, Harris L. *Designing Health Literate Mobile Apps*. Washington, DC: Institute of Medicine of the National Academies; 2014.
115. Osborne H. Health literacy: how visuals can help tell the healthcare story. *J Vis Commun Med* 2006; 29 (1): 28–32.
116. Houts PS, Witmer JT, Egeth HE, Loscalzo MJ, Zabora JR. Using pictographs to enhance recall of spoken medical instructions II. *Patient Educ Couns* 2001; 43 (3): 231–42.
117. Arcia A, Suero-Tejeda N, Bales ME, et al. Sometimes more is more: iterative participatory design of infographics for engagement of community members with varying levels of health literacy. *J Am Med Inform Assoc* 2016; 23 (1): 174–83.
118. Kodagoda N, Wong B, Rooney C, Khan N, eds. Interactive visualization for low literacy users: from lessons learnt to design. In: Proceedings of the SIGCHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems; May 05-10, 2012; Austin, TX.
119. Yeratziotis A, Zaphiris P. Interactive software technology for deaf users: mapping the hci research landscape that focuses on accessibility. In: Antona M, Stephanidis C, eds. *Universal Access in Human-Computer Interaction Access to Today's Technologies: 9th International Conference, UAHCI 2015, Held as Part of HCI International 2015, Los Angeles, CA, USA, August 2-7, 2015, Proceedings, Part I*. Cham: Springer International Publishing; 2015: 253–64.
120. Huenerfauth M, Zhao L, Gu E, Allbeck J, eds. Evaluating American Sign Language generation through the participation of native ASL signers. In: Proceedings of the 9th International ACM SIGACCESS Conference on Computers and Accessibility; October 14-17, 2007; Tempe, AZ.
121. Hawthorn D. Possible implication of aging for interface designers. *Interacting Comput* 2000; 12 (5): 507–28.
122. Keuning H, van Galen GP, Houtsma AJM. The role of size of an augmented force field in computer-aided target acquisition tasks. *Int J Human Comput Interact* 2005; 18 (2): 219–32.
123. Demiris G, Finkelstein SM, Speedie SM. Considerations for the design of a web-based clinical monitoring and educational system for elderly patients. *J Am Med Inform Assoc* 2001; 8 (5): 468–72.
124. Rotondi AJ, Sinkule J, Haas GL, et al. Designing websites for persons with cognitive deficits: Design and usability of a psychoeducational intervention for persons with severe mental illness. *Psychol Serv* 2007; 4 (3): 202–24.
125. McGookin DK, Brewster SA, eds. Soundbar: exploiting multiple views in multimodal graph browsing. In: 4th Nordic Conference on Human-Computer Interaction: Changing Roles. Association for Computing Machinery; October 14-18, 2006; Oslo, Norway.
126. Farage MA, Miller KW, Ajayi F, Hutchins D. Design principles to accommodate older adults. *Glob J Health Sci* 2012; 4 (2): 25.
127. Goetze M, Strothotte T. Interactive graphical reading aids for functional illiterate web users. In: Oberquelle H, Oppermann R, Krause J, eds. *Mensch & Computer 2001: 1 Fachübergreifende Konferenz*. Wiesbaden: Vieweg+Teubner Verlag; 2001: 435–6.
128. Newell AF, Carmichael A, Gregor P, Alm N. Information technology for cognitive support. In: Jacko JA, Sears A, eds. *The Human-Computer Interaction Handbook*. Mahwah, NJ: L. Erlbaum Associates; 2002: 464–81.
129. Petrie H. *Accessibility and Usability Requirements for ICTs for Disabled and Elderly People: A Functional Classification Approach. Inclusive Design Guidelines for HCI*. New York, NY: Taylor and Francis; 2001: 29–60.
130. Luna-García H, Mendoza-González R, Álvarez-Rodríguez FJ. Design patterns to enhance accessibility and use of social applications for older adults/Patrones de diseño para mejorar la accesibilidad y uso de aplicaciones sociales para adultos mayores. *Comunicar Revista Científica De Comunicación y Educación* 2015; 23 (45): 85–93.
131. van der Geest T, Loorbach N. Testing the visual consistency of web sites. *Tech Commun* 2005; 52 (1): 27–36.
132. Kobayashi M, Hiyama A, Miura T, Asakawa C, Hirose M, Ifukube T. Elderly user evaluation of mobile touchscreen interactions. In: Campos P, Graham N, Jorge J, Nunes N, Palanque P, Winckler M, eds. *Human-Computer Interaction—INTERACT 2011: 13th IFIP TC 13 International Conference, Lisbon, Portugal, September 5-9, 2011, Proceedings, Part I*. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg; 2011: 83–99.

133. Pak R, McLaughlin A. *Designing Displays for Older Adults*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press; 2010.
134. Gelderblom J. *Designing Technology for Young Children: Guidelines Grounded in a Literature Investigation on Child Development and Children's Technology [PhD]*. Pretoria, South Africa: University of South Africa; 2009.
135. Chaudry BM, Connelly KH, Siek KA, eds. Mobile interface design for low-literacy populations. In: 2nd ACM SIGHIT International Health Informatics Symposium (IHI '12). January 28-30, 2012; Miami, FL.
136. Miyashita H, Sato D, Takagi H, Asakawa C, eds. Making multimedia content accessible for screen reader users. In: Proceedings of the 2007 International Cross-Disciplinary Conference on Web accessibility (W4A); May 07-08, 2007; Banff, Canada.
137. Bothe H-H. Human computer interaction and communication aids for hearing-impaired, deaf and deaf-blind people: introduction to the special thematic session. In: Miesenberger K, Bühler C, Peñáz P, eds. *Computers Helping People with Special Needs*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer; 2008: 605-8.
138. Lee B, Chen Y, Hewitt L. Age differences in constraints encountered by seniors in their use of computers and the internet. *Comput Human Behav* 2011; 27 (3): 1231-7.
139. Scialfa CT, Garvey PM, Tyrrell RA, Leibowitz HW. Age differences in dynamic contrast thresholds. *J Gerontol* 1992; 47 (3): P172.
140. Lorenc T, Petticrew M, Welch V, Tugwell P. What types of interventions generate inequalities? Evidence from systematic reviews. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 2013; 67 (2): 190-3.
141. Beauchamp A, Backholer K, Magliano D, Peeters A. The effect of obesity prevention interventions according to socioeconomic position: a systematic review. *Obes Rev* 2014; 15 (7): 541-54.
142. Goldman DP, Lakdawalla D. A theory of health disparities and medical technology. *Contribut Econ Anal Policy* 2005; 4 (1): 1-30.
143. Senteio C, Veinot T. Trying to make things right: adherence work in high-poverty, African American neighborhoods. *Qual Health Res* 2014; 24 (12): 1745-56.
144. Ancker JS, Mauer E, Hauser D, Calman N. Expanding access to high-quality plain-language patient education information through context-specific hyperlinks. *Proc Am Med Inform Assoc Annu Sympos* 2017; 2016: 277-84.
145. Fox S. *The Social Life of Health Information*, 2011. Washington, DC: Pew Internet & American Life Project; 2011. <http://pewinternet.org/Reports/2011/Social-Life-of-Health-Info.aspx> Accessed April 30, 2012.
146. Weiss D, Eikemo TA. Technological innovations and the rise of social inequalities in health. *Scand J Public Health* 2017; 45 (7): 714-9.
147. Valdez RS, Holden RJ, Novak LL, Veinot TC. Transforming consumer health informatics through a patient work framework: connecting patients to context. *J Am Med Inform Assoc* 2015; 22 (1): 2-10.
148. Iott BE, Veinot TC, Loveluck J, Kahle E, Golsen L, Benton A. Comparative analysis of recruitment strategies in a study of men who have sex with men (MSM) in Metropolitan Detroit. *AIDS Behav* 2018; 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10461-018-2071-z>
149. Kuzel A. Sampling in qualitative inquiry. In: Crabtree BF, Miller WL, eds. *Doing Qualitative Research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage; 1992: 33-44.
150. Im E-O, Chee W. *Quota sampling in internet research: practical issues*. *Comput Inform Nurs* 2011; 29 (7): 381-5.
151. O'Neill J, Tabish H, Welch V, et al. Applying an equity lens to interventions: using PROGRESS ensures consideration of socially stratifying factors to illuminate inequities in health. *J Clin Epidemiol* 2014; 67 (1): 56-64.
152. Attwood S, van Sluijs E, Sutton S. Exploring equity in primary-care-based physical activity interventions using PROGRESS-Plus: a systematic review and evidence synthesis. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act* 2016; 13 (1): 60.
153. Varadhan R, Stuart E, Louis T, Segal J, Weiss C. *Standards in Addressing Heterogeneity of Treatment Effectiveness in Observational and Experimental Patient Centered Outcomes Research*. Washington, DC: Patient Centered Outcomes Research Institute; 2012.