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ways of working clinically and of enhancing and evaluating the quality of clinical care. Thus, while we share critical social science concern about standardisation of patient experience, we show here how those concerns are already pragmatically present in the infrastructuring efforts that patients, clinicians and administrators engage in.

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Footnote Information

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2 **Infrastructuring experience: what matters**  
3 **in patient-reported outcome data measurement?**

4 **Henriette Langstrup<sup>1</sup>  · Tiago Moreira<sup>2</sup>**

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21 share critical social science concern about standardisation of patient experience, we  
22 show here how those concerns are already pragmatically present in the infrastructur-  
23 ing efforts that patients, clinicians and administrators engage in.

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## 24 Introduction

25 Patient-Reported Outcome (PRO) data are being widely mobilised in Western  
26 healthcare systems to ensure that clinical and governance decisions are based on  
27 measurement of "what matters to patients" (Coulter 2017). Sometimes also referred  
28 to as PROMs (Patient-Reported Outcome Measures), this is data concerning  
29 patients' own experiences of the effects of treatment, collected and encoded through  
30 standardised questionnaire tools generally administered to patients—at home or at  
31 the clinic—during the course of treatment.<sup>1</sup> The FDA defines PROMs as "any report  
32 of the status of a patient's health condition that comes directly from the patient,  
33 without interpretation of the patient's response by a clinician or anyone else" (US  
34 FDA 2006: p. 1). According to the NHS, "PROMs measure a patient's health status  
35 or health-related quality of life at a single point in time," ([https://www.england.nhs.  
36 uk/statistics/statistical-work-areas/proms/](https://www.england.nhs.uk/statistics/statistical-work-areas/proms/)).

37 PROs are seen to embody the goal of creating what Wachter (2015) labelled a  
38 'learning health care system', where data are used to improve the organisation and  
39 delivery of health care. Thus, in the past decade, PRO programmes have attempted  
40 to link health care quality assessment to standardised experience data in countries  
41 such as the US, the UK or Sweden, in the past two decades (Black 2013; Nilsson  
42 et al. 2016). In this, PROs and the systems set up to collect them are promoted as  
43 *participatory technologies*, where data 'coming directly from the patient' are given  
44 a central place in healthcare decision-making—clinical or otherwise. In the clinical  
45 encounter, the promise is more personalised treatment, and, at a managerial level,  
46 more quality and efficiency. Thus, in 2017, the OECD issued a ministerial state-  
47 ment arguing for the need for better and more widespread use in member states'  
48 health systems of "measures of patients' own experiences of medical care and health  
49 care outcomes" (OECD 2017, p. 5). Such measures would, it was suggested, "better  
50 equip countries with data that reflect what matters to patients" (ibid, p. 15).

51 Taking as point of departure Hogle's call for research on how data is made mean-  
52 ingful and acted upon in interaction with "policies, technologies and social condi-  
53 tions" deploying novel infrastructures (Hogle 2016, p. 388), in this paper, we are  
54 concerned with the pragmatics of making 'patient's own experiences' usable for  
55 health care systems. The formalisation of 'patient experience', reconfiguring the  
56 subjective into objective, standardised data and useful data flows is no simple task  
57 (Shapin 2012). How is this done in practice? How and for what reasons are patients'  
58 experience of health services captured and measured? How does this data become  
59 integrated in existing health care organisations and systems? And with what effects  
60 when it comes to the role of 'the patient' and 'experience' in the healthcare sys-  
61 tem? While part of larger 'datafication' efforts within national health systems  
62 (Hogle 2016; Hoeyer et al. 2019), we find the mobilisation of PRO data particularly

1FL01 <sup>1</sup> In this paper, we mainly use the abbreviation PRO even if there are regional differences and some  
1FL02 scholarly debates of terminology and delineation of PRO versus PROM. Some of these issues will be  
1FL03 elaborated on in the analysis. Until then, the reader should see both abbreviations as referring to the same  
1FL04 phenomenon.



63 interesting because these efforts seemingly aim to align well-known expectations  
64 of increased efficiency and effectiveness with more democratising aims of “incor-  
65 poration of the patient’s point of view into the assessment of the appropriateness  
66 [...] of professional allopathic medicine” (Sullivan 2003, 1995; also Moreira 2012).  
67 Through this process, patients are—through data on their subjective experience—  
68 enlisted as ‘co-creators’ of health services and medical innovation (Anderson &  
69 McCleary 2016).

70 However, turning personal experience into standardised data, which can be circu-  
71 lated and used for a multitude of purposes, is not without controversy. For example,  
72 Hausman (2015) has argued against aggregation and averaging of health states valu-  
73 ation because it makes equivalent conditions and situations, which are significantly  
74 different from an ethical point of view (life threatening vs minor conditions). Others  
75 have pointed to the tension between the rhetoric of personalisation in PROs and the  
76 reality that is brought to bear through aggregation of data (Prainsack 2017). This  
77 points to a further tension between the promise of personalization as a “deepening”  
78 of knowledge of the patient and the construction of standardised versions of expe-  
79 rience devoid of real “patient knowledge” (Pols 2014). While we share a concern  
80 for “the seduction of quantification” (Merry 2016) resulting in instrumentalized ver-  
81 sions of patients’ voices, here, we are interested in investigating the pragmatics of  
82 these tools (Moreira 2018). In the paper, we focus, thus, on exploring the production  
83 of datafied, “thin” versions of patient experience through the negotiations and com-  
84 promises involved in integrating it in existing, already data-rich health care systems.

85 Our approach to these questions highlights the complex and partial process of  
86 making a sociotechnical infrastructure for patient experiences. Using the notion of  
87 infrastructuring as a lens to analyse this process (Star and Bowker 2002), we focus  
88 on the relational, temporally emergent and performative dimensions of data and  
89 information systems (Karasti and Blomberg 2018). The concept helps us “theorize  
90 infrastructures as they develop” (Bowker et al. 2018, p. 212), making it possible to  
91 identify and map the multiplicities and uncertainties that are involved in the mak-  
92 ing of PRO. Using this approach, we suggest that the Danish initiative provides a  
93 unique window for us to investigate the formation of PROs in its ‘preparation’ or  
94 pre-launch phase, a critical period that shapes future development. In this, Denmark  
95 may be seen as a critical case for theory development (Yin 2017) of datification of  
96 health care, both due to the extent to which the relation between citizens and welfare  
97 institutions is already highly digitised and due to the country’s long-term tradition  
98 for citizen involvement in policy and practice (Hoeyer 2016).

99 To do this, we draw on ethnographic and documentary data collected on the  
100 activities within a programme in the Danish Health System aimed at establishing  
101 a national questionnaire bank and technical infrastructure for PROs and tightly  
102 coupled with a more general national focus on health digitalization. Between 2015  
103 and 2019, the first author participated in eight public meetings on PRO, conducted  
104 more than 40 h participant observation in a PRO project on heart rehabilitation and  
105 interviewed 15 stakeholders related to the national PRO initiative. The observations  
106 involved participation in workshops, some involving heart patients while others pri-  
107 marily clinicians in the area of heart disease and rehabilitation. Extensive fieldnotes  
108 were made during and after these workshops, complemented with documentation



109 provided at the meetings. Informants for the interviews were selected through a  
110 snowballing approach to identify key actors in the Danish PRO arena. Semi-struct-  
111 ured interviews were transcribed in full and anonymized. Online and print docu-  
112 ments on the national PRO initiative and related activities were collected. We fol-  
113 lowed standard procedures of qualitative data analysis to build our model of domains  
114 of infrastructuring and their internal tensions.

115 In the following, we first offer a brief genealogy of PROs. Our aim in this is to  
116 explore the political and epistemic investments of such standardised measurements  
117 of ‘patient experience’. This provides a useful background against which to under-  
118 stand the tensions experienced by promoters of PROs in Denmark. We then explore  
119 how they are reflexively addressed in the Danish case. Here we identify three  
120 domains of infrastructuring—the clinic, the organisation and participatory arenas—  
121 each with its own set of tensions shaping what the inclusion of patient experiences  
122 as PRO data might entail in practice. We end by discussing the implications of our  
123 findings for how we may understand attempts to ‘datafy’ patient voices.

## 124 **A brief genealogy of PROMs**

125 As suggested above, the establishment of PROs as central tools in the international  
126 agenda for health care reform was sealed with the OECD recommendation in 2017.  
127 This drew on the work of the OECD High Level Reflection Group (HLRG) on  
128 Health Statistics, which argued that PROM programmes represented the best path  
129 for “countries [to become] well equipped to meet the challenges presented by ageing  
130 populations and the accompanying rise in chronic disease and multiple morbidities,  
131 [making] it essential that data collected are relevant and actionable, and correspond  
132 to what matters most to patients” (HLRGHS 2017, p. 15). In a commentary to the  
133 report co-authored by economist Michael Porter and OECD’s Secretary-General  
134 Angel Gurría, it is argued that the change “requires asking patients themselves” their  
135 own assessment of health, quality of life in highly standardised way so as to make  
136 results comparable across time points, providers and across countries (Gurría and  
137 Porter 2017).

138 Porter himself is one of the founders of the International Consortium for Health  
139 Outcomes Measurement (ICHOM), an organisation dedicated to providing stand-  
140 ardised sets of outcome measures, many of which are to be reported by patients  
141 (ICHOM 2018). In this vision of “putting people at the centre”, patients are granted  
142 a central role in healthcare management: by providing information about their  
143 health, patients not only inform decisions regarding their own treatment, but also  
144 provide the means for governing healthcare on their behalf. This can be seen as the  
145 realisation of Michael Porter’s highly influential work on Value Based Health Care,  
146 where value is defined as “the patient health outcomes achieved per dollar spent.”  
147 (Porter 2010, p. 2477).

148 The linking of more efficient health care to standardised measurement of health  
149 is not new. Indeed, it has been a consistent orientation in attempts to reform health  
150 care for at least 40 years (Moreira 2012). Nowhere is this linkage more clear than in  
151 the proposals attached to US health reforms in the 1980s. One of its key proponents,



152 Paul Elwood argued that the transition from a centralised administration of health  
153 care to a distributed, networked structure would have to rely on a shared information  
154 infrastructure focussed on outcomes. Outcomes management, he argued, would pro-  
155 vide the infrastructure for “rational decision-making” in health care, orienting insur-  
156 ers, providers and users towards common goals (Elwood 1988). In this, he argued  
157 that *experience* played a key role:

158 The intricate machinery of our health care system can no longer grasp the  
159 threads of experience. [...] our common interest is the patient but we represent  
160 that interest from such divergent even conflicting viewpoints [that we now]  
161 need a central nervous system. [...] I propose that we adopt a technology of  
162 collaborative action [...] Outcomes management is a **technology of patient**  
163 **experience** designed to help patients, payers and provider make rational  
164 choices. (Elwood 1988, pp. 1550–1551; our emphasis).

165 Specialisation, the different perspectives and interests of healthcare actors, and  
166 patients’ lack of information on quality to inform their choices on a health market  
167 thus called for a ‘central nervous system’ based on “measurements of the effects of  
168 choices of patients, payers, and physicians on the patient’s aspirations for a better  
169 quality of life” (ibid). Such measures should become “a new universal language of  
170 hurting, functioning, working, interacting, and living” (ibid: 1551).

171 That language, however, according to health care reformers such as Elwood, was  
172 not to be found on doctor’s assessments, insurers’ valuations or patients’ individual  
173 opinion. Rankings and preferences aimed to establish a ‘universal language’ through  
174 rendering equivalent and comparable the effects of health care across contexts, con-  
175 ditions, specialities, organisations and patients. What was required was a form of  
176 measuring outcomes based on an objective assessment of ‘patient experience’, an  
177 operation that would encode a stable qualification of wellbeing and function across  
178 individuals and context. Developing and using a measure of health would be what  
179 Thevenot (1984) described as an “investment in form”, embedding a stable form  
180 of qualification of objects or persons, facilitating its quantification, and enforcing a  
181 specific mode of political coordination that enacts efficiency.

182 Interestingly, Elwood suggested that the exemplar route for this future ‘technol-  
183 ogy of patient experience’ was the Medical Outcomes Study’s (MOS) search for  
184 “practical instruments for measuring outcomes” (Elwood 1988, p. 1552). Aim-  
185 ing to develop a measurement of health to quantify the effects of different health  
186 approaches within the RAND’ Health Insurance Experiment, MOS investigators  
187 drew on the WHO 1948 definition of health to propose a model that “take(s) into  
188 account the cognitive processes underlying the *evaluation*” that participants made  
189 about the functional, mental and social aspects of their health, (Ware et al 1980,  
190 p. 12; our emphasis). Enacting this evaluation as a ‘cognitive process’ was pivotal  
191 because it made health amenable to be investigated through psychometric meth-  
192 ods. Thus, it became one of the key aims of the health status measurement team  
193 at the MOS to systematically perform “psychometric evaluations” of the ratings  
194 used in health questionnaires. From this work, it would eventually emerge one of  
195 the most commonly used health outcomes measurement instruments – the 36-Item  
196 Short-Form Health Survey (Ware and Sherbourne 1992)—which remains a point of





197 reference for those proposing the implementation of PRO data collection and analy-  
198 sis in health systems, such as the OECD HLRG on Health Statistics (see above).

199 From a science studies point of view, psychometrics is one of most established  
200 techniques through which psychology enacts its object of inquiry (Igo 2007; Young  
201 2017). By enabling the mapping of personal qualities in mathematical, structured  
202 measurement, psychometrics facilitate the generation of inscriptions—distribution  
203 curves, etc.—that can be compared, correlated, subsumed and integrated (Latour  
204 and Woolgar 1986). The transformative capacity of psychometric procedures is thus  
205 epitomised in the reconfiguration of a fuzzy, deeply subjective thing such as ‘experi-  
206 ence’ into a tractable object enacted as a psychological operation of ‘valuation’ of  
207 information.

208 This brief genealogical exploration, enables us to understand how PROs are lay-  
209 ered on a complex sociotechnical assemblage that configures experience through the  
210 application of psychometric techniques, eliciting subjectively experienced phenom-  
211 ena and converting them into objective, quantifiable data. This is explicitly justified  
212 as a means to ascribe value to health care interventions or programmes that are seen  
213 as competing for a limited pool of resources. As we will see in the analysis below,  
214 however, deciding what matters in infrastructuring experience with PROs is not a  
215 simple implementation process, and is instead laced with uncertainty.

## 216 **The Danish Case: Infrastructuring experience in a data-intensive** 217 **healthcare system**

218 Denmark is a critical case study to understand the dynamics of infrastructur-  
219 ing experience. As a nation undergoing an overall transformation of infrastructure  
220 defined by Hoeyer (2016) as “intensified datasourcing”, Denmark has recently made  
221 comprehensive investments towards using extensive patient-reported data across the  
222 health care system (Ministry of Health 2018, p. 27). As a result, Denmark has a  
223 highly developed digital health infrastructure with patients generally said to have  
224 trust in health authorities also accustomed to have their health data shared digitally  
225 among various health providers. Nevertheless, recent intensification of data sourc-  
226 ing have sparked public controversy (Wadmann and Høeyer 2018) and revealed the  
227 many, partially contradictory aims and stakes involved (Høeyer 2016). In this, it has  
228 become apparent that neither public nor local legitimacy of new data sourcing prac-  
229 tices can be taken for granted.

230 This is also the case with Denmark’s national PRO infrastructure, brought to  
231 bear by two different, partly overlapping initiatives: a Value Based Healthcare ini-  
232 tiative led by regional authorities (Danske Regioner 2015; Pedersen 2017), and an  
233 initiative promoting PRO data as means of patient empowerment and clinical qual-  
234 ity—Program PRO. In the first of these, inspired by Porter and experiences in other  
235 countries, Regional authorities set out to test if principles from VBH approach  
236 could provide alternative, less activity-focussed and more patient-centred forms  
237 of healthcare governance. In this, PROs featured as central tools to enable change.  
238 According to an analysis of the initiative made by Bonde et al. (2018) the concept  
239 of VBH was locally translated by connecting with “existing practices, agendas and



240 commitments” (Ibid: p. 1119). Patient experience was not, as intended, stitched into  
241 the attempts to build an alternative governance infrastructure (KORA 2016). Never-  
242 theless, funding was secured for supporting widespread, cross-sectorial use of PROs  
243 (Finansministeriet 2016, p. 33).

244 The second of these was instigated by a broad coalition of healthcare actors, aim-  
245 ing at building an expansive, continuous and cross-sectional collection of patient-  
246 reported data. The plan was an offshoot from a project—Program PRO—initiated by  
247 a large patient association—Danish Patients—involving 29 experts across different  
248 fields and institutions, who, in a 2016 report, had provided recommendations for the  
249 use of what was termed “PRO data” throughout the Danish health sector (VIBIS  
250 2016). The definition used in this report was more closely related to the FDA defi-  
251 nition mentioned above than that used in the VHB approach, with a focus on data  
252 reported directly from the patients on their experience of their state of health. Thus,  
253 the aim of using PRO data is seen to be justified at both the individual level, for the  
254 clinical dialogue and “involvement” in decision-making, and at an aggregate level,  
255 for research, clinical databases and as a quality indicator/metric. Throughout the  
256 report the main emphasis, however, is on making the patient “a partner” in the Dan-  
257 ish health care system so that decisions both at the clinical and the managerial level  
258 should be based on “the perspective of the patient”, tying this data intensification  
259 practice to the rhetoric of patient empowerment (Armstrong 2014). Interestingly, the  
260 report contains only one reference to Porter and his concept of VBH Value Based  
261 Healthcare is not mentioned at all.

262 The report was greeted with enthusiasm by policy makers, and a National PRO  
263 office was established in 2017 under the auspices of the Ministry of Health, drawing  
264 on a cross-sectorial steering group (Langstrup 2018). Since then, the National PRO  
265 office has had as its primary task to support the widespread use of PRO data, by  
266 selecting and/or developing the specific questionnaires to be put in a national PRO  
267 bank, and setting the national standard for relevant “crown-marked” PRO tools in a  
268 number of clinical, cross-sectional treatment areas (pro-danmark.dk). Central to its  
269 task is also to make the national IT-infrastructure suitable for sharing PRO tools and  
270 PRO data across sectors. The work is meant to be highly collaborative, with ques-  
271 tionnaires selected and/or developed with the involvement of patients, health pro-  
272 fessionals, patient associations and those responsible for existing quality databases  
273 collaborating in “clinical coordination groups”(CCGs).

274 As of August 2019, six CCGs were completed. The groups were organised two  
275 interlinked sub-sets: one primarily for clinicians with a patient representative, and  
276 another specifically planned for patients. This arrangement was intended to under-  
277 line the important role of patients and patient empowerment in the PRO programme.  
278 Plus, the clinicians involved in the subgroup should represent all relevant clinical  
279 contacts that a patient in the specific treatment pathway might have. The clinicians  
280 were appointed by their local region, municipality or professional association. The  
281 goal of the meetings was to develop a description of a cross-sectorial patient path-  
282 way, to identify points at which patients should be asked to provide PRO data, agree  
283 on the purpose for which the data were being collected in the clinical context, and  
284 decide the specific questionnaire tools and items that should be used at each data  
285 collection collection. In the end, the ‘package’ was to be piloted in clinical practice,



286 and then made available in local record systems via the national IT-infrastructure. At  
287 the end of the fieldwork period (September 2019), five of the six groups were at the  
288 piloting stage of implementation.

289 In the next section, we will focus our analysis on the Program PRO and the work  
290 CCGs. Departing from the knowledge that the programme was explicitly set up  
291 to distinguish itself from VBH-projects, both in Denmark and internationally, we  
292 explore how by aiming to link PROs to clinical practice, organisational aims and  
293 patient involvement, the initiative provides a unique window into the tensions that  
294 are inherent to personalisation-through-standardisation which lay at the core of  
295 visions of data-driven health systems. It is to these tension that we now turn.

### 296 **Infrastructuring for clinical work: Making PRO clinically meaningful?**

297 In designing Program PRO, its leaders were mindful of the political connotations  
298 associated with standardised outcome metrics, and in particular its connection to  
299 Porter's market driven vision for health care. In order mark Program PRO apart from  
300 the VBS initiative and international initiatives using PROMs, its leaders agreed to  
301 exclude the M for measurement in the definition of the standards the programme  
302 was aiming to establish. As one of the experts involved in the initial report and the  
303 national initiative suggested, they chose to take out the M because they did not want  
304 to indicate a close relation to the use of these tools as part of population-based man-  
305 agerial targets, the primary application of PROMs in the US and UK (Interview and  
306 fieldnotes). They were concerned that, for example, in the UK, challenges had been  
307 pervasive in motivating patient and clinicians to collect the data as it was only used  
308 at an aggregated level for management, with resulting low reply rates. Seeing this as  
309 indicative lack of ownership of the process among clinicians in particular, it revealed  
310 problems of legitimacy of PROMs programmes. Moreover, concerns of PROM data  
311 being associated with increased 'paper' work, taking up clinicians time—something  
312 that had been publically debated over a number of years—made the enrolment of  
313 clinicians a particularly pertinent issue (Langstrup 2019, p. 572). Consequently, the  
314 leads in the Danish PRO programme were focussed on establishing a close, posi-  
315 tive association between PRO and clinical practice. As one health services experts  
316 put it in one of our interviews, "PRO needs to be generated in the clinical meeting  
317 between the health professional and the patient. That makes it meaningful for the  
318 patient and for the health professional" (Interview health services expert 2017).

319 The insistence on "clinical meaningfulness" translated into a much used further  
320 differentiation in the Danish arena between "active PRO" and "passive PRO". In  
321 this distinction, the first is seen as the preferred form of practice in which data are  
322 collected for immediate use in the clinical encounter, with possible secondary use  
323 for quality monitoring and research. By contrast, "passive PRO" is equated with the  
324 collection of the same data, but with no immediate clinical relevance or action taken  
325 as a result. Thus, in the "Values" section of Program PRO, it is stated that "PRO  
326 data should support relevant dialogue between patient and health professional"  
327 and "be meaningful for patients, health professionals and management", while also



328 contributing “to improve the outcome of patient pathways and thereby contribute to  
329 visible value for the patient” (VIBIS 2016, p. 38).

330 “Clinical meaningfulness” and “active PRO” can thus be seen as a strategy of  
331 enrolling clinicians as central actors in the infrastructuring of experience. This  
332 objective also justifies the composition of the CCGs, mainly consisting of physicians  
333 and nurses from the relevant clinical areas. In the CCG workshops—often more than  
334 4 whole day meetings spanning over 6 months—it was continuously stressed that the  
335 goal primarily was to facilitate the use of PRO data in a clinically relevant way—to  
336 inform clinical dialogue, screening based on patient needs or clinical decision-mak-  
337 ing—and only secondarily for quality management or research. For instance, a Pow-  
338 erPoint slide shown at several of the CCG workshops on heart rehabilitation, under  
339 the heading “Why is PRO a good idea?”, pictured a person, presumably the patient,  
340 with different light sources illuminating the figure: “the record”, “test results”, “the  
341 consultation” and finally “PRO data”. On the same slide, different “perspectives” on  
342 PROs relevance were listed, with benefits for “the patient” and “health professional”  
343 at the top, and for “process” and “development” below and in semi-transparent col-  
344 ours, clearly signifying that the latter benefits were secondary.

345 One difficulty that arises from this emphasis on clinical relevance, however, and  
346 in differentiating the PRO initiative from other data-driven efficiency efforts, is  
347 that the measures or data at the centre of the groups’ deliberations are standardised  
348 measures such as SF-36, used in extensively in both VHB and PROMs programmes.  
349 Many clinicians involved in the groups we observed knew the English terms of such  
350 tools from using them in clinical research or from working with clinical quality  
351 databases. This made the terminological monitoring of the use of “active PROs”  
352 extremely challenging when promoting the national initiative to clinicians at public  
353 meetings and when working in the CCGs, as we illustrate below. Moreover, several  
354 of the participants in the CCGs were also already engaged in the national VBH-pro-  
355 jects where the concept of PROMs was used early on, and where the primary target  
356 was value as understood in economic terms.

357 In the CCG on heart rehabilitation, for example, this tension between played out  
358 at several occasions through the argument put forward by some clinicians that “pas-  
359 sive PROs” could be equally meaningful for clinical work. In this, a key discus-  
360 sion concerned whether or not it was meaningful to ask patients to fill out a PRO  
361 questionnaires to serve as “baseline data”, even if it would not inform any imme-  
362 diate clinical action. Would it be appropriate, they asked to ask for type of data,  
363 for instance just before patient’s heart surgery? The clinical meaningfulness of this  
364 data input was not clear, or as one consultant phrased it, “It is important that we  
365 don’t invent *data collection consultations* with no clinical purpose!” (Cardiologist  
366 heading the CCG, fieldnotes). Some of the clinicians further argued that the stress  
367 induced by the questionnaire filling would be an undue burden for patients: “*When*  
368 *discussing whether sexual issues could be part of a baseline questionnaire, one cli-*  
369 *nician bursts out “But isn’t that totally irrelevant when you are in shock after your*  
370 *ticker just stopped?! Should I then have to consider if I have a satisfying sex life? I*  
371 *have just written my testament!” (Fieldnotes).*

372 For this clinician, as for others in the group, PRO data tools should not add com-  
373 plications to situation that are by their nature already taxing for the patient and



374 clinician. This assessment was challenged by the view, usually voiced by clinicians  
375 engaged in VBH or clinical registries, that such baseline data would enable meas-  
376 urement of aggregated outcomes of interventions, and thus to evaluate the effective-  
377 ness of treatment provided: “Now it [the outcome of treatment] is a black box! We  
378 want to know if they are getting better!” (Cardiologist engaged in VBH initiatives,  
379 fieldnotes).

380 The tension between the personalised care vs the standardised measurement was  
381 nowhere more visible than in relation to issues of validity. When choosing question-  
382 naires in the CCGs, there was often a choice between disease-specific or generic  
383 tools, such as the SF-36. To aid with this process, the PRO office is responsible for  
384 providing participants in the CCGs with an overview of possible tools and a litera-  
385 ture review covering evidence of their use and validity. Participating clinicians may  
386 have had experience of working with some of these tools, or routinely use one or  
387 more of the tools in their clinical practice, as mentioned above. Among the involved  
388 actors, there is a general trust in the ability of questionnaires to collect important data  
389 on patients’ experiences of their own health to support clinical care. However, this  
390 trust has been criticised as methodologically naïve, with some experts voicing con-  
391 cern about the procedures used by CCGs to select PRO tools, and the epistemologi-  
392 cal assumptions of the whole national PRO initiative (Interviews with questionnaire  
393 experts).

394 For example, in the CCG on early detection of depression, clinical psycholo-  
395 gists openly questioned the way particular questionnaire tools were selected for the  
396 national PRO bank (interview with participants). These participants had previously  
397 been involved in the National Health Authorities development of evidence-based  
398 clinical guidelines for early detection of depression. They argued that the relevant  
399 clinical guidelines had not been taken adequately into account at the CCG work-  
400 shops (interview with participant). While the guidelines recognised a diversity of  
401 trajectories onto depression, the CCG had proposed that the same generic PRO-tool  
402 could be used to screen for such different trajectories. This was highly problematic:  
403 “We were just told, it has to be generic. Where did that come from? What is the  
404 argument for that?” (Interview with psychologists). Referring to existing evidence  
405 on screening for depression within particular somatic areas, they suggested that the  
406 correct way would be to use the screening tools validated nationally for the specific  
407 disease area, or at least for those to be taken as a starting point, rather than trying to  
408 find a generic tool. As one of them put it to us later, “the quality of the new [tool set]  
409 they wanted to deliver was worse than what was already there—in terms of its valid-  
410 ity...” (Interview with psychologists).

411 The experience of methodological experts was that the production of comparable  
412 data was prioritised in detriment of using the most adequate tool for the clinical  
413 situation. Indeed, a consistent critique raised by researchers with expertise in meas-  
414 urement, statistics and quality of life hinged on how the questionnaire tools to be  
415 used in the within the national PRO initiative had originally been developed and  
416 validated for significantly different purposes (Interview with questionnaire expert).  
417 Many PRO tools were initially developed and validated for application in research  
418 at a population level but now the same tools would be used at the level of the indi-  
419 vidual for clinical purposes. This critique goes to the heart of Program PRO’s aim



420 to make measures ‘clinical meaningful’. How can they be meaningful if they are  
421 not valid? And what counts as validity in a clinical and personalised context? Such  
422 issues remained unsettled in the negotiations to infrastructure patient experience.

423 This critique also pertains to the proliferation of PRO tools being developed ad  
424 hoc, and to the editing of existing validated tools for clinical purposes or to encom-  
425 pass requests from patient representatives. Little is known about the effects of these  
426 changes on the validity—not to speak of sensitivity and specificity—of the tools,  
427 and thus on clinical decisions and outcomes. Again, how important this lack of  
428 information is depends on their pragmatic enactment, i.e. whether the tools are to  
429 be used mainly to raise awareness of issues to address in a person-centred, person-  
430 alised dialogue, or to become embedded in an evidence-based algorithm to support  
431 prioritisation or future decision-making. If the latter, importantly, using unvalidated  
432 tools would render results incomparable and hence problematic to use at an aggregate  
433 level—whether for clinical decision-making, research or quality management.

434 It is important to note that national initiative’s explicit orientation is that only  
435 validated tools should be included in the PRO bank. However, as the example above  
436 shows there isn’t necessarily agreement across participants on what constitutes rig-  
437 orous measurement, or what validation is for. In an interview with a manager in  
438 the national PRO office, she suggested that it is necessary to be ‘inclusive’, being  
439 flexible on the criteria use to evaluate tools already established within specific clinical  
440 practices. These, she suggested, might not have been rigorously validated scientifi-  
441 cally, but only “tested”: “What if they [clinicians, ed.] in North Region have been  
442 using a questionnaire for a hundred years and have tested it and everything. Then  
443 what?!” (Interview, PRO office 2017).

444 The key to the interviewee’s reasoning lies in the differentiation between valida-  
445 tion and test. In her view, the questionnaires and algorithms used by clinicians are  
446 “tested”, but not necessarily to the high standards of formal, methodological ques-  
447 tionnaire validation. The test, then, is here a pragmatic form of validation, provided  
448 by the habitual use of a tool over a number of years (“a hundred year”), rather than  
449 by experimental procedure (Marres and Stark 2020). A recognition of the relational  
450 and potentially unsettling character of PRO infrastructure, the preference for con-  
451 tinuity of use of ‘tried and tested’ tools denotes also an attempt to align the PRO  
452 programme with existing clinical practices. It is from this perspective that we can  
453 understand another interviewee’s observation that the national PRO approach is fol-  
454 lowing an “implementation logic”, rather than a scientific logic, wanting to ensure  
455 speedy diffusion of PRO tools rather than a sound basis of evidence: “For them [pro-  
456 ponents of the national initiative, ed.] a questionnaire is a questionnaire and we just  
457 have to get started and push ahead” (Interview with questionnaire expert).

458 The pragmatic focus on implementation is buttressed by the optimist agenda sur-  
459 rounding the use of ‘big data’ in health and healthcare (Prainsack 2015). In this,  
460 technological promises associated with generating new kinds of data blur established  
461 boundaries between reliable, valid and invalid data. This is not to say that the pro-  
462 tagonists are indifferent to the kinds of data collected. Rather, they explicitly address  
463 this issue as requiring balance or compromise. As a physician and health services  
464 professor put in at an international seminar organised by the National PRO office,  
465 “this is about data and standardisation, but it also about dialogue and everyday life”



466 (Fieldnotes). Balancing methodological concerns with a focus on ensuring mean-  
467 ingfulness for clinicians is a key requirement of the PRO infrastructure. Tools cho-  
468 sen with reference only to scientific rigour, but without adequate involvement of the  
469 stakeholders might hamper the implementation the national PRO bank in and across  
470 practices, and thus decrease the reach of data-driven health services.

## 471 **Infrastructuring for the organisation—balancing efficiency,** 472 **actionability and control**

473 In the previous section, when analysing the work of making PRO data clinical  
474 meaningful, we touched upon the relational character of infrastructure, and in par-  
475 ticular on how it relates to “the installed base” (Star and Ruhleder 1999, p. 382) of  
476 clinical work already entangled with research and governance practices, and meas-  
477 ures of patients’ experiences. While the focus of much of the PRO initiative lays  
478 on its clinical use, downplaying its economic efficiency aims, better prioritisation,  
479 planning and cross-sectorial coordination remains unsurprisingly a central aim of  
480 the initiative. Making patient flows across the organisation “data driven” rather than  
481 “calendar driven” is a key flagship aim of the national PRO initiative, and seen as a  
482 necessary step to avoid waste of resources in a context of increasing demand from  
483 raising numbers of chronic patients. Monitoring patients with PRO data will enable,  
484 it is argued, the use of algorithms to calculate and plan appointments, in a needs-  
485 based and efficient manner.

486 In this, it is significant that protagonists draw on the example of “telePRO”, a sys-  
487 tem already in use in a number of different specialised treatment pathways such as  
488 epilepsy, asthma, diabetes, where patient regularly log PRO questionnaires. In this  
489 system, data are then processed by an algorithm to determine thresholds for ‘clinical  
490 action’, such as the automated cancelling of an appointment or the triggering of a  
491 phone call by a nurse checking on the patient. The system is well aligned with policy  
492 calls for using digital tools and data to curb increasing demands, the Danish Minis-  
493 try of Health arguing that “there is really no alternative to increased digital collabor-  
494 ation” to ensure a “sustainable development of our healthcare system” (Ministry of  
495 Health 2018, pp.8–9).

496 Within such a political landscape, CCGs are mindful of the risk associated with  
497 using efficiency as a chief policy aim for PROS. In this, they often argue that the  
498 Ministry of Health is not promoting PROs simply as a way to cut services, but rather  
499 to as a means to “prioritize” and “set resources free”, focussing on the possibility  
500 of putting infrastructure to make data-driven choices. However, using PRO data for  
501 a more efficient and data-driven organisation rubs up against other organisational  
502 and professional concerns. While there is very little opposition, on a general level,  
503 to the idea of using PRO data on issues such as QoL or mental distress, clinicians  
504 raise reservations about the actionability of the data that will be obtained through  
505 these means. The question is that PRO data might also generate and make visible  
506 extraneous needs and concerns: “Sleep! But what the hell am I to do about that with  
507 my cardiology expertise? [...] We should not ask about things that we just leave



508 unattended, [because] then patients will be very disappointed” (Cardiologist in clinical  
509 coordination group, Fieldnotes).

510 How, the clinicians ask, should they deal with the possibility of new demands  
511 for managing issues that they neither have the expertise to address themselves nor  
512 (knowledge of) services to refer the patient to? Several times such questions were  
513 raised as professional—and ethical—challenges for clinicians not used to dealing  
514 with issues ranging from sleep, as in the quote above, to sexual health or loneliness.  
515 These problems also pertain the organisational aims of using PRO data as a means  
516 for more efficient care. How can resources follow the data when clinicians do not  
517 feel empowered or capable to make decisions on areas beyond their expertise.

518 Our fieldwork suggest that the solution to this tension was seen to be in a re-articulation  
519 of the role of clinicians. The head of one of the CCGs we observed expressed  
520 this pragmatic compromise at a meeting thus: “When some chief physician says to  
521 me, “I don’t want to ask about loneliness, because I can’t do anything about it!”, I  
522 tell him, that the patient wants to be asked anyway. They want a referral. You will  
523 just have to refer the patient to a specialist” (fieldnotes).

524 So the argument is that clinicians are not to handle these issues, rather they are  
525 just expected to help the patient navigate the process toward the places and people  
526 that can help them—be it elsewhere in the health system or in voluntary and patient  
527 organisation. Actively guiding the patient through the health system is justified not  
528 only by its individual benefit but also by how it might reveal priorities to be pursued.  
529 From this perspective, making visible hitherto unrecognised needs is a marker success  
530 of PRO data. As one clinician put it in a CCG meeting, “If it is what is important  
531 to our patients, then that is what we should develop our health system toward”  
532 (fieldnotes).

533 The organisational aim of the national PRO initiative is thus that PRO data  
534 should be used for coordinating patient trajectories, by directing focus on needs and  
535 outcome of treatment. In this, health care professionals are to be enrolled as organisational  
536 experts, translating data into shaping patient’s pathways in the health care **AQ3**  
537 system. This, however, is not a simple task. Patient pathways are complex organisational  
538 infrastructure (Allen 2014) into which PRO data are to be weaved. It is  
539 recognised that the embedding data in pathways requires ‘data work’ from clinical  
540 practitioners. Therefore, actors across all relevant sectors involved in the particular  
541 treatment area are purposely invited to participate in the CCG, in order to identify  
542 opportunities for embedding data in pathways. As a result, at CCG workshops, a  
543 lot of work goes into articulating—for instance, through drawing exercises—what  
544 might constitute a common patient pathway along which PRO data can be produced  
545 and used, notwithstanding the variability of locally ways of organising activities. In  
546 this, pathways are reconfigured as occasion for collecting and deploying data.

547 However, the challenges related to mobilising all relevant actors and sectors  
548 along specific treatment trajectories are not trivial. Who should be included? More  
549 importantly, who can be included? In the CCG on heart rehabilitation, for example,  
550 the group comprised heart surgeons, heart nurses, physiotherapists, nutritionists,  
551 psychologists, patients and representatives from the patient association, but did not  
552 include general practitioners. This is because the General Practitioners Association  
553 (DSAM) has generally been averse to appoint their own representatives. As a result,





554 only two of the six CCGs include a GP representative. Their dislike of the PRO  
555 programme has roots in earlier controversies about their professional autonomy, and  
556 role as the patients' privacy guard in an increasingly data-intensive health care sys-  
557 tem (Wadman and Høyer 2018).

558 While acknowledging that PRO data might have some potential for ensuring a  
559 patient-centred health system, the GP Association, in its policy paper on the issue,  
560 stressed that there was lack of evidence on the effectiveness of PRO to bring about  
561 such system (DSAM 2017). This is compounded by a significant burden of data  
562 work on patients and clinicians, with the risk of diverging their attention away from  
563 clinical relevant information toward irrelevant data "polluting" the record and the  
564 consultation (ibid). For the DSAM, PRO data are a challenge to the central role of  
565 GPs in health care systems such as the Danish, where their work as the systems' gate  
566 keepers is supported by a pragmatic focus on the 'whole person', Patient records and **AQ4**  
567 data should be curated to support this configuration of GP and patient's identity. In  
568 this regard, GPs role in data collection, curation and processing is not solely contrib-  
569 uting to the infrastructure, but should be seen as "a filter, which minimises the risk,  
570 that the overview of the record is hampered by excessive or unwanted PRO data"  
571 (DSAM 2017: PP). Instead, Danish GPs appear to be saying, CCGs aim to plan the  
572 'overview' from above, by committee, away from the clinical situation, imposing  
573 roles and identities to actors in the health system.

574 It is not surprising that the absence of GP representatives in CCGs is a matter of  
575 some frustration within the groups, as they are recognised as a key component of  
576 health care system and in managing patient pathways. Participating patients, in par-  
577 ticular, are bewildered by their nonattendance, which they see as undermining the  
578 potential PRO data has to transform patient care: "In the patient's diagram of their  
579 shared experience of an illness trajectory, the GP figures twice—at the beginning  
580 and at the end of the trajectory. When reviewing the illustration at the second work-  
581 shop, one patient says 'It doesn't make sense that the GPs isn't here (in the CCG,  
582 ed.) when they are in the drawing!'" (fieldnote).

583 For the promise of PRO to be brought to bear, patients in the CCG were sug-  
584 gesting, it is necessary that all actors are aligned through the standard patient path-  
585 way. Misalignment, or lack of buy-in, from a strategic group of actors opens up the  
586 uncertainties inherent to implementing a new data infrastructure. This is a crucial  
587 element of the process of infrastructuring. As the temporally emergent character of  
588 PRO data becomes publicly visible, as the sociotechnical promise it embeds reveals  
589 its partiality, the value it aimed to bring forth is threatened and diluted, and its costs  
590 emphasised.

591 This issue is further exemplified by the enhanced visibility of possible tensions  
592 between the new data infrastructure being proposed and the 'installed base' of dif-  
593 ferent patient record systems used in different regions and different sectors, already  
594 mentioned in the previous section. Decisions on which record systems to use have  
595 long been delegated to regional authorities, municipalities and general practition-  
596 ers. Although a number of inter-operability solutions have been put into place, there  
597 are still challenges and uncertainties on how to calibrate the different structures.  
598 As a recent, problem ridden, attempt to implement an electronic patient record and  
599 management system across two regional authorities—Sundhedsplatformen—makes



600 clear, the aim to homogenise the types and amounts of data that should be included  
601 in patient records, across regions, goes against the practice of autonomy within a  
602 pluralistic, devolved administration. Indeed, even within the PRO programme,  
603 regional authorities have insisted on being free to choose the supplier of the specific  
604 PRO module tasked with distributing questionnaires, collecting answers, calculating  
605 and displaying results.

606 CCGs are acutely aware of this issue. The heart rehabilitation CCG, in particular,  
607 has voiced its concerns to the national PRO office, asking if the technical, inter-oper-  
608 ability infrastructure would be in place. The answers suggested optimism at best but  
609 also expose the limited control national data authorities have to impose new stand-  
610 ards. Enacting a 'digitally led', patient-centred, efficient health care system taunts  
611 existing health data infrastructures and their embeddedness in political structures.  
612 As the tensions between 'old' and 'new' ways of organising health care become vis-  
613 ible, the neutral character of PRO data infrastructure is opened to questioning and  
614 critique. While leaders of the programmes have put much emphasis on distancing  
615 PRO programme from the economicist, politicised vision apparent in VBH, CCGs'  
616 work of assembling PRO data architecture requires a re-distribution of power, ask-  
617 ing some health care practitioners to take on new duties and identities, and others  
618 such as GPs to forego existing ones. In doing so, PRO data destabilish not only the  
619 professional order of the health care system but also its administrative procedures,  
620 institutions and power structures. Paradoxically, while it claims to make health care  
621 more responsive to patients' needs, it does so by denting professionals' capacity to  
622 curate data and adjust data architectures to local authorities and local practices. Cir-  
623 cling this conundrum requires publicly evidencing investment in making data tools  
624 directly linked to patient participation and involvement.

## 625 **Infrastructuring for participation—how to make PRO data matter** 626 **to patients**

627 A final domain of pragmatics of infrastructuring patient experience through PRO  
628 data concerns the ways in which the mobilisation of these measures involves enrol-  
629 ment of actual patients in CCGs. This is the key means through which CCG aims to  
630 ensure that PRO infrastructure enables patient participation in data collection and  
631 use. In this respect, once again, Program PRO positions itself as an ambitious pro-  
632 gramme, aiming to bring together two forms of participation. On the one hand, PRO  
633 data are seen to enable individual participation in health care, supporting 'clinically  
634 meaningful' and personalised care. However, qualitative research of patients' expe-  
635 riences of PRO/PROM supports the argument that the collection of PRO data in  
636 itself should not be seen as participatory, only becoming so when used to facilitate  
637 dialogue or learning (Boyce et al. 2014; Mejdahl et al. 2016). Others, taking a more  
638 political stance, have argued that PROs can only count as genuinely participatory  
639 if the measures themselves have been developed through meaningful involvement  
640 of patients in their construction (Kirwan et al. 2011). This latter position is more  
641 focussed on what could be labelled "collective participation" as a form of demo-  
642 cratic representation.



643 The aim to bring together these two forms of participation appears to have been  
644 reinforced by the extraordinary engagement of patient associations in the initial  
645 mobilisation of PRO in Denmark. The national PRO initiative has involved patients  
646 and patient associations in the process of choosing PRO tools for the national PRO  
647 bank. This was done in two ways: by including patients and/or their representatives  
648 in CCGs, and by organising parallel patient workshops which feed their delibera-  
649 tions to CCGs. The key challenge faced in the parallel workshops, in particular, was  
650 finding the adequate frame to make sense of the process: what were these forums  
651 for? Should they be organised as consultative meetings, where patients are asked for  
652 their views and preferences, or should they have deliberative capacities? What might  
653 be the right tools and formats for teasing out what true and relevant patient experi-  
654 ence is?

655 Rather than a simple policy decision, this required crafting and qualification of  
656 the interaction between group members. The meeting followed a set structure. First,  
657 staff and consultants from the PRO office would introduce the concept of PRO. Sec-  
658 ond, patients discussed and mapped their experiences onto disease pathway across  
659 sectorial borders. These maps and diagrams would then be linked to specific PRO  
660 areas and measures chosen by clinicians. A discussion usually followed about their  
661 usability and relative importance. The main conclusions of the workshops would  
662 subsequently be communicated to the CCG, who would make the final decisions  
663 on which PRO tools to choose. This procedure, however, raised the risk of patient  
664 involvement being deployed as mere consultation. To mitigate this risk, CCG chairs  
665 were committed to amplifying the role of patient input in CCGs. As the chairperson  
666 of the CCG on health rehabilitation put it: “We may think that we already know what  
667 [questionnaires, ed.] to use. But that is not how it is going to be here. We cannot take  
668 the tools right off the shelf. We need to start from scratch” (fieldnotes).

669 The differentiation between ‘how it’s going to be here’ and a situation where PRO  
670 tools are ‘taken off the shelves’ is intended to mark an epistemic and political bound-  
671 ary. The knowledge process that supports the choice of PRO tools is robust, accord-  
672 ing the chairperson, insofar as patients’ contributory role is recognised. This means  
673 that it should be possible to explicitly trace how the views expressed by patients  
674 shaped the outcome of the CCGs. One condition for enabling patient’s contribu-  
675 tory role was for patient to be adequately equipped. For this purpose, all patients  
676 involved in the workshops had to be ‘educated’ on the purposes of PRO data, and on  
677 the variety of questionnaire tools through which the data could be obtained. Patient  
678 saw their role mainly as providing a ‘reality check’ on the usefulness of the tool,  
679 based on their experience. During fieldwork in the workshops, patients consistently  
680 found all the possible PRO areas suggested to them (physical functioning, social  
681 functioning, quality of life, coping, pain, self-management, diet, sleep) as relevant,  
682 and related many of the themes to experiences they had had as part of living with a  
683 heart disease: “Sitting while reviewing the questionnaire themes presented, a spouse  
684 whispers to her husband, a heart patient: ‘I think all of this is relevant, don’t you  
685 think?’. He responds in low voice: ‘Yes’. The patient next to them agrees and contin-  
686 ues, ‘but we don’t have to deselect anything’” (fieldnotes).

687 Not seeing themselves as responsible for selecting one tool over another should  
688 not be interpreted as an accountability shelter, as patients also clearly suggested that



689 they were not interested in answering questions if their answers were not addressed  
690 and acted on by a clinician. As noted in the fieldnotes, “everytime the patients dis-  
691 cuss a questionnaire theme they talk about how the answer will help them talk to  
692 the clinician about important issues” (Fieldnotes). While this position was aligned  
693 with the “active PRO” vision, it also fuelled clinicians concerns about guarantee-  
694 ing actionability of data, as discussed above. Taking patients’ views seriously would  
695 mean committing to this pledge, so as to ensure individual and collective participa-  
696 tion. Rather than providing a new start on how and why tools should be chosen,  
697 patient involvement resulted primarily in heightening the political stakes of the ini-  
698 tiative. But making such politics visible threatens the stability of the consensus that  
699 deliberative processes are supposed to bring forth.

700 Where patient were willing to provide views on the tools themselves, their main  
701 concern was that PRO questions were difficult to understand or phrased in an out-  
702 dated way. For instance, in the heart rehabilitation CCG, patients expressed a nega-  
703 tive opinion of the format and content of PHQ9—a questionnaire for screening for  
704 depression—which the chairperson half-jokingly said annoyed her because of how  
705 it focussed on a narrow range of behaviours. However, as she put it herself, “unfor-  
706 tunately it is one of those that we would really like to use for research because of  
707 its high internal consistency in statistical terms” (fieldnotes). So here, including  
708 patients also implies to trade-off scientific rigour, and introduce potential challenges  
709 of measurement inertia, if measures are already organisationally embedded in clini-  
710 cal or research practices. The work of ensuring participation then requires persuad-  
711 ing patient representatives that the narrowness and intrusiveness of the questions  
712 can be justified by the reliability and sensitivity of the tool.

713 While there has been and continues to be an extraordinary support for the intro-  
714 duction of PRO data among patient associations, tensions are also experienced in  
715 this domain. This pertains not only to the actionability of the data or its relevance,  
716 but also the ability of data to make durable connections to the whole population of  
717 patients and its wide range of everyday life concerns, or to put it another way, to the  
718 representativeness of patient reps. Both patient representatives and clinicians in the  
719 CCG on heart rehabilitation were very concerned about this issue involved: “One of  
720 the clinicians asks: “How were they selected? It is always the active patients who  
721 participate in things like this”. The head of the CCG says, that they come from all  
722 walks of life” (fieldnotes).

723 Both clinicians and patients themselves questioned if patient reps could reason-  
724 ably be seen as legitimate spokespersons for all heart patients. IN this they were  
725 concerned that their orientation toward ‘active PRO’ might exclude passive, “weak  
726 patients” and their abilities to engage meaningfully with PRO. In particular, clini-  
727 cians expressed concern that some patients might experience PRO as yet another  
728 burden of treatment, and as a form of paternalistic or moralising surveillance. One  
729 nurse called for increased reflection among the clinicians about this problem: “Have  
730 we really considered what it is that we are doing, asking all these questions? Maybe  
731 the patient just wants to get home and drink a lot of beer? Should we dictate what  
732 constitute quality of life for the individual? No we shouldn’t! We should not be  
733 moralising”.



734 Aiming for a widespread, systematised, standardised and continuous form of par-  
735 ticipation needs individual patients for whom answering questionnaires is seen as  
736 meaningful, and it needs patient representatives to provide input and legitimacy to  
737 the very process of infrastructuring for experience. But again, the onto-normativity  
738 of questionnaires is brought to view in the process developing the PRO database.  
739 What and why should we be asking about? What justifies changing our practices  
740 of data collection? While publicly making the case for PRO data to enable a form  
741 of ‘grass-roots’, bottom-up health care politics, the CCGs repeatedly confronted the  
742 fact that selecting standardised tools would deploy top-down, expert-led setting of  
743 health-related concerns, values and priorities. Compromising between these two  
744 forms of politics was and continuous to be unfinished business.

## 745 Discussion

746 In this paper, we have asked the following: What matters in infrastructuring expe-  
747 rience within health care systems? Our approach to this question was focussed on  
748 understanding the pragmatics of making a sociotechnical infrastructure for patient  
749 experiences in a specific health care setting. Recognising technologies of patient  
750 experience as specific types of ‘investment in form’ with historical roots was our  
751 point of departure to explore the normative and epistemic tensions involved in estab-  
752 lishing a national PRO database.

753 Our data reveal that those involved in crafting and developing the Danish PRO  
754 system seek to encode ‘patient experience’ in the Danish healthcare system by  
755 infrastructuring for the clinic, by infrastructuring for the organisation, and by infra-  
756 structuring for participation. The infrastructuring efforts in each of these domains  
757 involves tensions as the emerging phenomenon of PRO rubs up against existing and  
758 concurrent ways of working clinically and of enhancing and evaluating the quality  
759 of clinical care. In infrastructuring for the clinic, protagonists seek to ensure that  
760 PRO as a clinically meaningful tool is prioritised over managerial aims. This, how-  
761 ever, rubs against the embeddedness of research and quality management as part of  
762 clinical practice. Also, what is useful clinically may involve trade-offs in terms of  
763 scientific rigour equally creating tensions with existing professional identities. Infra-  
764 structuring PRO also involves relating to organisational concerns such as the need  
765 to make care trajectories more efficient and better coordinated across sectors. But  
766 redirecting resources and expertise to issues that matter to patients also raises con-  
767 cerns as to the actionability of PRO data and the capacity of organisations and clini-  
768 cians to respond. The installed base of sectorial powers and boundaries and exist-  
769 ing data infrastructures provides extra challenges that bring to the fore the political  
770 and relational nature of PRO. Finally, infrastructuring PRO for and through patient  
771 participation is seen as central to the overall legitimacy of the endeavour, but in its  
772 own right introduces dilemmas when considering if PRO is truly a participatory and  
773 patient-centred tool. Further, compromises reached in any of these domains are also  
774 not necessarily aligned with each other, adding to the complexity of the work of  
775 infrastructuring PROs.



776 The literature on data infrastructures for personalised health care has focussed  
777 on the implication of datafication and surveillance for practice. Looking at emer-  
778 gent infrastructures of personalized medicine, Barbara Prainsack (2017) has used  
779 the notion of a “surveillance assemblage” (pp. 51–55) to point to arrangements  
780 in which certain technologies and human practices together operate by abstract-  
781 ing individuals into data flows to be reassembled for various purposes at different  
782 times and in different places as “data doubles”. More widely, scholar also points  
783 towards how the conversion of experience into a standardised set of data simpli-  
784 fies the meaning and significance of patient experience as a form of knowledge  
785 (Pols 2014).

786 While we share these scholars’ concerns about the consequences of infrastructur-  
787 ing personal data and intensified data sourcing at large, our research highlights that  
788 the recursive balancing act that constitutes infrastructuring requires understanding  
789 the forms of normative and practical reasoning developed by those who are directly  
790 involved in collective negotiation about what constitutes ‘experience’ for specific  
791 purposes in specific contexts. For them, ‘patient experience’ is above all an episte-  
792 mologically and morally unstable figure. Ellwood’s dream of “a new universal lan-  
793 guage of hurting, functioning, working, interacting, and living” is not within reach.  
794 It is a key finding of our paper, that while it might be a powerful trope in gathering  
795 actors and resources, it is not easy to decide and to settle upon “what matters to  
796 patients”. In this regard, CGCs negotiating how to infrastructure experience could  
797 be seen as an instructive experiment in practically handling the ‘ontological poli-  
798 tics’ of patient experience. Whether the PRO infrastructures enabling the circulation  
799 of more ‘thin’ versions of patients’ ‘data doubles’ will push out or transform other  
800 ways of knowing patients and engaging with such knowledge in health care are per-  
801 tinent questions for further research in the application of PROs in practice.

802

### 803 Compliance with ethical standards

804 **Conflict of interest** On behalf of both author, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict  
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