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Inadequacy and impact of facility design for adolescents and young adults with cancer

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Abstract

As cancer remains the leading disease-related cause of death in adolescence, designers must consider the influence of health facility design on social support and quality of life, while considering the changing psychosocial needs of adolescents and young adults (AYAs). Both the stress of treatment and the environment in which treatment occurs can influence AYAs during a time of significant social, biological, and cognitive developmental transitions. A questionnaire developed and provided to 104 AYA-aged survivors of AYA cancer revealed significant inadequacies across 22 features of the cancer treatment environment. Results of a regression analysis suggest a significant relationship between adequacy of the built environment, social support, AYA-specific resources, and health-related quality of life. Recommendations are provided for the design of an inpatient or outpatient cancer facility for young people, such that designers must create space to balance desired and achieved social interaction.

Keywords

Adolescence; young adulthood; built environment; oncology; quality of life; health design

1. Introduction

2 Cancer is the number one disease-related cause of death in adolescence, surpassed only 3 by accidents, suicide, and homicide. In 2011, nearly six times the number of adolescents were 4 diagnosed with cancer than children, though adolescents are generally treated at the same 5 facilities as younger pediatric patients (National Cancer Institute, 2015). This can be problematic 6 if the facilities are not well-adapted for multiple life stages, as both the physical and 7 psychological needs of adolescent cancer patients differ from those of childhood patients. 8 Beginning with Roger Ulrich's landmark study of patient recovery and views of nature 9 (1984), researchers have suggested that evidence-based design of the built environment can 10 promote healing. Under Gibson's affordance theory, a well-designed environment encourages 11 and supports certain behaviors without any additional sensory processing from the user (Gibson,

12 1977). A supportive healthcare environment will provide for social behavior without requiring

13 explicit understanding of the possibilities of the environment. Similarly, Ulrich's theory of

supportive design (1991; 2001) posits a healthcare environment can promote wellness, reduce stress, and improve outcomes if patients have the following: a sense of control, access to social support, and access to positive distractions. Understanding the continuum of socialization needs both across the lifespan and between healthcare facilities will provide designers with evidence to create these adaptive facilities that allow for positive, supportive care through the adolescent development period.

In many instances within the healthcare domain, the boundaries of adolescence do not line up with the boundaries proposed in developmental psychology. Many facilities and agencies discuss AYA (Adolescent and Young Adult) cancer resources, proposing an extended age period usually bound by ages 15 to 39. This recommendation is based in cancer biology, as the types of

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cancer experienced between ages 15-39 are unique in their origin and treatment (Bleyer, 2007). In developmental psychology domains, the cognitive and social differences between 15-year-old adolescents and 39-year-old adults are extensive. As such, boundaries this large are rarely ever used for the purpose of research on the lifespan. In 2013, the AYA Oncology Progress Research Group recommended continued use of ages 15 to 39 to define this population, while conceding

that it may be flexibly applied, specifically mentioning developmentally based definitions as

7 more appropriate in the psychosocial domain (Smith et al., 2016).

8 1.1 Adequacy of the Built Environment for AYA Populations

9 Previous studies have investigated adolescent and young adult preferences in the built 10 environment, though most studies rely on younger pediatric participants. In a study of 12- to 14-11 year-olds in a hospital, participants preferred colors they considered cheerful and bright, but 12 disliked elements they considered to be more childish, including teddy bears and balloons. 13 Private bedrooms, bathrooms, and entertainment opportunities (like television and DVDs) were 14 highly preferred (Blumberg & Devlin, 2006). Similarly, in a qualitative study of 11- to 19-year-15 olds in a physician's office, participants preferred a less childish environment with home-like characteristics and age-appropriate entertainment (Tivorsak, Britto, Klostermann, Nebrig, & 16 17 Slap, 2004). In this study, however, participants preferred neutral colors – likely because the 18 participants' age range was older than studied by Blumberg & Devlin (2006). A study of 4- to 19 16-year old patients in an English hospital resulted in a list of visual cues signifying "babyish" 20 spaces (plastic toys, balloons, play areas, etc.) and spaces for older children and teenagers 21 (computers, posters, televisions, and music) (Birch, Curtis, & James, 2007). A quantitative study 22 of art preferences among hospitalized youth revealed a significant preference for representational 23 nature images, rather than impressionist or abstract images – particularly among ages 14-17

1	(Eisen, Ulrich, Shepley, Varni, & Sherman, 2008). In an ethnographic study of ward use in an
2	adolescent-designated unit, adolescents often created their own space within the ward, using
3	personal effects to disrupt feelings of homogeneity within the space (Hutton, 2010).
4	In 2001, clinical nurses in a teenage oncology unit in the UK reflected on the gap in
5	services provided to AYAs with a brief mention of the ideal treatment environment (Hollis &
6	Morgan, 2001):
7	The unit can become a familiar place, with familiar faces in surroundings that should
8	exude hopefulness, normality, and professionalism. It should become a place to which the
9	patient has no fear of returning and where there is mutual trust. It is a place where
10	patients find out that they are not alone, and mutually supportive relationships can form
11	with peers.
12	Because of the lack of facilities (and literature to support the design of these facilities),
13	this study aims to measure the discrepancy between AYA patient needs and the current
14	state of the built environment (Aim 1). In previous interviews with AYAs, participants
15	described inadequacies in the built environment (blinded for peer review). Hypothesis #1 states
16	that participants will report discrepancies between features important to patients and those
17	effectively provided in the treatment environment.
18	1.2 Social Support during Adolescence and Young Adulthood

18 1.2 Social Support during Adolescence and Young Adulthood

While adolescents are affected by different types of cancer than children, they also have 19 different psychological needs to fulfill, including a transition in social support needs. In general, 20 21 social support is the perceived or actual social resources available to a person from non-22 professionals (Gottlieb & Bergen, 2010). This can incorporate resources from peers, siblings, and 23 parents, and span both formal support groups and informal relationships. This study investigates

perceived social support from peers – the individual's beliefs about the availability of social
 resources (Gottlieb & Bergen, 2010). This distinction is important, because perceived support (as
 opposed than actual support) has a demonstrated buffering effect on adversity (Barrera, 1986).
 The social support required for positive outcomes has a demonstrated relationship with the
 context in which it occurs, including a person's life-stage (Cutrona & Russell, 1987).

6 Because social support needs (and the avenues through which social support is received) 7 change as children transition to adolescence and to young adulthood, healthcare design must 8 change to facilitate different facets of social support. Both boys and girls experience a shift in 9 perceived support during adolescence, as peer support increases in early adolescence (ages 12-10 16), decreases in late adolescence (ages 16-18), and becomes comparable to support from parents 11 into adulthood (ages 18+) (Helsen, Vollebergh, & Meeus, 2000). Results from this study, 12 however, echoed the importance of parental support, while suggesting a minimal relationship 13 between peer support and emotional well-being. As the positive influence of parental support is 14 well-documented, the current study hopes to expand on the influence of peer support, 15 particularly for adolescent cancer patients.

16 In a study of perceived emotional support among 45 adolescents with cancer (ages 12-17 18), the most frequently reported sources of support were mothers and friends (Ritchie, 2001). A 18 qualitative study of 15 adolescents with cancer (ages 12-18) found similar results, such that 19 adolescents indicated their families, health team, and friends provided their main sources of 20 support (Woodgate, 2006). Tremolada et al. (2018) found AYA survivors who were older and 21 had established strong relationships with health professionals at the clinic displayed a positive 22 comprehension of the events with a pragmatic acceptance of the follow-up procedures. A strong 23 relationship with health team was associated with a better psychological wellbeing.

6

1 A systematic and critical review of the literature on social support among adolescents 2 with cancer revealed substantial methodological challenges in this domain, however. With most 3 studies limited by small sample sizes, there is little information on gender and age differences in 4 social resources. Many studies rely on descriptive qualitative data with very few studies 5 employing a validated quantitative social support measure. Future researchers were urged to 6 consider the relationship between social support and other outcomes (Decker, 2007).

7

1.3 Social Support and Quality of Life

8 Social support has a demonstrated relationship with health-related quality of life 9 (HRQoL). In a recent study of adult breast cancer survivors, women without partners 10 demonstrated lower levels of social support and poorer HRQoL (Leung, Smith, & McLaughlin, 11 2016). In a large study of cancer survivors (n = 1768), social support had a significant 12 relationship with physical and mental HRQoL for both genders (Westby, Berg, & Leach, 2016). 13 This relationship has been echoed in domains beyond cancer. A study of HIV-infected men suggested a similar association between increased social support and increased health-related 14 15 quality of life (Shrestha et al., 2017). In rheumatoid arthritis patients, lower levels of social 16 support were associated with lower HRQoL (Gong & Mao, 2016).

Only recently has research been initiated that investigates the nuances of peer social support and quality of life. One very recent study has demonstrated the influence of peer social support in a young adult population of Korean medical students. As a source of social support, friends were most significantly correlated with *overall* quality of life, while significant others were most influential on psychological and social quality of life (Hwang et al., 2017). Even fewer studies have looked specifically at adolescent or young adult populations. In a recent study of perceived social support and HRQoL, young adult cancer survivors reported greater HRQoL

but lower levels of perceived social support from both peers and family, compared to a control
group of non-patients (Tremolada, Bonichini, Basso, & Pillon, 2016). This unusual finding begs
more research specifically investigating social support and HRQoL in adolescence, as well as the
external influences on these factors, like facility design. The Adolescent and Young Adult
Oncology Progress Review Group specifically called on researchers to perform studies
investigating HRQoL among the adolescent and young adult population (Smith et al., 2016).

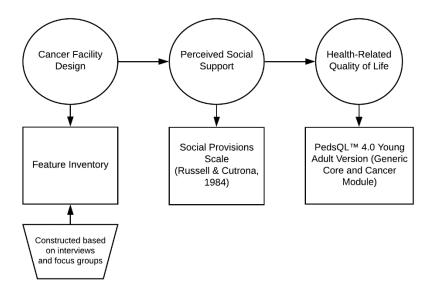
7 1.4 Influence of the Built Environment on Social Support and Quality of Life

8 The psychosocial standard of care for pediatric oncology stresses the importance of 9 providing opportunities for social interaction – and even briefly implies the built environment 10 may facilitate psychosocial care (Christiansen et al., 2015). To receive the Center for Excellence 11 award designated to AYA cancer facilities, a facility must provide (among other qualifications) 12 psychosocial support for its patients (Health Care Rights Initiative (HCRI), n.d.). The Center for 13 Excellence designation, however, only requires a center establish several formal support services 14 and provide certain resources, making no mention of the facility design that may critically 15 support the efficacy of these resources. In meetings of the AYA Oncology Progress Review 16 Group in 2006 and 2013, researchers and practitioners alike noted the importance of 17 understanding the unique burden of cancer on adolescents, as well as the importance of 18 providing developmentally-oriented care (Adolescent and Young Adult Oncology Progress 19 Review Group, 2006; Smith et al., 2016). Like the Center for Excellence standards, however, 20 there is no mention of the built environment.

The relationship between the built environment and social support has been previously established, although in community and not medical settings. The presence of porches, for example, positively influenced perceived social support in a Hispanic neighborhood, with

perceived social support mediating the relationship between the built environment and
psychological distress (Brown et al., 2009). In a Swedish neighborhood, residents reported a
significant increase in social support during a 10-year longitudinal study after community
development projects improved the schools, playgrounds, shops, and youth activities (Dalgard &
Tambs, 1997). Older adults living in deteriorated neighborhoods report lower social support than
those living in well-maintained neighborhoods (Thompson & Krause, 1998).

At the facility scale, this study aims to measure the mediating effect of perceived social support on the relationship between the built environment and health-related quality of life for AYAs (Aim 2). Because of the established relationship between social support and quality of life, Hypothesis #2 states that the relationship between adequate facilities and healthrelated quality of life is mediated by perceived social support, such that adequacy of the built environment will influence perceived social support, while perceived social support influences quality of life (see Figure 1).



14 Figure 1. The conceptual framework of the study demonstrating the constructs and measures

15 being investigated and their hypothesized relationship (Aim 2).

2. Material and Methods

Institutional Review Board approval was obtained from [UNIVERSITY REDACTED]
prior to beginning questionnaire development or research with human participants.

4

2.1 Questionnaire Development

5 Health-related quality of life was measured using an adaptation of the previously 6 validated Pediatric Quality of Life InventoryTM (PedsQL) Generic Core Scale for Young Adults 7 (Varni & Limbers, 2009) and the corresponding Cancer Module for Young Adults (Varni, 8 Burwinkle, Katz, Meeske, & Dickinson, 2002). The original PedsQL for Young Adults was 9 intended for and tested with participants aged 18 to 25. The core scale includes items in four 10 categories: Physical Functioning, Emotional Functioning, Social Functioning, and Study/Work 11 Functioning. The cancer module includes an additional eight categories: Pain & Hurt, Nausea, 12 Procedural Anxiety, Treatment Anxiety, Worry, Cognitive Problems, Perceived Physical 13 Appearance, and Communication. To best fit the age range of the proposed sample, this 14 questionnaire used the adaptation of the PedsQL created by Ewing, King, and Smith (2009) in 15 their validation study involving cancer and blood disorder patients aged 16 to 32. Ewing et al. 16 validated this adaptation of the PedsQL with a Cronbach's alpha ranging from 0.81 to 0.98. This 17 adaptation was also approved by the original developer, James Varni, as indicated by Ewing, 18 King, and Smith (2009). It has been recommended for use by the Adolescent and Young Adult 19 Oncology Progress Review Group for studies investigating HRQoL (Smith et al., 2016). 20 While the PedsQL contains five items on social functioning, these do not represent the 21 level of perceived peer support from other patients in the facility. To investigate perceived peer 22 support, the Social Provisions Scale (SPS) (Russell & Cutrona, 1984) was also administered. The

23 discriminant validity of the SPS has been previously investigated and it has been determined to

be distinct from measures of social desirability, introversion-extraversion, and neuroticism. It has
also been previously used in studies of the elderly, showing a significant relationship between
SPS scores and several health outcomes, particularly when participants were under high stress
(Cutrona & Russell, 1987). The Social Provisions Scale was adapted slightly, as it currently
reads "Think about your current relationships with friends, family members, co-workers,
community members, and so on." To better address the construct of peer social support, the
instructions were amended to "Think about your current relationships with peers in this facility,"
"Think about your relationships with peers in your facility while you were being treated," and
similar sentiments.
Participants were also asked about the importance and effectiveness of features from a
design inventory, following the structure used by Shepley et al. 2017. Consideration was given to
adapting the Physical and Architectural Characteristics Inventory (PACI) (Timko, 1996) as a

tool, but in its original form the PACI contains only one section regarding "social-recreational aids," and only suggests two features within these categories - the presence of small tables and the presence of a patio or courtyard. As such, a novel inventory was best suited.

The inventory was constructed using information gathered during the previous interviews, site visits to identified facilities, and a survey of healthcare design professionals.

2.1.1 Expert survey. To ensure a comprehensive feature inventory, 11 experts were provided a list of inpatient features for AYA patients that they rated on a 5-point Likert scale for importance and asked to provide recommendations for missing features. Paper surveys were distributed to attendees at the Healthcare Planning, Design, and Construction (PDC) Summit in Nashville, TN in March 2018 using a snowball sampling technique, in which one participant (identified prior to the PDC Summit) assisted in identifying other experts attending the summit.

Experts who did not attend the PDC Summit were asked to complete an online version of the same questionnaire through Qualtrics – these participants were also identified through snowball sampling. Participants were both male and female, ages 29 – 70, experts in the fields of healthcare planning and design (several with experience in projects related to AYA cancer), with titles ranging from interior designer to architect to principal and architectural intern to senior vice president.

7 The feature inventory was adjusted based on open-ended feedback on the expert 8 questionnaire. The wording "quiet room" was changing to "meditative space," "open/enclosed 9 nursing station" was removed due to confusion, and "artwork" was added. One expert noted the 10 importance of thermal comfort, so "temperature control" was added. Experts also suggested 11 several other features, including infection control and a space for clinicians, but these were not 12 included as they were not directly patient-related.

13 **2.1.2 Pilot study.** The questionnaire was piloted with six participants ages 18 - 28 to 14 evaluate the tool prior to deployment. Members of the Young Adult Support Group of the Cancer 15 Resource Center of the Finger Lakes in Ithaca, NY participated in the pilot study. Pilot feedback 16 resulted in the addition of a new section addressing patient-patient social interaction, using the following questions: "Were you satisfied with your ability to interact with other patients your 17 18 age?" (Yes/No, I would have preferred more/No, I would have preferred less); and "How did you 19 meet other patients your age?" (In the hallways of my treatment facility/In the common areas of 20 my treatment facility/During outpatient treatment/I was introduced by someone else/In a support 21 group/Through involvement with an organization/Online/Other).

22 **2.2 Participants**

23

Eligible participants were ages 15 to 39, both male and female, and have received (or

currently receiving) treatment for a cancer diagnosis. Exclusion criteria for participants included
 co-morbid diagnoses, any major developmental disorders, receiving end-of-life care, and/or
 diagnosed less than three months' prior (adapted from Ewing et al., 2009). The questionnaire
 was provided in both English and Spanish.

5 Participants were recruited through outreach by various AYA cancer organizations, 6 including the Ulman Fund, Teen Cancer America, The Samfund, First Descents, and True North 7 Treks. These organizations shared the study information on various social media channels, 8 private Facebook groups, and listservs. Distributing the questionnaire publicly on social media 9 led to an unforeseen challenge – an influx of ineligible (or spam) respondents, likely incentivized 10 by the \$10 Amazon gift card reward. These spam respondents were not deterred by the 11 implementation of a CAPTCHA nor by a question that required participants to email the PI to 12 receive a password. To systematically remove ineligible participants without compromising the 13 sample, the following criteria were implemented: 1) If a participant indicated that they were still 14 receiving treatment, they must not have reported an age at which treatments were completed, 2) 15 If a participant reported a number instead of listing a site name when asked to indicate where they were treated, they were excluded, and/or 3) If a participant selected that their treatments 16 were completed "over two years ago," but their reported current age and the age at which their 17 18 treatments were completed were within a year, they were excluded.

19

2.3 Questionnaire Methods and Analysis

Participants were first asked to rate the importance of environmental *qualities* in an AYA treatment environment. Ratings were provided on a 5-item Likert scale. All participants (n =104) were then asked to rate the importance of environmental *characteristics*, but only those who were currently being treated or had completed treatment within the last two years (n = 56) were

1	asked to rate the effectiveness of those characteristics. All participants' responses are included
2	for mean ratings of importance, while mean ratings of effectiveness are only reported for the
3	cohort of participants with the most recent experience in a treatment setting ($n = 56$). To test
4	Hypothesis #1, paired <i>t</i> -tests between importance and effectiveness were performed using only
5	the data from the participants with the most recent experience. Although Wilcoxon's signed-rank
6	test (a non-parametric approach) is often recommended for Likert-style ordinal data, t-tests have
7	been shown to reduce Type II error in simulations of Likert data, even with small sample sizes
8	when assumptions have been violated (Meek, Ozgur, & Dunning, 2007).
9	To further investigate inadequacy and test the mediating relationship predicted in
10	Hypothesis #2, participants' difference scores between importance and effectiveness for all 22
11	characteristics were averaged to create a single "adequacy" score for each individual. A series of
12	simple regression analyses were performed to examine zero-order relationships between (1)
13	adequacy of the built environment and health-related quality of life, (2) adequacy of the built
14	environment and social support, and (3) social support and health-related quality of life.
15	A multiple regression was then performed to predict health-related quality of life from
16	adequacy of the built environment, access to AYA resources, satisfaction with patient-patient
17	interaction, and perceived social support.
18	3. Results
19	3.1 Participant Demographics
20	104 participants completed the questionnaire. At the time of the survey, 85% of
21	participants were categorized as late young adults between the ages of 25-39, though 33% of
22	participants were first diagnosed prior to age 25 during adolescence and early young adulthood.
23	Participants were treated at 42 different inpatient facilities and 55 outpatient facilities across the

US, ranging from large academic health systems to private specialty clinics. Most patients had 1 2 experience with both inpatient and outpatient facilities, and 38% of participants also had 3 emergency room experience. Twenty-five percent of participants had access to a specialized AYA program or AYA resources. Of the participants that provided a diagnosis, Hodgkin's and 4 5 non-Hodgkin's lymphoma were most commonly reported, comprising 29% of the sample (see 6 Table 1).

- 7 Table 1

8	Frequency Statistics by Demographic Variables

Characteristic	п	%
Age at time of survey		
< 15	0	0
15-18	1	1.0
19-24	6	5.7
25-39	88	84.6
> 39	9	8.7
Age at first diagnosis	·	
< 15	4	3.8
15-18	10	9.6
19-24	20	19.2
25-39	70	67.3
> 39	0	0
Age when treatments completed		
< 15	0	0
15-18	10	9.6
19-24	14	13.5
25-39	63	60.6
> 39	1	1.0
Currently receiving treatment	16	15.4
Time since last treatment	· · ·	
Within six months	9	8.7
Within last year	12	11.5
Within last two years	16	15.4
Over two years ago	48	46.2
Currently receiving treatment	16	15.4

Carcinoma	11	10.6
Sarcoma	8	7.7
Myeloma	1	1.0
Leukemia	13	12.5
Lymphoma	30	28.8
Mixed Types	0	0
Unspecified	41	39.4
Type of facilities		
Inpatient only	8	7.7
Outpatient only	24	23.1
Inpatient and outpatient	33	31.7
Inpatient and emergency	3	2.9
Outpatient and emergency	3	2.9
Inpatient, outpatient, emergency	33	31.7
Access to AYA program or resources		
Yes	26	25.0
No	54	51.9
Unsure	24	23.1

3

2 **3.2** Adequacy of the Built Environment

"Autonomy over decisions" and "interaction with significant others" were considered the

4 most important qualities by participants, while "opportunity to continue classes," "interaction

5 with other patients," and "career exploration" were considered least important (see Table 2).

6 Table 2

7 Mean Ratings of Importance for Environmental Qualities in an AYA Setting

Qualities	M(SD)
Autonomy over decisions	4.47 (0.72)
Interaction with significant others	4.40 (0.76)
Independence	4.28 (0.88)
Privacy	4.24 (0.95)
Interaction with outside friends	4.21 (0.82)
Autonomy over appearance	4.06 (0.96)
Opportunity to explore interests and hobbies	3.81 (1.03)

Physical contact with others	3.71 (1.14)
Interaction with parents	3.81 (1.08)
Opportunity to continue classes	3.69 (1.18)
Interaction with other patients	3.69 (1.18)
Career exploration	3.66 (1.20)

2	Participants indicated a significant discrepancy between mean importance and
3	effectiveness for all 22 environmental characteristics ($p \le .004$), supporting Hypothesis #1 (see
4	Table 3). Because many participants rated outdoor space so high in importance, there were
5	several negative outliers in the ratings for outdoor space that remained in the data for analysis.
6	The difference scores for the importance and effectiveness were approximately normally
7	distributed as assessed by examination of a Normal Q-Q plot for each characteristic. A negative
8	<i>t</i> -value indicates that the participant rated the characteristic as less effective than it was rated
9	important (implying an inadequacy in the built environment).
10	Because of the considerable implications of these findings, we conducted a post hoc
11	power analysis in G*Power 3.1.9.2 (Erdfelder, Faul, & Buchner, 1996). The effect size of these
12	comparisons ranged from $d_z = 0.40$ to 1.72. The power to detect the smallest of these effect sizes
13	$\alpha = 0.05$ was 0.84, critical $t(55) = \pm 2.00$; observed $t(55) = -3.00$, $p = .004$. For the largest of these
14	effect sizes, the power approached 1.00, critical $t(55) = \pm 2.00$; observed $t(55) = -12.87$, $p < .001$.
15	When the alpha level was adjusted to $\alpha = 0.002$ using Bonferroni's correction, critical <i>t</i> was
16	adjusted to $t(55) = \pm 3.25$. All but one of the <i>t</i> -tests remained statistically significant.

Table 3

Adequacy of the Built Environment

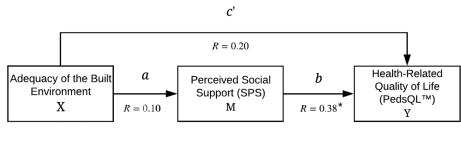
	M(SD)		95% CI of Difference				
	Importance	Effectiveness	Lower	Upper	t	р	d_z
Private bathrooms	4.76 (0.65)	3.13 (1.82)	-2.09	-1.16	-7.02	<.001	0.94
Private bedrooms	4.70 (0.65)	3.45 (1.64)	-1.78	-0.93	-6.39	<.001	0.85
Daylight	4.68 (0.64)	3.18 (1.13)	-1.85	-1.19	-9.19	< .001	1.23
Internet and computer resources	4.67 (0.63)	3.43 (1.26)	-1.59	-0.94	-7.82	< .001	1.04
Temperature control	4.61 (0.69)	2.32 (1.43)	-2.63	-1.77	-10.20	< .001	1.36
Outdoor space	4.42 (0.75)	2.07 (1.26)	-2.81	-2.05	-12.87	< .001	1.72
Visitor beds in patient rooms	4.26 (0.84)	2.29 (1.37)	-2.39	-1.61	-10.31	< .001	1.38
Therapy area (PT, OT, art, music)	4.23 (0.84)	2.48 (1.56)	-2.11	-1.28	-8.20	< .001	1.10
Recreation (TV, games)	3.91 (1.04)	3.07 (1.44)	-1.22	-0.24	-3.00	.004	0.40
Small number of patients per unit	3.88 (0.95)	2.95 (1.38)	-1.37	-0.56	-4.77	< .001	0.64
Staff-patient consulting area	3.79 (0.97)	2.88 (1.42)	-1.42	-0.65	-5.39	< .001	0.72
Family-patient lounge	3.76 (0.97)	2.30 (1.31)	-1.91	-1.13	-7.76	< .001	1.04
Moveable seating	3.63 (1.01)	2.95 (1.20)	-1.23	-0.52	-4.90	< .001	0.65
Meditative space	3.62 (1.01)	1.66 (1.15)	-2.39	-1.58	-9.76	< .001	1.30
Personal desk space	3.60 (1.13)	1.70 (1.01)	-1.52	-0.87	-7.39	< .001	0.99
Personal closet space	3.53 (1.14)	2.59 (1.55)	-1.49	-0.69	-5.46	< .001	0.73
Artwork	3.53 (1.08)	2.43 (1.19)	-1.33	-0.56	-4.95	<.001	0.66

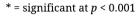
Access to kitchen	3.39 (0.99)	1.88 (1.11)	-1.91	-1.20	-8.81	<.001	1.18
Personalizable rooms	3.32 (1.02)	1.80 (1.20)	-1.96	-1.61	-9.23	<.001	1.23
Motivational message board	3.18 (0.94)	2.11 (1.28)	-1.88	-1.13	-8.01	<.001	1.07
Patient-only lounge	2.98 (1.06)	1.45 (0.83)	-1.89	-1.29	-10.58	<.001	1.41
Classroom	2.74 (0.95)	1.45 (0.93)	-1.62	-1.03	-9.01	<.001	1.20

3.3 Influence of the Built Environment on Social Support and Quality of Life

HRQoL scores were approximately normally distributed. There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.94. Linearity and homoscedasticity were demonstrated by visual inspection of a plot of studentized residuals versus unstandardized predicted values for each factor. There was no evidence of multicollinearity as assessed by tolerance levels greater than 0.10. Although there were several leverage points, there were no outliers in the data and calculation of Cook's Distance indicated no points with a high degree of influence (Cook's Distance < 1.00).

Addressing the meditating relationship predicted in Hypothesis #2, results of a simple regression showed no evidence of a zero-order relationship on path *c* (adequacy of the built environment and HRQoL), F(1, 38) = 1.54, p = .22. There was also no evidence for a zero-order relationship on path *a* (adequacy and perceived social support), F(1, 38) = 0.35, p = .56. There was a significant positive correlation on path *b* between perceived social support and HRQoL, r_s = .383, p < .001; F(1, 66) = 3.49, p = 0.66 (see Figure 2).





15

Figure 2. Visual representation of the correlations between adequacy of the environment, social
support, and HRQOL.

18

19 Though adequacy of the built environment as a whole was not significantly associated

- 1 with social support or HRQoL, the efficacy of several specific environmental features
- 2 demonstrated a significant positive correlation with perceived social support, with coefficients
- 3 ranging from r = .26 (private bedrooms) to r = .30 (recreation) (see Table 4).
- 4 Table 4
- 5 Summary of Significant Correlations between Features and Perceived Social Support

Feature	r	p
Recreation (TV, games)	.304	.023
Internet and computer resources	.286	.033
Moveable seating	.265	.048
Private bedrooms	.258	.055
Private bathrooms	.259	.054

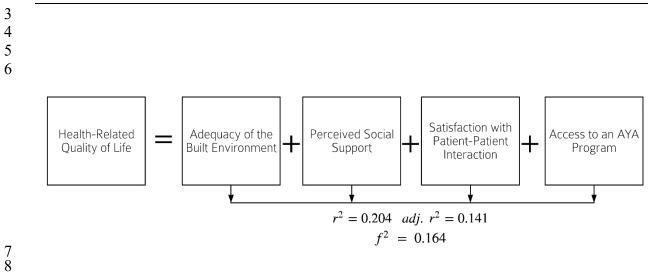
7 In the multiple regression model, adequacy of the built environment, access to an AYA 8 program, satisfaction with patient-patient interaction, and perceived social support significantly predicted HRQoL, F(4, 51) = 3.26, p = .019. R^2 for the overall model was 20.4% with an 9 adjusted R^2 of 14.1%, $f^2 = .164 - a$ medium effect size, according to Cohen (1992). Further, in 10 11 clinical outcomes studies with high ecological validity (as opposed to those conducted in controlled environments), a model with an R^2 value of 0.204 can indicate clinical relevance 12 13 (Hamilton, Ghert, & Simpson, 2015). A summary of the regression model is found in Table 5 and Figure 3. 14

15

1 Table 5

2 Summary of Multiple Regression

В	SE_B	β	t	р
63.36	17.85			
0.28	0.15	.24	1.87	.068
2.95	2.61	.16	1.13	.264
14.17	5.74	.35	2.47	.017
0.522	4.098	.371	.371	.712
	63.36 0.28 2.95 14.17	63.36 17.85 0.28 0.15 2.95 2.61 14.17 5.74	63.36 17.85 0.28 0.15 .24 2.95 2.61 .16 14.17 5.74 .35	63.36 17.85 0.28 0.15 .24 1.87 2.95 2.61 .16 1.13 14.17 5.74 .35 2.47



9 *Figure 3.* Visual representation of the multiple regression.

10 11

4. Discussion

12 **4.1 Adequacy of the Built Environment**

Supporting Hypothesis #1, all 22 environmental characteristics were found to be
significantly inadequate, with "outdoor space," "patient-only lounge," "visitor beds in patient
rooms," "meditative space," "temperature control," and "personalizable rooms" considered the
most inadequate (see Table 3).

1 Special considerations. The importance of outdoor space has long been touted in the 2 health design community, though many facilities still provide inadequate opportunities. When considering how outdoor space may be implemented, it may be more nuanced than simply a 3 4 healing garden – in some studies, participants have indicated value for any space that allows 5 patients to spend time outside of the hospital room or ward (Whitehouse et al., 2001; Birch et al., 6 2007). In an oncology setting, this flexible definition of "outdoor space" may be necessary, as 7 immune-compromised patients may not be afforded the opportunity to access a ground-floor 8 garden, nor are patients receiving certain typical cancer medications allowed in direct sunlight. 9 Given the lack of literature on the health design preferences of AYAs and the small 10 number of AYA-dedicated facilities in the United States, these findings are unsurprising but 11 indicate a need for age-specific design guidelines. More consideration for the role of the built 12 environment and social behavior is given in the following section. Similarly, the role of 13 "temperature control" and "personalizable rooms" are discussed further in the following section, as they relate to salient issues of control and choice. 14

15 4.2 Influence of the Built Environment on Social Support and Quality of Life

16 Results of the regression model demonstrate the importance of social connections with 17 other patient-peers as it pertains to health-related quality of life. Given these results (and the aims 18 of the current study), we were then surprised to see "interaction with other patients" rated one of 19 the least important environmental qualities and "patient-only lounge" rated one of the least 20 important environmental characteristics. These results were even more unexpected because 86%21 of participants indicated they would have preferred more interaction with other patients their age. 22 Only 11% of participants indicated they had as much as interaction with other patients as they 23 desired. These contradictory findings may result from a desire not simply for social

1 opportunities, but for *privacy* – a balance between desired and achieved social interaction.

4.2.1 Optimization between desired and achieved social interaction. In the current
study, the correlations between certain environmental characteristics and social support
emphasize the important balance of social interaction. While recreation areas, Internet access,
and moveable seating all contribute explicitly to social opportunity, the correlation between
social support and private bedrooms and bathrooms hints at the optimization process between
achieved and desired social interaction. This optimization process can be considered privacy
regulation.

9 In an oncology setting, providing privacy is arguably even more important than simply 10 affording social interaction. In a study of 243 young adults, 82% of participants reported seeking 11 privacy when they were distressed. 81% of those participants reported "feeling better" after 12 seeking privacy (Newell, 1994). In a previous qualitative study (blinded for peer review), when 13 asked to describe their ideal treatment facility, a number of AYAs described this balance. As one 14 example, an AYA participant mentioned:

You might have visitors, you might not. If you have visitors, you might want more privacy
but if you wanted to socialize with other people, it's super awkward, it's like you're

17 *violating HIPAA. So, it may be some sort of compromise between the two things.*

Perhaps it is unsurprising, then, that patient-only lounges were rated so low in importance compared to other environmental characteristics that may contribute to privacy regulation more explicitly. When asked to describe their privacy needs, a group of adolescents previously hospitalized for cancer treatment emphasized the importance of the environment, indicating their appreciation for curtains, in-room telephones, and en-suite private bathrooms (Hutton, 2002). An ethnographic study of 40- to 79-year-olds being treated for cancer suggested that patients often seek refuge from fellow patients – and that their ability to seek refuge depends on the ward
 architecture, as patients were observed using different rooms in the hospital to regulate privacy
 (Larsen et al., 2014).

4 4.2.2 Issues of choice and control. As personal privacy is related to control (Malcolm, 5 2005), these findings may extend to broader issues of choice and control, such that patients 6 desire control over their environment – social and otherwise. Participants indicated significant 7 inadequacies in "temperature control," "personalizable rooms," and "access to kitchen" -8 characteristics that contribute to a sense of autonomy. Likewise, "autonomy over decisions" was 9 ranked the most important environment quality by participants in the current study. Previous 10 research shows an association between cancer and a loss of personal autonomy in decision-11 making (Denieffe & Gooney, 2011). In a study of patients ages 4-16 at an English hospital, 12 participants were less concerned with aesthetic characteristics and more concerned with their 13 ability to control lighting, temperature, noise, and smell (Birch et al., 2007).

4.2.3 Barriers and facilitators. Even with ample consideration for choice and control, it is not simply enough to build a space, as the results of the regression model imply. Beyond the adequacy of the built environment, the presence of AYA-specific programming was also important in determining HRQoL (see Figure 3). This seems to suggest AYA-focused social activities are a crucial element when considering strategies to improve social support and quality of life for AYAs. Even for healthy adolescents, the absence of organized activities results in young people spending most of their time alone, usually watching TV (Larson, 2001).

Encouraging participation in activities with other patient-peers is not without its own
 challenges, however. Earlier interviews with 16 AYAs indicate a number of barriers to peer
 interaction in health facilities, including HIPAA restrictions, lack of information from clinicians

and care providers, and body image issues. Many AYAs are left to seek peer-patient connections
on their own (blinded for peer review). In the current study, nearly half of all participants met
same-age patients through support groups, involvement with an AYA organization, or online.
Over one-third of participants, however, indicated they met peer-patients during outpatient
treatment, or in the hallways and common areas of their treatment facility, further emphasizing
the role of the built environment in facilitating peer-patient interaction.

For this reason, "family-patient lounges," "access to kitchen," and "visitor beds in patient 7 8 rooms" become important as opportunities for informal social connection, bridging the gap 9 between public and private spaces, and enabling patients to meet on their own terms without 10 HIPAA concerns. In a previous study, the dining room functioned in this way for patients 11 seeking interaction – patients considered the dining room "a welcome opportunity to interact 12 without obligation" (Larsen, Larsen, & Birkelund, 2014). Likewise, architect Charles Jencks' 13 Maggie's Centres for non-medical cancer support (UK) are designed with a central kitchen, functioning as a welcoming social space (Van der Linden, 2016). 14

15 **4.3 Limitations and Future Research**

16 As this study is the first of its kind to address AYA care environments, there are several limitations of note and numerous opportunities to expand our collective understanding of design 17 18 for AYAs. A number of variables likely play a role in moderating the patient experience with the 19 built environment and should be explored in future studies. Because gender influences the nature 20 of social support during adolescence and young adulthood (Colarossi, 2001), we may reasonably 21 expect gender to moderate the results of this study. Participants were not asked to identify their 22 gender as part of this study, but future research should investigate gender (and other 23 demographic) differences in social support needs during treatment.

1	Information on disease severity and prognosis was not collected in the scope of this
2	study, but previous research suggests quality-of-life is influenced by cancer disease features
3	(Isikhan, 2001). Similarly, the acuity of the care environment (inpatient, outpatient, emergency)
4	likely also serves as a moderator of the patient experience. Indeed, early research in the field
5	suggests individuals receiving inpatient treatment for cancer report lower quality-of-life than
6	those receiving outpatient treatment (Padilla et al., 1983). Many of the environmental
7	characteristics explored in this study pertain to inpatient care, though the majority of participants
8	received treatment in both inpatient and outpatient settings, and for varying amounts of time.
9	23% of participants received outpatient treatment only.
10	The authors theorize a difference in needs for patients depending on the acuity of
11	treatment, such that patients receiving inpatient care may require a higher degree of control but
12	desire less social interaction than those receiving outpatient care. It may be possible, therefore,
13	the path from the built environment to HRQoL is not mediated by social support for inpatients,
14	but rather by choice and control. An extension of this study should restrict the scope to inpatient
15	(or outpatient) experiences only. Administering the questionnaire during active treatment may

16 address this limitation, as well.

17 It is unknown how AYAs not recruited for the study may have answered this 18 questionnaire. Recruiting participants required outreach from AYA support organizations – 19 AYAs who have not connected to these resources (electively or otherwise) did not have the 20 opportunity to complete this survey. There may be important distinctions and needs for AYAs 21 who do not (or choose not to) engage with outside organizations. Additionally, it is unknown 22 how participants' answers may have changed with less time between treatment and completion 23 of the questionnaire. A number of participants were reflecting on their cancer experience after several years. Future research may consider administering the questionnaire during active
 treatment.

3

5. Conclusion

The current study demonstrated the inadequacy of the built environment for adolescents and young adults with cancer, while emphasizing the importance of AYA-specific resources and opportunities for social support. When designing an inpatient or outpatient cancer facility for young people, designers must consider creating space for social interchange such that patients can engage with others when desired while still ensuring privacy.

9 Future research in facility design for adolescents and young adults should take a more 10 nuanced approach by considering the full spectrum of social regulatory activities from isolation 11 to casual interactions to planned interactions – and with whom those activities occur. A 12 behavior-mapping study, for example, could reveal the ways in which the built environment 13 affords social regulation among AYAs. While the current study specifically considered cancer 14 facilities, these findings may be generalized to other inpatient and outpatient facilities treating 15 young people – particularly those that provide care for patient populations across the adolescent and young adult lifespan, like university health facilities and juvenile behavioral health centers. 16 17

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