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2 the US: A Literature Review.

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44 **ABSTRACT**

45

46 Objective: To determine which patient characteristics are associated with use of patient-facing
47 digital health tools in the US.

48

49 Materials and Methods: We conducted a literature review of studies of patient-facing digital
50 health tools that objectively evaluated use (e.g., system/platform data representing frequency of
51 use) by patient characteristics (age, race/ethnicity, income, digital literacy, etc.). We included
52 any type of patient-facing digital health tool except patient portals. We re-ran results using the
53 subset of studies identified as having robust methodology to detect differences in patient
54 characteristics.

55

56 Results: We included 29 studies; 13 had robust methodology. Most studies examined smartphone
57 apps and text-messaging programs for chronic disease management and evaluated only 1-3
58 patient characteristics, primarily age and gender. Overall, the majority of studies found no
59 association between patient characteristics and use. Among the subset with robust methodology,
60 white race and poor health status appeared to be associated with higher use.

61

62 Discussion: Given the substantial investment in digital health tools, it is surprising how little is
63 known about the types of patients who use them. Strategies that engage diverse populations in
64 digital health tool use appear to be needed.

65

66 Conclusion: Few studies evaluate objective measures of digital health tool use by patient
67 characteristics and those that do include a narrow range of characteristics. Evidence suggests that
68 resources and need drive use.

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89 **INTRODUCTION**

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91 **Background and Significance**

92 Availability of interactive digital health tools that enable patients to access health information
93 and personal health data has increased rapidly over the past decade, alongside growing access to
94 the internet and smartphone ownership.[1-4]. These patient-facing tools, including smartphone
95 apps, text messaging programs, and social media tools, among others, have been associated with
96 improved clinical and behavioral outcomes, such as preventive health behaviors, chronic disease
97 management, and patient-provider communication.[3, 5-8]

98

99 Despite both high availability and interest in digital health tools among ethnically, economically,
100 and linguistically diverse patient groups,[9, 10] adoption (or use) of these tools by patients is low
101 [2, 3, 11]. Furthermore, data from national patient surveys and evaluations of patient portals in
102 the United States demonstrate differential adoption of digital health tools by various groups
103 based on sociodemographics.[2, 3, 12-22] Specifically, older adults, racial/ethnic minorities, and
104 those with low socioeconomic status, low educational attainment, limited health literacy, and
105 chronic illness use patient portals less often compared to advantaged populations.[19-22] There
106 is also research demonstrating that patient-facing digital health tools themselves are at risk of
107 exacerbating health disparities,[23] but that little effort has been undertaken to address this. For
108 example, despite lack of uptake by diverse populations, there is little evidence that health
109 systems incorporate approaches to address health disparities in the development, implementation,
110 and use of patient portals.[19, 24]

111

112 In a conceptual model for understanding and preventing such disparities, Veinot et al. (2018)
113 propose that differences in access, adoption or use, adherence, and/or effectiveness of digital
114 health tools contribute to their risk of exacerbating health disparities.[23] Moreover,
115 effectiveness of digital health tools depends largely on access, adoption/use, and adherence.[23]
116 As described above, effectiveness of digital health tools on various behavioral and clinical
117 outcomes has been evaluated, and there is a significant body of research examining adoption/use
118 of patient portals linked to electronic health records (EHR).[25-28] However, we lack a review
119 of evidence on adoption/use for the vast array of digital health tools beyond patient portals. [29-
120 33] In particular, there is little understanding of which patient characteristics are associated with
121 use of these digital health tools, which may differ from those associated with patient portal use
122 because they feature greater flexibility in design with respect to patient needs and preferences. In
123 the setting of increasing availability and prioritization of patient-facing digital health tools and
124 the risk of these tools widening existing health disparities, it is critical to better understand
125 factors influencing their uptake.[23, 34, 35]

126

127 **Objective**

128 We conducted a literature review of studies of patient-facing digital health tools (excluding
129 patient portals) to identify which patient characteristics were associated with adoption/use of
130 these digital health tools in the US. We included only studies with objective (rather than self-
131 reported) measures of use (e.g., system/platform usage data representing frequency or duration of
132 use).

133

134 **METHODS**

135

136 We adhered to Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA)
137 guidelines;^[36] however, we did not present data synthesis as this is a literature review rather
138 than a systematic review.

139

140 **Search strategy**

141 We developed a search strategy in collaboration with a clinical librarian (JBW) that combined
142 two main concepts: health information technology (including search terms reflecting
143 mobile/smartphone, apps, texting, and other mHealth and digital health terminology) and patient
144 engagement (including search terms reflecting uptake and participation; see Appendix A1 for
145 complete details). We intentionally omitted the word “use” from the search strategy, as it was
146 non-specific (given the lack of uniform terminology to describe this construct) and yielded a
147 large number of irrelevant papers. We conducted a search using Boolean operators that combined
148 keywords and MeSH terms in PubMed on July 27, 2018. Because of our specific focus on
149 implementation of digital tools in the health and medical fields, we chose to search within the
150 biomedical literature in PubMed alone. Given the rapid change of technological advancements
151 and our goal of understanding how technology is currently used to inform patient engagement
152 efforts, we limited the search to articles published in the last five years (July 2013 to July 2018).

153

154 **Exclusion criteria**

155 Papers were reviewed and excluded at two levels using criteria developed by all authors. At the
156 first level, we reviewed titles and abstracts and excluded papers if they were not original research
157 (e.g., review articles, commentaries, study protocols, etc.), did not describe a patient-facing

158 digital health tool, or were not conducted in the United States. We defined patient-facing digital
159 health tools (hereafter also referred to as “digital health tools” or “tools”) as technologies with
160 which patients could directly interact in order to enter/access personal health data, to obtain
161 health or disease-specific information, or to monitor a health behavior or achieve a health goal
162 (e.g., text-messaging app with reminders to take blood pressure medications).[37] At the second
163 screening level, we reviewed the full text of articles and excluded papers that did not evaluate
164 use by patient characteristics (e.g., age, gender, race/ethnicity, health literacy, health status, etc.),
165 were studies of patient portals (as there are existing reviews focused on portals and other digital
166 health tools are becoming increasingly ubiquitous), or included pediatric populations (as these
167 evaluated surrogates’ rather than patients’ characteristics). Using DistillerSR (Evidence Partners,
168 Ottawa, Canada), title and abstract screening were completed by one reviewer (CT), with two
169 additional reviewers (SN and CRL) completing a subset of screening to ensure agreement on the
170 categorization. Two reviewers (SN and CT) completed full text screening, with a subset double-
171 screened to ensure concordance among reviewers. Any discordance (<5% of papers) was
172 discussed in-person between SN, CT, and CRL until agreement was reached.

173

174 **Data extraction: Outcome and predictor variables**

175 We extracted only use measures that were evaluated by patient characteristics. Use was
176 measured differently across studies, and included: reach, retention over time, frequency of
177 engagement (e.g., number of times app was opened), and duration of engagement (e.g., viewing
178 time per link on a website).

179

180 We extracted patient characteristics that were included in the evaluations of use. In other words,
181 we were not interested in the general description of the sample by patient demographics like age
182 and gender, but in whether the study reported on use stratified by patient characteristics. The full
183 list of patient characteristics extracted from each study included age, gender, race, health status,
184 education, digital literacy, income, health literacy or numeracy, and limited English proficiency.
185 We chose these variables based on previous research [2, 3, 15] and a consensus approach of all
186 authors in determining factors likely to influence digital health use. For each digital health tool,
187 we determined which patient characteristics were statistically significantly associated or not
188 associated with use, as well as the direction of the association, if any.

189

190 **Data extraction: Determination of patient-level variations in use**

191 Due to the tremendous variation in how patient characteristics were measured, they were
192 categorized into relative subgroups that could be applied to all studies (e.g., age was divided into
193 “older” versus “younger” subgroups). We then extracted whether the paper reported a
194 statistically significant ($P < 0.05$) versus non-significant association between any patient
195 characteristic and the use outcomes. If there was a statistically significant association reported,
196 we identified which patient sub-group was *avored*. For example, if use of a smartphone app was
197 higher among younger compared to older individuals, the smartphone app was determined to
198 *favor* younger individuals. If there was no statistically significant association between a patient
199 characteristic and a use measure, this was reported as *non-significant*.

200

201 **Selection of studies to support more robust subgroup analysis**

202 Since not all included studies were designed with the primary objective of evaluating use by
203 patient characteristics, we identified the subset of included studies with a greater likelihood of
204 internal validity in the examination of patient subgroup relationships. We did this to determine if
205 there was a similar or stronger relationship between patient characteristics and use for studies
206 that were more likely to support such inference. More specifically, we adapted criteria from a
207 validated measure of risk of bias [38] to evaluate whether included studies (1) clearly included
208 and reported characteristics of non-users of the digital health solution, (2) included ≥ 50
209 participants in analyses of use, and (3) presented multivariable relationships to assess whether a
210 characteristic was predictive of use holding all other characteristics constant. If a study met at
211 least two of these three criteria, it was selected for subgroup analysis. We then replicated the data
212 extraction described above on this subset of studies.

213

214 **Analyses**

215 We took extracted data and first calculated descriptive statistics to summarize study and patient
216 characteristics. Next, we determined the number of studies in which use outcomes were
217 associated with each patient characteristic (including the direction of the association), as well as
218 the number in which they were not associated with each patient characteristic. We did this
219 analysis for all included studies and repeated it for the subgroup of studies described above.

220

221 **RESULTS**

222 We identified 3367 studies using our search criteria; 29 studies met our final inclusion criteria
223 (Figure 1, Appendix A2).[36]

224

225 **Study and Patient Characteristics**

226 Study and patient characteristics are summarized in Table 1, with additional details in Appendix

227 A3.

228

229 Table 1. Study characteristics.

230

	Number of studies (N=29)	
	N	%
Patient characteristics*		
Age	21	72.4
Gender	20	69.0
Race/ethnicity	18	62.1
Health status or comorbidities	15	51.7
Education	9	31.0
Digital literacy	5	17.2
Income	5	17.2
Health literacy or numeracy	4	13.8
Limited English proficiency	1	3.5
Primary type of digital health tool*		
Smartphone or tablet app	11	37.9
Text messaging	11	37.9
Interactive voice response	4	13.8
Internet	3	10.4
Social media	2	6.9
Activity tracker	1	3.5
Health area of focus		
Chronic disease management	11	37.9
Tobacco or substance use	7	24.1
Weight management	5	17.2
Prevention/Promotion	4	13.8
Other ^o	2	6.9
Study setting*		
Academic Medical Center	26	89.7
Community Medical Center	6	20.7
Government [^]	5	17.2
Tech company/organization	5	17.2

231 *Twenty-four studies evaluated >1 patient characteristic. Three studies equally evaluated 2 types
232 of digital health tool. Twelve studies included >1 setting.

233 °Other includes hospital discharge planning and postoperative care.

234 ^Includes Veterans Health Administration, military bases and US Army, and local departments
235 of public health.

236

237

238

239 The most commonly included patient characteristics were age (21 studies), gender (20 studies),

240 race (18 studies), and health status (15 studies). Definitions, measurement, and categorization of

241 patient characteristics varied across studies (see Appendix A4).

242

243 The digital health tools comprised 6 types of technologies: smartphone or tablet applications (11

244 studies), text messaging (11 studies), interactive voice response (IVR; 4 studies), Internet (3

245 studies), social media (2 studies), and activity tracking devices (1 study). Eleven studies focused

246 on chronic disease management. Twenty-six of the 29 studies were conducted at academic

247 medical centers.

248

249

250 **Studies Selected for Subgroup Analysis**

251 Appendix A5 lists the studies that were selected for a more robust subgroup analysis and

252 summarizes their appropriateness for subgroup analysis per each criterion and overall.

253

254 Thirteen of the 29 studies evaluating use met criteria for subgroup analysis. As an exemplar

255 study of use that met criteria for appropriateness of subgroup analysis, Heminger et al. [39]

256 evaluated use of Text2Quit, an interactive text-messaging program aimed at smoking cessation,

257 among 262 participants, including non-users. They created a multivariable linear regression

258 model that included all sociodemographic data to determine which patient characteristics were

259 associated with use, which was defined as the sum of user-initiated survey responses, keyword
260 usage, and web logins.

261

262 **Association of Patient Characteristics with Use of Digital Health Tools**

263 Figure 2 summarizes the association between use of digital health tools and patient
264 characteristics, showing the overall number of studies per finding as well as the proportion of
265 those that met criteria for a more robust analysis. Overall among the studies evaluating use of
266 digital health tools, most were not associated with age (14/21), gender (15/21), race (12/20),
267 health status (7/15), education (7/9), digital literacy (4/5), income (4/5), or health literacy or
268 numeracy (3/4). Only one study evaluated use by English proficiency and found that the digital
269 health tool favored those with limited English proficiency (Spanish speakers spent more time per
270 link on a website). However, this same study also found that white participants had more link
271 views compared to racial/ethnic minority participants.[40] The remaining studies of digital
272 literacy, income, and health literacy or numeracy favored those with adequate digital or health
273 literacy or numeracy and those with higher income.

274

275 When considering only the thirteen studies of use that met criteria for a more robust analysis,
276 there appears to be a relationship between use and two characteristics: race and health status.
277 Notably, half of digital health tools that examined use by race (6/12) favored those who self-
278 identify as white, while only one favored those who identify as a racial minority. Digital health
279 tools that favored white populations compared to racial minorities included an Internet-based
280 intervention for HIV prevention among men who have sex with men,[41] a text-messaging
281 program for assessing diabetes risk,[42] a text-messaging and IVR program for medication

282 adherence among adults with diabetes,[43] an Internet- and IVR-based program for weight
283 management,[44] a smartphone app for management of schizophrenia after hospital
284 discharge,[45] and an Internet program about nutrition.[40] In these studies, use was measured as
285 any adoption, retention over months, frequency of interactions with the digital health tool, and/or
286 time spent using the digital health tool. Our subgroup analysis also found that half of the studies
287 that examined use by health status (4/8) favored those with poorer health status, while only two
288 favored those with better health status. Digital health tools that favored those with poorer health
289 status included a social media intervention for people living with HIV,[46] smartphone apps and
290 an Internet-based program for mental health management,[47 48] and a text-messaging tool to
291 improve postoperative care.[49] Measures of use in these studies included any use of the tools
292 and frequency of interactions with the tools.

293

294 **DISCUSSION**

295 In this review of recent evidence, we found only 29 studies evaluating use by patient
296 characteristics. There was almost no uniformity across studies in how use was measured. The
297 majority of studies included only 1-3 patient characteristics, primarily age and gender. For other
298 factors, notably digital literacy and health literacy, the representation was extremely low despite
299 a growing body of work documenting barriers to digital health use by these factors.[12, 13, 15,
300 17, 28, 50] Moreover, the wide variability in measurement of patient characteristics represents
301 the need for future work in digital health to not only include but also measure these variables in a
302 standardized and validated manner.

303

304 For most patient characteristics, the majority of studies found no statistically significant
305 association between the patient characteristic and use. For example, while older age is often
306 assumed to be a barrier to engaging in digital health, our results suggest that for a range of digital
307 health tools age does not predict use. In fact, in some cases use is higher among older adults.
308 Nevertheless, among studies including large enough sample size of diverse subjects and non-
309 users, we did observe differences in digital health use by race and health status. These
310 differences seemed to favor white participants and those with poorer health status more often.
311 Literature evaluating patient portals has similarly found lower use among racial and ethnic
312 minority populations [20, 32, 51-53] but has not found an association between use and health
313 status.[30, 54, 55] Possible reasons for differences by race/ethnicity include cultural differences
314 and patterns of use of digital health tools that may vary between social networks.[23] For
315 example, privacy concerns regarding EHR are expressed more frequently among African-
316 Americans compared to whites, and this may extend to other digital health tools.[23]
317 Additionally, people whose friends/social networks can help learn how to use digital health tools
318 are more likely to use them.[56, 57] Our findings suggest that studies that prioritize inclusion of
319 adequate sample sizes of diverse populations and of those with lived experiences with the health
320 conditions of interest [58] might be better positioned to provide greater generalizability about
321 uptake of patient-facing digital health tools in real-world dissemination.[59]
322
323 Furthermore, despite the known high digital literacy, health literacy, numeracy, and language
324 demands of many digital health tools, there were few studies examining use by these
325 characteristics.[60-63] It is imperative that these characteristics be included in evaluation studies
326 of digital health tools in order to inform the real-world usefulness and likely uptake of such tools.

327 Studies of usability of digital health tools, though few in number, have overwhelmingly found
328 that adequate digital literacy, health literacy or numeracy, and English proficiency are associated
329 with higher usability.[31, 64-66] This underscores the need not only to evaluate use by these
330 patient characteristics but also to dedicate research to understanding usability by key patient
331 characteristics, as usability predicts adherence to digital health tool use.[23]

332

333 Despite the large investment in an increasing number of digital health tools available to patients,
334 few are using them, and this number has not grown appreciably over the past several years.[67]
335 Furthermore, while research has demonstrated the potential of these tools in widening existing
336 health disparities,[23] there has been little attention paid thus far to *who* users versus non-users
337 are. Our review underscores this and highlights that even among the studies that consider the
338 relationship between patient characteristics and use, a wider range of patient characteristics and
339 greater attention to robust methodology is needed. Some studies included in this review had
340 robust methodology and did include a wide range of patient characteristics, demonstrating that it
341 is possible to design and conduct such studies well. In fact, those studies that included digital
342 literacy, health literacy, and English proficiency also tended to have more robust methodology.
343 In order to understand why adoption of digital health tools remains so low, it is essential to
344 consistently and deliberately assess their use. It is particularly necessary to do so among diverse
345 populations that more accurately reflect the US population, rather than among self-selecting,
346 homogeneous, advantaged populations. Regardless of whether a digital health tool has been
347 shown in a study to be effective in improving a behavioral or clinical outcome, these upstream
348 factors of use and usability will ultimately determine whether it will be successful in improving
349 health and ensuring health equity.[23] As digital health tools continue to be rapidly developed

350 and promoted, and patients are increasingly empowered to manage their personal health data,[3,
351 68] this becomes even more necessary.

352
353 This study has several limitations. Because of the wide variation in the definitions,
354 measurements, and reporting of our outcome measures, we used terms capturing patient
355 engagement in our search strategy for studies evaluating use—it is possible that we have not
356 captured all relevant studies, particularly if they used different terminology for these measures.
357 For the same reasons, we were unable to perform a meta-analysis of effect size or use a single
358 validated tool to assess risk of bias or quality. However, we developed a set of proxy criteria to
359 decide which of our included studies were methodologically appropriate for a subgroup analysis.
360 We were similarly unable to assess publication bias; however, a large number of the included
361 studies had negative (non-significant) findings. We limited our search to PubMed given our
362 specific focus on biomedical literature and may therefore have missed studies available only in
363 other databases. Finally, due to the significant contribution of social factors (including patient
364 characteristics highlighted in this study) to poor health outcomes in the US compared to other
365 high-income countries,[69] we limited inclusion to US studies, which could limit generalizability
366 of results.

367
368 In conclusion, by specifically examining studies with objective measures of use, our results offer
369 a substantially better understanding than provided by prior literature of patient adoption of digital
370 health tools within different populations, including those vulnerable populations with high
371 burden of disease and health inequity. Similar to studies of patient portal use, we found lower use
372 of digital health tools among racial and ethnic minority populations. Evaluating use among

373 diverse populations is critical in order to inform strategies to address low adoption of and
374 adherence to patient-facing digital health tools. These efforts are important not only to increase
375 patient uptake and sustained use of digital health tools, but also to identify inequities that may be
376 perpetuated by growing availability of these tools.

377

378

379 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

380 **Figure 1. PRISMA Flow Diagram.**

381 **Figure 2. Patient characteristics associated with use, both among all included studies**
382 **(entire bar) and within the subgroup of studies with more robust methodology (black).**

383 Studies that found no association ($P \geq 0.05$) between use and patient characteristics were labeled
384 “non-significant.” There were no tools that favored men or those with lower educational
385 attainment, limited digital literacy, lower income, limited health literacy or numeracy, or English
386 proficiency. Robust methodology was defined as meeting two of the following 3 criteria: (1)
387 clearly included and reported characteristics of non-users of the digital health solution, (2)
388 included ≥ 50 participants in analyses, and (3) presented multivariable relationships to assess
389 whether a characteristic was predictive of use holding all other characteristics constant.

390 LEP=limited English proficiency.

391

392

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401

402 **COMPETING INTERESTS STATEMENT**

403 The authors have no competing interests to declare.

404

405 **CONTRIBUTORSHIP STATEMENT**

406 All authors contributed to the 1) conception or design of the work, 2) drafting or critically
407 revising the work, 3) final approval of the version to be published, and 4) the accuracy and
408 integrity of the work. Dr. Nouri, Ms. Thao, Dr. Acharya, and Dr. Lyles also contributed to the
409 acquisition, analysis, and interpretation of the data.

410

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414

415

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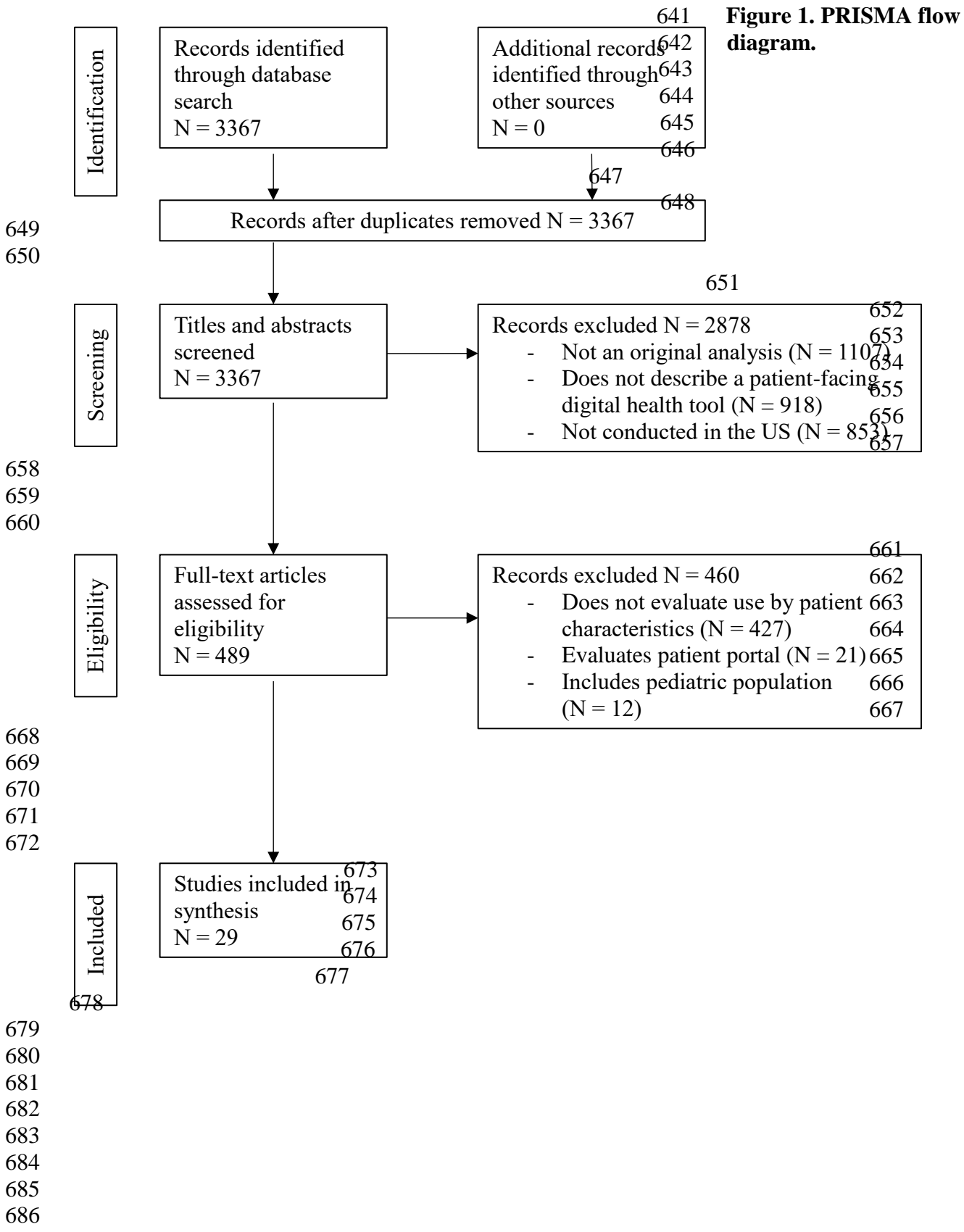
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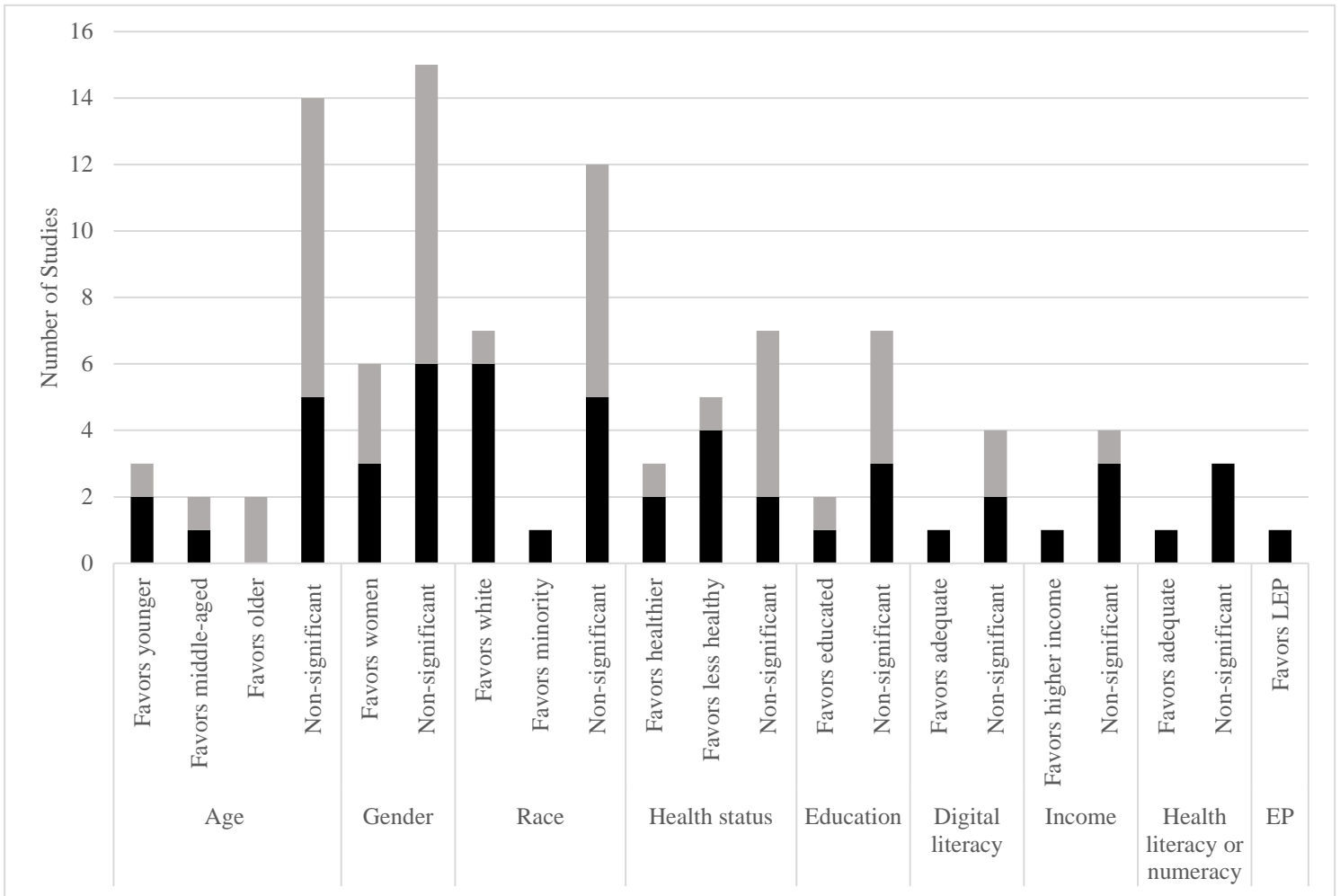
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688 **Figure 2. Patient characteristics associated with use, both among all included studies**
 689 **(entire bar) and within the subgroup of studies with more robust methodology (black).**
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692 Appendix A1. Search strategy details.

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694 We conducted term harvesting, the identification of keywords and controlled vocabulary used in
695 key articles, followed by an iterative process of testing individual search terms to develop our
696 final search strategy. Boolean logic was applied by combining similar terms with OR and using
697 AND between the two concepts: for example, (“Patient Participation”[Mesh] OR “self
698 management”) AND (“health information technology” OR “patient portals”). The database
699 search was conducted in PubMed on July 27, 2018.

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Date	Database searched	Search strategy	Number of results
7/27/18	PubMed (1966-)	("self management"[tiab] OR engaged[tiab] OR engagement[tiab] OR engages[tiab] OR engage[tiab] OR engaging[tiab] OR "user uptake"[tiab] OR "self help"[tiab] OR "Patient Participation"[Mesh]) AND ("health information technology"[tiab] OR "health information technologies"[tiab] OR "health technology"[tiab] OR "health technologies"[tiab] OR "patient portal"[tiab] OR "patient portals"[tiab] OR "portal use"[tiab] OR "online portal"[tiab] OR "online portals"[tiab] OR apps[tiab] OR app[tiab] OR "cell phone"[tiab] OR "cell phones"[tiab] OR smartphone[tiab] OR smartphones[tiab] OR "smart phone"[tiab] OR "smart phones"[tiab] OR "mobile phone"[tiab] OR "mobile phones"[tiab] OR "mobile device"[tiab] OR "mobile devices"[tiab] OR "mobile applications"[tiab] OR "mobile health"[tiab] OR mhealth[tiab] OR "m-health"[tiab] OR	3367

		ehealth[tiab] OR "digital health"[tiab] OR "text messaging"[tiab] OR "text message"[tiab] OR "text messages"[tiab] OR texting[tiab) AND ("2013/07/29"[PDat] : "2018/07/27"[PDat])	
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735 Appendix A2. Complete reference list of included studies.

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Appendix A3. Detailed study characteristics by type of digital health tool.

	Author (year of publication)	Health Area of Focus	Study Design	Size (N)	Study Objective	Use Outcome Measure(s)	Demographics Assessed
Smartphone or Tablet Apps							
	Almodovar, A (2018)	Chronic disease management	Observational (Retrospective analysis of dataset)	34	Evaluate use of Sinaspriete (mobile app for mental health) and association between use and depression/anxiety outcomes	Length of time spent in app, completion of activities in app, and answering vs not answering self-assessment questions	Age Gender Race Education Income Health status
	Ben-Zeev, D (2016)	Chronic disease management	Observational (Implementation)	342	Evaluate feasibility and examine association between patient characteristics and engagement with mHealth program	Number of days of app use (overall, per week, and daily on-demand), number of days participants responded to prompts	Age Gender Race Health status
	Frisbee, K (2016)	Chronic disease management	Observational (Pilot)	882	Examine patient and family characteristics associated with app use	Use vs non-use of app	Age Digital literacy Health status
	Greysen, S (2014)	No focus	Observational (Implementation)	30	Pilot study to examine use of tablets to access patient portal in hospitalized patients	Completing vs not completing an online health model and/or of 1 function on tablet	Age Digital literacy

	Hales, H (2017)	Weight management	Observational (Implementation)	24	Examine use of the Social Pounds Off Digitally (weight management app) and predictors of weight loss	Frequency of use of various app features	Age Gender Race Education
	Iacoviello, B (2017)	Tobacco or substance use	Observational (Implementation)	416	Assess engagement, efficacy, and safety of Clickotine (a smoking cessation app)	Number of times app opened, number of weeks actively engaging in app	Age Gender Race Health status
	Mohr, D (2017)	Chronic disease management	Observational (Pilot)	99	Pilot study of IntelliCare (suite of apps for depression and anxiety)	Number of app sessions and length of time spent in app	Age Gender Race Education Health status
	Moitra, E (2017)	Chronic disease management	Observational (Feasibility)	65	Feasibility of ecologic momentary assessment via mobile devices	Completer vs non-completer of EMA	Gender Health status
	Pavliscaak, H (2016)*	Chronic disease management	Secondary analysis of intervention arm of a randomized controlled trial	95	Secondary analysis examining engagement with mCare (an app for rehabilitating wounded Service Members) among those randomized to receive mCare in a randomized controlled trial	Exposure and response to mCare questionnaires	Age Gender

	Schmidt, C (2017)	Tobacco or substance use	Observational (Feasibility)	247	Examine use and outcomes of See Me Smoke-Free (a smoking cessation app)	Number of times participants answered daily questions	Age Race
	Zeng, E (2015)	Tobacco or substance use	Secondary analysis of intervention arm of a randomized controlled trial	98	Secondary analysis examining association between patient characteristics and use of SmartQuit (a smoking cessation app) among those randomized in a pilot trial to receive SmartQuit	Number of times participants opened app over 8 weeks	Age Gender Education Health status
Text Messaging							
	Bergner, E (2017)	Chronic disease management	Observational (Mixed methods usability evaluation)	55	Explore association between health literacy and Rapid Education/Encouragement and Communications for Health (a text messaging intervention to support self-care in type 2 diabetes)	Number of times participants answered daily messages	Health literacy or numeracy

	Buis, R (2013)	Prevention/Promotion	Observational (Retrospective analysis of dataset)	5570	Use RE-AIM framework to evaluate reach and adoption of Txt4health (text messaging program for diabetes risk assessment)	Reach, adoption, and number of times participants responded to weekly requests to log weights	Age Gender Race
	Christofferson, D (2016)	Tobacco or substance use	Observational (Retrospective analysis of dataset)	1470	Examine use and effectiveness of SmokefreeVET (a smoking cessation program)	Number of text messages sent by participants to the SmokeFreeVET program over 6 weeks	Age Gender Health status
	Heminger, C (2016)	Tobacco or substance use	Observational (Retrospective analysis of dataset)	262	Secondary analysis of a randomized controlled trial examining the association between use of Text2Quit (a smoking cessation program) and smoking cessation	Aggregate count of keyword and survey responses and of web logins	Age Gender Race Education Digital literacy Health status
	Irizarry, T (2018)	Chronic disease management	Observational (Implementation)	43	Pilot study of MyBP (text messaging program to support blood pressure self-monitoring and management)	Frequency of responding to prompts about blood pressure	Age Gender Race Education Health status

	Khosropour, C (2013)	Prevention/Promotion	Observational (Implementation)	710	Compare retention in a 12-month prospective study of HIV-negative MSM receiving surveys via text messages versus Internet	Retention in text-messaging program at 12 months	Race
	Nelson, L (2015)*	Chronic disease management	Observational (Pilot)	80	Examine association between patient factors and engagement in a medication adherence program consisting of text messages and interactive automated calls	Number of responses to daily text messages, and participation in weekly IVR calls over 11 weeks	Age Gender Race Income Health literacy or numeracy Health status
	Santa Maria, D (2018)	Prevention/Promotion	Observational (Implementation)	66	Use ecologic momentary assessment to determine predictors of sexual activity among homeless youth	Number of responses to EMA	Age Gender Race
	Sosa, A (2017)	Surgery/Post-operative Care	Observational (Pilot)	23	Pilot study evaluating an automated text-message based intervention for post-operative needs	Frequency of text messages sent, dichotomized as high vs low by median split	Age Gender Race Education Income Health status

	Turner, C (2017)	Tobacco or substance use	Observational (Pilot)	30	Examine associations between patient characteristics and engagement in ecologic momentary assessment text messages	Frequency of responding to EMA texts	Age Race
Interactive Voice Response							
	Lanpher, M (2016)	Weight management	Randomized controlled trial	175	Determine the association between health literacy and 12-month weight change and engagement in a weight management intervention	Completion of IVR calls	Health literacy or numeracy
	Moore, B (2017)	Tobacco or substance use	Randomized controlled trial	127	Two randomized controlled trials evaluating features of the Recovery Line (automated real-time assistance by phone for patients in methadone maintenance)	Number of calls and total minutes of call time	Gender
	Wolin, K (2015)	Weight management	Secondary analysis of intervention arm of a randomized controlled trial	180	Examine the effects of intervention modality choice (Internet vs interactive voice response) on engagement in a	Frequency of weekly self-monitoring over 24 months	Gender Race Education Income Health literacy or numeracy Digital literacy

					weight-loss intervention		Health status
Internet							
	Brusk, J (2016)	Prevention/Promotion	Observational (Retrospective analysis of dataset)	305735	Compare impact of mobile vs fixed devices on user engagement with the website for the Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants, and Children (WIC)	Number of links viewed and link view time	Race Limited English proficiency
	Toscos, T (2018)	Chronic disease management	Observational (Survey)	662	Examine use and willingness of use tele-mental health	Use vs non-use of anonymous chats and online therapy	Gender Health status
Social Media							
	Flickinger, T (2016)	Chronic disease management	Observational (Implementation)	38	Examine patient characteristics associated with posting on a community message board of a program for people living with HIV	Posting vs not posting on a community message board	Age Gender Race Education Income Health status

	Turner-McGrievy, G (2013)	Weight management	Secondary analysis of intervention arm of a randomized controlled trial	47	Secondary analysis to examine content and number of Twitter posts among those randomized to a mobile, social network arm of randomized controlled trial	Number of Twitter posts	Age Gender Race Digital literacy
Fitness Tracker							
	Dean, D (2018)	Weight management	Observational (Implementation)	40	Pilot study to assess feasibility and acceptability of a physical activity intervention including a Fitbit	Use vs non-use of Fitbit	Age

*The following studies are listed only once in the table but evaluated more than 1 type of digital health tool: Pavliscsak = Smart-phone or Tablet App AND Text Messaging; Nelson = Text Messaging AND Interactive Voice Response; Wolin = Internet AND Interactive Voice Response.

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Appendix A4. Comment on patient characteristic definitions, measurement, and categorization.

For all included patient characteristics, studies varied in their definitions, measurement, and categorization. Age was most often measured continuously in years, though in 4 studies was divided into 2 or more categories. Gender was defined as “male” or “female” in nearly all studies; 2 studies included “other” and 2 studies included “transgender.” Eight of 18 studies dichotomized race/ethnicity as white versus non-white; the remainder included more than 2 categories for race/ethnicity. (For our data synthesis, we dichotomized race as white versus non-white.) Health status was included as self-reported health status, number of hospitalizations or chronic medical conditions, or various disease markers (e.g., HIV viral load); none of the studies measured health status using validated comorbidity indices. There was significant variation in the categorization of education; we therefore synthesized the data into the following groups: < high school versus \geq high school, and < Bachelors versus \geq Bachelors. Only 5 studies specified including participants with post-graduate education. We defined digital literacy broadly as any assessment of patients’ technology use, including both frequency and competence, as none of the studies used validated measures of digital literacy. Examples include number of text messages sent per day, baseline social media use frequency, or self-reported Internet use skills. Income measurements included both categories of annual incomes and incomes relative to the Federal Poverty Level. Health literacy and/or numeracy were included in analyses as limited versus adequate in 2/4 studies but were measured using different scales. Limited English proficiency was defined in the single study that included it as having a non-English preferred language.

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Appendix A5. Appropriateness (“yes” if met criteria and “no” if did not meet criteria) for subgroup analysis by domain and overall for each study.

Author (year)	Sampling strategy*	Sample size**	Measurement or analytic methods^	Overall°
Almodovar, A (2018)	No	No	No	No
Ben-Zeev, D (2016)	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Bergner, E (2017)	No	Yes	No	No
Brusk, J (2016)	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Buis, R (2013)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Christofferson, D (2016)	No	Yes	No	No
Dean, D (2018)	Yes	No	No	No
Flickinger, T (2016)	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Frisbee, K (2016)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Greysen, S (2014)	No	No	No	No
Hales, H (2017)	No	No	No	No
Heminger, C (2016)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Iacoviello, B (2017)	No	Yes	No	No
Irizarry, T (2018)	No	No	No	No
Khosropour, C (2013)	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Lanpher, M (2016)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Mohr, D (2017)	No	Yes	No	No
Moitra, E (2017)	No	No	No	No
Moore, B (2017)	No	Yes	No	No
Nelson, L (2016)	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Pavliscsak, H (2016)	No	Yes	No	No
Santa Maria, D (2018)	No	Yes	No	No
Schmidt, C (2017)	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Sosa, A (2017)	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Toscos, T (2018)	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Turner-McGrievy, G (2013)	Yes	No	No	No
Turner, C (2017)	No	No	Yes	No
Wolin, K (2015)	Yes	Yes	No	Yes

	Zeng, E (2015)	No	Yes	No	No
52	*“Yes” if the study clearly included and reported characteristics of non-users of the digital health				
53	solution.				
54	**“Yes” if the study included ≥ 50 participants in analyses.				
55	^“Yes” if the study presented multivariable relationships to assess whether a characteristic was				
56	predictive of use holding all other characteristics constant.				
57	°“Yes” if the study met 2 out of the 3 above criteria.				
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