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Upskilling health and care workers with augmented and virtual reality: Protocol for a realist review to develop an evidence-informed programme theory

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Upskilling health and care workers with augmented and virtual reality: Protocol for a realist review to develop an evidence-informed programme theory

Norina Gasteiger^{1,2,3,*}, Sabine N van der Veer^{2,4}, Paul Wilson³ and Dawn Dowding¹

1. Division of Nursing, Midwifery & Social Work, University of Manchester, Manchester, UK

2. Centre for Health Informatics, Division of Informatics, Imaging and Data Sciences, University of Manchester, Manchester, UK

3. Division of Population Health, Health Services Research & Primary Care, University of Manchester, Manchester, UK

4. Manchester Academic Health Science Centre, University of Manchester, Manchester, UK

***Corresponding author:**

Norina Gasteiger

Location: Jean McFarlane Building, Oxford Road, Manchester, M13 9PL, United Kingdom

Email: norina.gasteiger@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk

ORCID:

N. Gasteiger: 0000-0001-7801-7417

S.N van der Veer: 0000-0003-0929-436X

P. Wilson: 0000-0002-2657-5780

D. Dowding: 0000-0001-5672-8605

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **Introduction**

3 Augmented reality (AR) and virtual reality (VR) are increasingly used to upskill health and care
4 providers, including in surgical, nursing and acute care settings. Many studies have used AR/VR to
5 deliver training, providing mixed evidence on their effectiveness and limited evidence regarding
6 contextual factors that influence effectiveness and implementation. This review will develop, test and
7 refine an evidence-informed programme theory on what facilitates or constrains the implementation
8 of AR or VR programmes in health and care settings and understand how, for whom and to what
9 extent they ‘work.’

10 **Method and analysis**

11 This realist review adheres to the RAMESES standards and will be conducted in three steps: theory
12 elicitation, theory testing, and theory refinement. First, a search will identify practitioner, academic
13 and learning and technology adoption theories from databases (Medline, SCOPUS, CINAHL,
14 EMBASE, Education Resource Information Centre, PsycINFO and Web of Science), practitioner
15 journals, snowballing and grey literature. Information regarding context, mechanism and outcome will
16 be extracted. A narrative synthesis will determine overlapping configurations and form an initial
17 theory. Second, the theory will be tested using empirical evidence located from the above databases.
18 Quality will be assessed using the Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT), and relevant information
19 will be extracted into a coding sheet. Third, the extracted information will be compared to the initial
20 programme theory, with differences helping to make refinements. Findings will be presented as a
21 narrative summary, and the MMAT will determine our confidence in each configuration.

22 **Ethics and dissemination**

23 Ethics approval is not required. This review will develop an evidence-informed programme theory.
24 The results will inform and support AR/VR interventions from clinical educators, healthcare
25 providers and software developers. Upskilling through AR/VR learning interventions may improve
26 quality of care and promote evidence-based practice and continued learning. Findings will be
27 disseminated through conference presentations and peer-reviewed journal articles.

28 **KEYWORDS**

29 healthcare; learning; simulation; virtual reality; augmented reality; realist review

30 **STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY**

- 31 • The realist approach helps to understand the contextual factors that shape the implementation
32 and impact of AR/VR interventions to upskill professionals in health and care settings.
- 33 • The programme theory may be theoretically transferable, as it includes literature from various
34 health and care contexts.
- 35 • The inclusion of the MMAT will help stakeholders use the theory by stating the extent to
36 which we are confident in each configuration.
- 37 • This realist review focuses on AR and VR, so may need to be modified to apply to other
38 digital simulation technologies.
- 39 • Literature included in this review is limited to that published in English.

40 **WORD COUNT: 3,990**

1 INTRODUCTION

2 3 **Upskilling in the health and care workforce**

4
5 Upskilling through continuous learning and development is important in any business, to improve
6 skillsets, advance practice and close gaps in knowledge. Upskilling is the process of learning new
7 skills or refining existing skillsets to enable employees to continue practising with ease[1]. For health
8 support and care workers, upskilling ensures that their work is safe and aligns with best practice
9 guidelines, as they often receive variable and inconsistent training, as non-registered staff[2, 3].
10 Upskilling, in this sense, is therefore essential for providing consistent and high-quality care.
11 Additionally, this promotes workforce flexibility and enables for the delegation of skills, when
12 systems experience a shortage of staff[4]. Within the provision of health and care, upskilling is also
13 crucial when adapting in times of change[5, 6] or crisis[7] and to align with up-to-date best practice.

14
15 Health and care providers may range from registered clinicians such as surgeons, general practitioners
16 and doctors, nurses and midwives, to allied health and non-registered staff who provide care. Allied
17 health staff may include paramedics, dieticians, podiatrists and radiographers[8], while carers also
18 include those working for care-based organisations such as in care homes or homecare agencies.
19 Regardless of the role, all staff that provide health and care services must act in accordance with
20 policies/guidelines and optimally engage in up-to-date evidence-based best practice.

21
22 Evidence-based practice is widely recognised as the gold standard when providing effective and safe
23 healthcare[9]. This requires professionals to update and upskill themselves on current evidence and to
24 alter their practice to align with this, as well as with their patient's preferences[10]. Current evidence
25 is usually retrieved from peer-reviewed journal articles; however, due to time constraints and
26 workload demand, many health and care staff rely on organisational policies and protocols as formal
27 sources of knowledge[11]. As the evidence base grows, old habits must be adapted and upskilling is
28 required to align with the newest best practice.

29
30 Upskilling is also essential when adapting in times of change or crisis. For example, the emergence of
31 medical and healthcare technologies requires staff to upskill, including improving their digital literacy
32 skills[5, 6]. Additionally, the novel coronavirus disease-19 (COVID-19) pandemic caused significant
33 changes to health and care systems. Changes included staff deployment to wards (e.g. COVID-19
34 wards) outside of their normal experience and of retired and newly qualified staff, remote provision of
35 healthcare using telehealth (phones, video, patient portals), distancing/minimal contact care, stringent
36 use of personal protective equipment and strengthened inter-professional collaboration[12-15]. These
37 challenges required prompt upskilling, especially in using technologies and in infection, prevention
38 and control behaviours to minimise the spread of COVID-19.

39 40 **Upskilling training programmes**

41
42 Upskilling training programmes traditionally consist of e-learning, textbooks, workshops, seminars,
43 shadowing/observation and reading peer-reviewed journal articles. Hatfield et al.[16] systematically
44 reviewed 12 studies that delivered behaviour change training interventions to healthcare professionals.
45 All used educational elements (e.g. presentations and workshops) and most were delivered in-person.
46 Morris et al.[17] reviewed training interventions aimed at carers. Both reviews concluded that
47 interventions that use both educational and practical elements (e.g. practising skills or discussion) are
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1 most effective [16, 17]. This indicates that education-only interventions may not be effective in
2 upskilling health and care staff.

3
4 Time, organisational structure, difficult to access resources and a reliance on experiential knowledge
5 also constrain providers from upskilling[3, 11]. Health and care staff have widely reported a
6 preference for learning through ‘doing’ (such as interacting with or observing colleagues), rather than
7 from journal articles or textbooks[18-20]. Additionally, although support and care workers provide
8 clinical, care-based and clerical patient care, their value is often not reflected in their allocated
9 training budgets and available programmes[3]. As a result, many feel insufficiently prepared[3].
10 However, clinical, health support and care staff indicate a willingness to upskill, receive further
11 training and to participate in interventions that will improve their practice[11, 21]. Further, some
12 managers and nurses in England-based nursing homes have expressed enthusiasm toward
13 implementing innovative digital health technologies that may improve residents’ quality of care[22].

14 15 **Digital technologies for upskilling**

16
17 Effective interventions that are short, accessible, interactive, memorable and low cost are needed, to
18 overcome training barriers. For workplaces with staff shortages, training also needs to be flexible and
19 provided on a drop-by basis[3]. Brief interventions delivered via digital technology may be
20 appropriate, as they can be made available online and accessed 24/7. They can also be more engaging
21 and memorable, by including interactive activities (e.g. games, quizzes, simulations and immediate
22 performance feedback). However, there is limited literature on implementation strategies for digital
23 interventions that upskill health and care workers. Theories of change can be applied to knowledge of
24 existing barriers and facilitators to using digital health programmes for healthcare workers. Lewin
25 describes behaviour as “a dynamic balance of forces working in opposing directions” [23]. Lewin
26 theorises that driving forces (i.e. facilitators) and restraining forces (i.e. barriers) counter one another,
27 but can result in change if one overrides the other. This means that barriers and facilitators directly
28 impact the implementation success and effectiveness of digital training programmes for health and
29 care staff.

30
31 Literature on digital health technologies has highlighted various driving and restraining forces that
32 impact both implementation and the effectiveness of programmes. Keyworth et al.[24] conducted a
33 review of 69 studies to determine what maximises the effectiveness and implementation of
34 technology-based interventions that support healthcare professional practice. They concluded that
35 successful technologies employ behaviour change theories and specific instruction on how to perform
36 behaviours. They also provide professionals with knowledge and person-specific information to assist
37 with practice (e.g. patient management). Driving forces for implementation include integration into
38 clinical workload, alignment with organisational strategies and senior peer endorsement. Restraining
39 forces include organisational challenges, as well as the design, content and technical issues of the
40 interventions.

41
42 Literature also highlights key strategies for implementation, focussing on provider adoption and
43 acceptance. Recommendations for facilitating change include linking new practice with old practice
44 to build familiarity[25, 26], identifying people who are willing to facilitate and promote the new
45 practice[26, 27] and to clearly communicate to staff as to how the new practice will benefit them and
46 their patients[26, 28, 29]. Spagnoletti et al.[28] provide specific examples, highlighting that short
47 sessions, role-modelling content (e.g. video clips of the behaviour) and modules that refresh

1 understanding of familiar curriculum were important in their implementation of an online training
2 programme for interns.

3 4 **Simulation technologies for upskilling**

5
6 The implementation of simulation technologies may be a novel and engaging approach to upskilling
7 health and care workers. Simulation in this context refers to the replication of real-life interactions or
8 scenarios, whereby learners receive immediate feedback/de-briefing[30]. Various levels of simulation
9 exist, depending on 'fidelity' (reality). According to Seropian et al.[31], these can be categorised as
10 high, medium and low fidelity and use tools such as human-like body parts, haptic feedback,
11 computer programmes (e.g. serious games) or virtual reality (VR) headsets to facilitate experimental
12 learning. Low fidelity simulation may include a simple body part, such as a doll-like arm to practice
13 intravenous insertion skills[32]. In contrast, high fidelity simulation tools include real-life responses
14 driven by computers[32]. These are more expensive and may include the METI Human Patient
15 Simulator, which looks and acts like a human (e.g. blinks, has a pulse and speaks) and accurately
16 mirrors responses to clinical procedures, such as intubation and catheterisation. However, it is
17 important to note that simulators mimic, rather than replicate reality[32].

18
19 Simulation technology has been found to be as effective as traditional teaching methods for educating
20 health and care staff and students[33-35]. However, when compared to traditional methods, students
21 report better retention of knowledge[36] and higher satisfaction and motivation when using simulation
22 technologies such as games[34]. Experimental learning by simulation also allows for learners to
23 repeatedly practice skills and make and learn from their mistakes without harming a patient,
24 distressing them or facing other negative consequences[32, 37]. Computer-driven simulation
25 technologies such as games, augmentation and VR also enable independent learning, without the need
26 for an instructor to provide feedback or de-brief learners.

27
28 In VR, users wear a headset to become immersed in a digital environment. Headsets range from the
29 low-cost Samsung Gear VR or Google Cardboard to high-end gaming equipment such as Oculus
30 Touch. The extent of immersion also differs, ranging from non-immersion (e.g. using computer-based
31 VR), semi-immersion and fully immersive simulations (e.g. those with haptic feedback). The
32 perception of being immersed within a non-physical world is created through various stimuli,
33 including images and sound[38], which enable users to learn from experience. In interactive medical
34 VR, users can engage in virtual worlds, including with patients, colleagues and react to specific
35 scenarios[30]. In contrast, within augmented reality (AR) real-world environments are complemented
36 with interactive computer-generated imagery and information.

37
38 Unlike traditional simulators, the main benefit of VR is transporting the learner into an immersive
39 environment, rather than an educational one. VR and AR interventions are also cost-effective as they
40 can be used autonomously, independently, and repeatedly, compared to traditional simulation
41 technologies. In fact, they have been deemed as the learning tool of the 21st century[39] and their
42 popularity is expected to continually increase. Current projections for the AR/VR head-mounted
43 display market include a worth of USD 25 billion by 2022, with an annual growth rate of 39.5%[40].
44 This highlights that now is the ideal time to research implementation of AR/VR, due to an inevitable
45 growth in use and further reduction in costs.

46
47 These technologies have transformed clinical training and have been used to support health care
48 workers in decision-making and teaching emergency response, resuscitation, robotic surgery and

1 alcohol screening skills[41-45]. However, their effectiveness is contested within the literature, with
2 some research stating that VR is not as effective as other training tools, including for phlebotomy
3 training[46]. Other literature highlights that VR is useful for ‘presence’, but does not improve learning
4 outcomes[47, 48]. It is hypothesised that VR increases cognitive load and therefore compromises
5 cognitive resources from the learning experience[47]. Conversely, some research has found VR to be
6 more effective than other educational techniques[49, 50], with systematic reviews concluding that VR
7 training is effective in improving technical skills for arthroscopic surgery[51] and knowledge and skill
8 performance when learning clinical psychomotor skills[52]. Evidently, research is needed to explore
9 to what extent and for whom VR interventions are effective.

10
11 Despite their contested effectiveness, VR and AR technologies have now been commercialised and
12 implemented to upskill and support health providers. FundamentalVR[53], for example, provides
13 flight simulator-like training for surgeons with the use of haptic elements for tactile feedback. In the
14 SentiAR[54] tool, holographic visualisations are provided for each patients anatomy and float
15 alongside or above the patient during procedures (e.g. treating cardiac arrhythmias). Other tools
16 include the AR xVision[55] three-dimensional anatomical images that enable clinical providers to see
17 a patient’s skin and tissue (akin to x-ray vision) and the AR SureWash[56] mobile app, which
18 provides personalised feedback for hand hygiene technique. VR technologies were also implemented
19 during the COVID-19 pandemic when face-to-face teaching was not possible[57]. For example, St
20 Bartholomew’s Hospital used VR to train their nurses and doctors on 50 clinical procedures[58].
21 Their OMS VR system provided performance feedback, tracked improvement and facilitated group
22 learning.

23 24 **Gap in research and aim**

25
26 Despite the emergence and potential effectiveness of simulation technologies, there is an absence of
27 research on their effectiveness as an educational intervention. This includes how good they are at
28 enabling upskilling compared to other strategies, and how they can be implemented into a practice
29 setting, to enable upskilling. Additionally, as evident in the mixed findings on the effectiveness of AR
30 and VR interventions in upskilling staff, programme interventions, including digital ones, do not work
31 for everyone equally[59]. A gap in research remains on the factors that influence when an AR or VR
32 intervention works, to what extent, for whom and in which context. Moreover, research is needed on
33 the causal mechanisms that influence the outcomes of AR/VR interventions and their implementation.
34 This is essential in ensuring that future digital interventions are designed and appropriately targeted at
35 health and care workers, for both maximum efficiency and sustained effects. The aim of this review is
36 to develop, test and refine an evidence-informed programme theory on what facilitates or constrains
37 the implementation of AR or VR programmes in health and care settings and understand how, for
38 whom and to what extent they ‘work.’

39 40 **METHODS AND ANALYSIS**

41 42 **Realist review**

43
44 This research will take a realist approach because it can produce useful answers to complex questions
45 often left unexplored by experimental research[59]. These questions include: how, when, for whom
46 and to what extent, does an intervention ‘work’? To answer these questions, realist approaches
47 consider the complex interactions between the environment, individuals and the intervention.
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3 1 Realist evaluation is an emerging theory-driven methodology that seeks to understand CMO
4 2 configurations, i.e. the context (C), mechanisms (M) and outcomes (O) of interventions. Context
5 3 refers to the backdrop of conditions that may impact outcomes, such as organisational structure,
6 4 environmental settings, culture and norms. These trigger or modify mechanisms (causal forces) that
7 5 influence outcomes[60]. Examples of mechanisms include the resources offered by interventions or
8 6 changes in reasoning or behaviour.
9 7

10 8
11 9 Realist reviews seek to understand context, mechanisms and outcomes, by identifying candidate
12 10 theories and then systematically reviewing literature for underlying social entities, processes or social
13 11 structures that result in the intended outcome[61]; rather than assuming that the intervention itself
14 12 produces an outcome. This process is useful for complex interventions, in which outcomes may not
15 13 necessarily be linear, and instead depend on the context and both intended and unintentional
16 14 mechanisms[61]. It also allows exploring how an intervention is meant to work compared to how it
17 15 actually works in practice[62]. Additionally, ‘demi-regularities’ are identified to acknowledge that
18 16 outcomes will vary across contexts, but some CMO patterns will remain[60]. This focuses reviewers
19 17 on the transferable aspects of a programme theory[61].
20 18

21 19 CMO configurations are then developed as a programme theory, which is tested and refined in real-
22 20 life settings and with key stakeholders[59]. As with AR/VR technologies, the main benefit of realist
23 21 evaluation is the ability to bridge theory and practical application in the contexts and with the
24 22 populations that the intervention targets[59].
25 23

26 24 A realist review will therefore help to answer the following questions:

- 27 25 • What facilitates or constrains the implementation of AR/VR programmes in health and care
28 26 settings?
- 29 27 • What are the mechanisms by which VR/AR interventions result in their intended outcomes?
- 30 28 • What contexts determine whether the different mechanisms produce their intended outcomes?
- 31 29 • In what circumstances and for whom are VR/AR interventions effective in upskilling health
32 30 and care providers?

33 31 The core research team is a multi-disciplinary group of researchers, from the backgrounds of nursing,
34 32 primary healthcare, health informatics and implementation. Across this group, expertise relevant to
35 33 the topic includes that on digital health innovation and evaluation, behaviour change, implementation
36 34 science and conducting realist reviews. The RAMESES training documents[61] will be referred to,
37 35 and the review will be reported in accordance with the RAMESES Publication Standards for Realist
38 36 Synthesis[63] (supplementary Table S1).
39 37

38 38 **Procedures**

39 39
40 40 Realist reviews tend to follow a three-step process: theory elicitation, theory testing, and theory
41 41 refinement. This process will be followed to describe our procedures. Unlike systematic reviews,
42 42 which aim to uncover all research relevant to the topic, realist reviews find a comprehensive balance
43 43 of empirical research and theory[64]. Searches will therefore be iterative and additional rounds of
44 44 searching may alter the following procedures. Figure 1 highlights the processes that will be conducted
45 45 in each stage.
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1. Theory elicitation

Search strategy

A search will be conducted to identify initial candidate theories. These will not be limited by publication date and are characterised as academic, practitioner and learning and technology adoption theories.

We will identify academic and practitioner theories using free text and MeSH terms when searching Medline, SCOPUS, CINAHL, EMBASE, Education Resource Information Centre, PsycINFO and Web of Science. Snowballing will also help to identify relevant work. Supplementary Table S2 provides the search strategy. An initial search of the databases in January, 2021 located 811 items, of which 200 were deemed potentially eligible, after reviewing their titles and abstracts.

We will focus on the discussion section of items, to identify why AR or VR interventions did or did not achieve their intended outcomes. These often include the author's theories[65]. Existing systematic reviews will first be reviewed.

Relevant practitioner theories may be presented by professional bodies, or within grey literature, including editorials, letters, news articles and commentaries[66]. We will therefore supplement the above search with the additional journals presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary of relevant journals related to continued learning in health and care

Professional Body	Journal/s
Association of American Medical Colleges	Academic Medicine; MedEdPORTAL
Association for Medical Education in Europe	Medical Teacher
Foundation for Advancement of International Medical Education and Research	International Journal of Medical Education
Alliance for Continuing Education in the Health Professions; Association for Hospital Medical Education; Society for Academic Continuing Medical Education	Journal of Continuing Education in the Health Professions
German Association for Medical Education	GMS Journal for Medical Education
The Australian & New Zealand Association for Health Professional Educators	Focus on Health Professional Education
Association for the Study of Medical Education	Medical Education
Journals not associated with a professional body	

Journal of Nursing Education and Practice

Nurse Education Today

International Journal of Nursing Studies

We will also identify theories related to adult learning from the academic articles. These are expected to include theories related to adult learning for health and care professionals, including the Schon[67] theory on the reflective practitioner, and Slotnick's[68] theory on how physicians learn. Two theories identified by Mukhalalati and Taylor[69] as key to professional learning are directly applicable to AR/VR. These include:

- Experiential learning, whereby knowledge construction and learning are facilitated through interaction with the environment. Kolb[70] proposes a framework for experiential learning that includes concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation.
- In constructivism, learning occurs through interaction between previous skills/knowledge, those gained through social interaction and social activities, within the learner's environment, physical and social world[71]. Simulation has been identified as a tool that supports constructive learning[72, 73], as constructivists generally believe that people learn best by 'doing,' as this is how they construct their knowledge[74].

Theories may also relate to technology acceptance and adoption. Frameworks include:

- The Diffusion of Innovations theory[75], which explains how and at what rate innovations (e.g. technologies) spread, as determined by different categories of adopters. This can be applied to organisations and individuals.
- The Technology Acceptance Model[76] explains that an individual's perceived usefulness and ease-of-use of a technology influence intention to use and actual use.
- The Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology[77] determines that four constructs: performance expectancy, effort expectancy; social influence; and, facilitating conditions (e.g. age, gender, experience and voluntariness of use) influence an individual's technology use and acceptance.
- The NASSS framework[78] evaluates reasons for non-adoption, abandonment, and challenges to implementation through six domains (condition, technology, value proposition, adopter system and institutional and societal contexts).
- The Consolidated Framework for Implementation Research[79] considers five domains related to the intervention, outer and inner settings, the individuals involved and implementation process.
- The Normalisation Process Theory[80] focuses on people's actions, rather than their intentions/beliefs. It considers coherence, cognitive participation, collective action and reflexive monitoring as crucial to the implementation process.

Record management

Similar to the methods in Randell et al.[62], records will be saved to an Endnote library, as well as charted on Excel. A timeline sheet on Excel will record search activities, including the databases searched, the date of each search and the number of records found.

1 2 3 4 Screening 5 6

7 4 Two researchers (NG and DD) will screen the literature for eligibility, starting by determining the
8 5 relevance from the title and abstract, and then reading the full-text. The inclusion criteria for the
9 6 academic and practitioner theories will be:

- 10 7 • Using simulation technologies (any type of immersion will be accepted)
- 11 8 • Health and care workers and individuals post-graduation/registration as learners.
- 12 9 • Any health, care or university-based setting (as these often have simulation labs)
- 13 10 • Includes detail on implementation and/or on what contexts, how and for whom they ‘worked.’
- 14 11 • Published in English

15 12
16 13 The exclusion criteria include simulation technologies that do not use augmentation or VR (e.g. low
17 14 fidelity web-based e-learning interventions or manikin-only simulators), undergraduate students and
18 15 published in languages other than English. Work also including undergraduate learners or other
19 16 simulation technologies will only be included if the data for post-graduate/registered learners and
20 17 AR/VR can be separated.

21 18
22 19 A PRISMA flowchart[81] will document the review selection and decision process.

23 Analysis and synthesis 24

25 23 We will extract relevant information (presented in Box 1) including that pertaining to context,
26 24 mechanism and outcomes from each article from the academic and practitioner theories. Adult
27 25 learning and technology adoption theories will be briefly summarised. For consistency, outcomes
28 26 should broadly be related to the Kirkpatrick et al.[82] components of evaluation: reaction (i.e.
29 27 satisfaction), learning (i.e. knowledge), behaviour or results (skills). Unintended and other subjective
30 28 or observed outcomes (e.g. increased confidence or perceived interactivity) will be included too. A
31 29 second reviewer will code and extract data from a random selection of 10-20% of the articles to
32 30 ensure consistency in interpretation.

33 31 All information will be recorded in an Excel sheet for analysis. If possible, complete CMO
34 32 configurations will be recorded, however; it is unlikely that all articles will contain complete
35 33 statements- fragments will therefore be recorded too[62].

36 34 Upon completion, we will conduct a narrative synthesis to determine any overlapping CMO
37 35 configurations. These will then be compared with identified (learning and adoption) theories to further
38 36 explore the underlying causal mechanisms so as to understand how VR/AR interventions can or
39 37 should upskill health and care professionals[83]. The resulting CMO configurations will answer (a)
40 38 what facilitates or constrains the implementation of AR/VR programmes in health and care settings?
41 39 (b) How, for whom and to what extent did they produce the intended outcomes (reaction/satisfaction,
42 40 learning/knowledge and behaviour/results)?

43 41
44 42 The research team will then select a number of CMO configurations to test, focusing on those that are
45 43 most feasible and likely to apply to future AR or VR interventions.

46 **2. Theory testing** 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60

Search strategy

We will search databases to identify empirical and published studies that will enable the CMO configurations to be tested. We will use the same databases and keywords as in step one. Snowballing will help to identify additional literature.

Screening

The articles will be screened by determining their relevance to the programme theory (e.g. AR/VR tools used by health and care workers). A benefit of realist reviews is the focus on the intervention mechanism, enabling the inclusion of literature whereby the intervention has been applied to different settings, people or even similar interventions in the same setting[66, 84]. All study designs will be included. A PRISMA diagram will visualise the study selection process[81].

Analysis and synthesis

Relevant information (presented in Box 1) will be extracted into an excel sheet. We will also assess the quality of each paper using the Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT), as this is appropriate for qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods research[85]. The MMAT was developed in 2007[86], and revised in 2011[87]. Unlike earlier versions, the newest 2018 MMAT is not intended to be quantified and instead offers a guide for discussing quality. We will therefore highlight methodological flaws to inform recommendations for future research. Low quality research will not be excluded, as realist methodologists acknowledge that useful information on contextual factors may be present[88]. In alignment with the guidelines for conducting realist reviews, the quality of each study will focus on the evidential fragment (relevant section) that each theory is drawn from[88]. For example, when only quantitative data is used from a mixed-methods study to test the theory, the quality of the qualitative component will not be assessed.

3. Theory refinement

Coded data will be compared to the initial programme theory, and differences will be identified to refine and revise the programme theory. Upon completion of the final theory, a narrative and diagrammatic summary will be presented[89, 90]. We will use the MMAT to assess the extent to which we are confident in each finding. Ultimately, each CMO configuration will be rated as high, moderate, low or very low in confidence. This rating will highlight areas for research and also support decision-makers when deciding whether to implement or develop similar technologies to upskill health and care workers.

Patient and public involvement

Members of the public were not involved in the development of this protocol.

ETHICS, DISSEMINATION AND CONCLUSION

Ethics approval is not required to conduct this realist review. This protocol describes how we will conduct a realist review that constructs, tests and refines an evidence-informed programme theory on what facilitates or constrains the implementation of AR/VR programmes in health and care settings

1 and how, for whom and to what extent they ‘work.’ The results may inform and support AR/VR
2 interventions from clinical educators, healthcare providers and software developers. Upskilling
3 through AR/VR learning interventions may ultimately improve quality of care and promote evidence-
4 based practice and continued learning. Findings will be disseminated through conference
5 presentations and peer-reviewed journal publications.

7 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

9 NG conceived and designed the study with support from DD, SNVDV and PW. NG wrote the first
10 draft of the manuscript. All authors revised and approved the final manuscript.

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19 COMPETING INTERESTS

21 The authors have no competing interests to declare.

23 PATIENT CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION

25 Not required.

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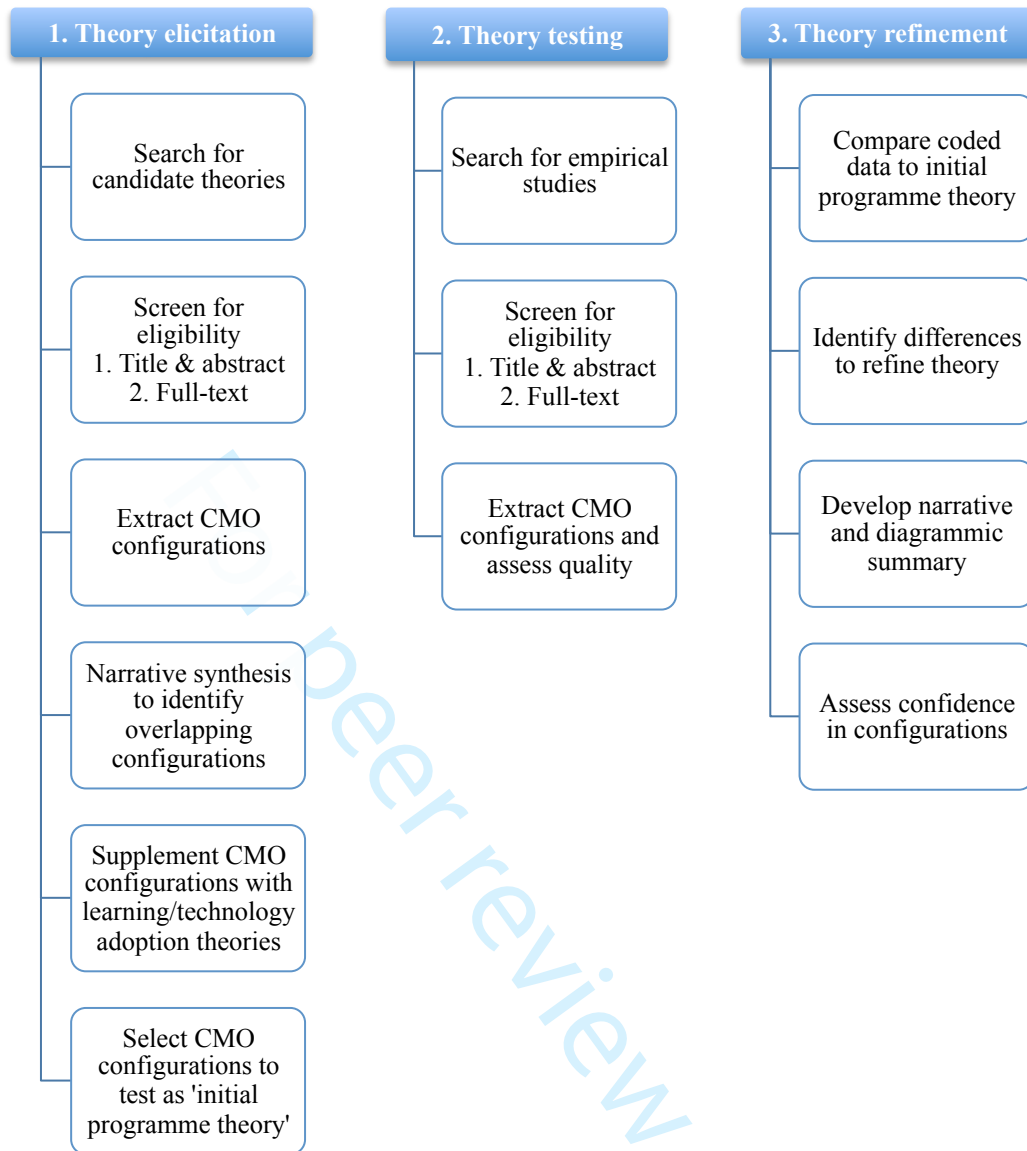
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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Summary of the three steps and process that will be conducted. CMO stands for Context Mechanism and Outcome.

Box 1. Content to be extracted from included sources and recorded in the coding sheet



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- Author; date
- Title
- Type of publication
- Research design, theoretical orientation (if applicable) and methods
- AR/VR technology description
- Study objective (focus)
- Setting; country
- Sample (type, size, age, gender)
- Context
- Mechanism
- Outcome (intended, unintended and/or subjective)
- Implementation (strategy, adoption and/or uptake)
- Learning or technology adoption theories mentioned

Supplementary file

Table S1. Completed checklist of the RAMESES Publication Standards for realist reviews¹

RAMESES* publication standards: realist syntheses				
* Realist And MEta-narrative Evidence Syntheses: Evolving Standards				
No.	Section / Topic	Checklist item	Reported	
			Yes	N/A
Title				
1.		In the title, identify the document as a realist synthesis or review.	X	
Abstract				
2.		While acknowledging publication requirements and house style, abstracts should ideally contain brief details of: the study's background, review question or objectives; search strategy; methods of selection, appraisal, analysis and synthesis of sources; main results; and implications for practice	X	
Introduction				
3.	Rationale for review	Explain why the review is needed and what it is likely to contribute to existing understanding of the topic area.	X	
4.	Objectives and focus of review	State the objective(s) of the review and/or the review question(s). Define and provide a rationale for the focus of the review.	X	
Methods				
5.	Changes in the review process	Any changes made to the review process that was initially planned should be briefly described and justified.		X
6.	Rationale for using realist synthesis	Explain why realist synthesis was considered the most appropriate method to use.	X	
7.	Scoping the literature	Describe and justify the initial process of exploratory scoping of the literature.	X	
8.	Searching processes	While considering specific requirements of the journal or other publication outlet, state and provide a rationale for how the iterative searching was done. Provide details on all the sources accessed for information in the review. Where searching in electronic databases has taken place, the details should include, for example, name of database, search terms, dates of coverage and date last searched. If individuals familiar with the relevant literature and/or topic area were contacted, indicate how they were identified and selected.	X	
9.	Selection and appraisal of documents	Explain how judgements were made about including and excluding data from documents, and justify these.	X	
10.	Data extraction	Describe and explain which data or information were extracted from the included documents and justify this	X	

		selection.		
11.	Analysis and synthesis processes	Describe the analysis and synthesis processes in detail. This section should include information on the constructs analysed and describe the analytic process.	X	
Results				
12.	Document flow diagram	Provide details on the number of documents assessed for eligibility and included in the review with reasons for exclusion at each stage as well as an indication of their source of origin (for example, from searching databases, reference lists and so on). You may consider using the example templates (which are likely to need modification to suit the data) that are provided.		X
13.	Document characteristics	Provide information on the characteristics of the documents included in the review.		X
14.	Main findings	Present the key findings with a specific focus on theory building and testing.		X
Discussion				
15.	Summary of findings	Summarise the main findings, taking into account the review's objective(s), research question(s), focus and intended audience(s).		X
16.	Strengths, limitations and future research directions	Discuss both the strengths of the review and its limitations. These should include (but need not be restricted to) (a) consideration of all the steps in the review process and (b) comment on the overall strength of evidence supporting the explanatory insights which emerged. The limitations identified may point to areas where further work is needed.		X
17.	Comparison with existing literature	Where applicable, compare and contrast the review's findings with the existing literature (for example, other reviews) on the same topic.		X
18.	Conclusion and recommendations	List the main implications of the findings and place these in the context of other relevant literature. If appropriate, offer recommendations for policy and practice.		X
19.	Funding	Provide details of funding source (if any) for the review, the role played by the funder (if any) and any conflicts of interests of the reviewers.	X	

¹Wong, G., Greenhalgh, T., Westhorp, G., et al. RAMESES publication standards: realist syntheses. *BMC Medicine* 2013;11(1):21.

Table S2. Initial search strategy

Databases	
	Medline
	SCOPUS
	CINAHL
	EMBASE
	Education Resource Information Centre
	PsycINFO
	Web of Science
Keywords	
Technology/Intervention	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • augmented reality • virtual reality
Population/sample	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • health* healthcare; health; health worker; health staff; health provider • care* care; carer; caregiving; caregiver; caring • nurs* nurse, nursing, nurses • doctor • surgeon
Focus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • training • upskilling • skill • education • evaluation • implementation • feasibility • effectiveness
Example with Boolean operators	
	(TITLE-ABS-KEY (augmented AND reality OR virtual AND reality) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (health* OR care* OR nurs* OR doctor OR surgeon) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (training OR upskilling OR skill OR education) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (evaluation OR implementation OR feasibility OR effectiveness))

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2.		While acknowledging publication requirements and house style, abstracts should ideally contain brief details of: the study's background, review question or objectives; search strategy; methods of selection, appraisal, analysis and synthesis of sources; main results; and implications for practice	X	
Introduction				
3.	Rationale for review	Explain why the review is needed and what it is likely to contribute to existing understanding of the topic area.	X	
4.	Objectives and focus of review	State the objective(s) of the review and/or the review question(s). Define and provide a rationale for the focus of the review.	X	
Methods				
5.	Changes in the review process	Any changes made to the review process that was initially planned should be briefly described and justified.		X
6.	Rationale for using realist synthesis	Explain why realist synthesis was considered the most appropriate method to use.	X	
7.	Scoping the literature	Describe and justify the initial process of exploratory scoping of the literature.	X	
8.	Searching processes	While considering specific requirements of the journal or other publication outlet, state and provide a rationale for how the iterative searching was done. Provide details on all the sources accessed for information in the review. Where searching in electronic databases has taken place, the details should include, for example, name of database, search terms, dates of coverage and date last searched. If individuals familiar with the relevant literature and/or topic area were contacted, indicate how they were identified and selected.	X	
9.	Selection and appraisal of documents	Explain how judgements were made about including and excluding data from documents, and justify these.	X	
10.	Data extraction	Describe and explain which data or information were extracted from the included documents and justify this selection.	X	

11.	Analysis and synthesis processes	Describe the analysis and synthesis processes in detail. This section should include information on the constructs analysed and describe the analytic process.	X	
Results				
12.	Document flow diagram	Provide details on the number of documents assessed for eligibility and included in the review with reasons for exclusion at each stage as well as an indication of their source of origin (for example, from searching databases, reference lists and so on). You may consider using the example templates (which are likely to need modification to suit the data) that are provided.		X
13.	Document characteristics	Provide information on the characteristics of the documents included in the review.		X
14.	Main findings	Present the key findings with a specific focus on theory building and testing.		X
Discussion				
15.	Summary of findings	Summarise the main findings, taking into account the review's objective(s), research question(s), focus and intended audience(s).		X
16.	Strengths, limitations and future research directions	Discuss both the strengths of the review and its limitations. These should include (but need not be restricted to) (a) consideration of all the steps in the review process and (b) comment on the overall strength of evidence supporting the explanatory insights which emerged. The limitations identified may point to areas where further work is needed.		X
17.	Comparison with existing literature	Where applicable, compare and contrast the review's findings with the existing literature (for example, other reviews) on the same topic.		X
18.	Conclusion and recommendations	List the main implications of the findings and place these in the context of other relevant literature. If appropriate, offer recommendations for policy and practice.		X
19.	Funding	Provide details of funding source (if any) for the review, the role played by the funder (if any) and any conflicts of interests of the reviewers.	X	

¹Wong, G., Greenhalgh, T., Westhorp, G., et al. RAMESES publication standards: realist syntheses. *BMC Medicine* 2013;11(1):21.

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Upskilling health and care workers with augmented and virtual reality: Protocol for a realist review to develop an evidence-informed programme theory

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Upskilling health and care workers with augmented and virtual reality: Protocol for a realist review to develop an evidence-informed programme theory

Norina Gasteiger^{1,2,3,*}, Sabine N van der Veer^{2,4}, Paul Wilson³ and Dawn Dowding¹

1. Division of Nursing, Midwifery & Social Work, University of Manchester, Manchester, UK

2. Centre for Health Informatics, Division of Informatics, Imaging and Data Sciences, University of Manchester, Manchester, UK

3. Division of Population Health, Health Services Research & Primary Care, University of Manchester, Manchester, UK

4. Manchester Academic Health Science Centre, University of Manchester, Manchester, UK

***Corresponding author:**

Norina Gasteiger

Location: Jean McFarlane Building, Oxford Road, Manchester, M13 9PL, United Kingdom

Email: norina.gasteiger@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk

ORCID:

N. Gasteiger: 0000-0001-7801-7417

S.N van der Veer: 0000-0003-0929-436X

P. Wilson: 0000-0002-2657-5780

D. Dowding: 0000-0001-5672-8605

INTRODUCTION

Upskilling in the health and care workforce

Upskilling through continuous learning and development is important in any business, to improve skillsets, advance practice and close gaps in knowledge. Upskilling is the process of learning new skills or refining existing skillsets to enable employees to continue practising with ease[1]. For health support and care workers, upskilling ensures that their work is safe and aligns with best practice guidelines, as they often receive variable and inconsistent training, as non-registered staff[2,3]. Upskilling, in this sense, is therefore essential for providing consistent and high-quality care. Additionally, this promotes workforce flexibility and enables for the delegation of skills, when systems experience a shortage of staff[4]. Within the provision of health and care, upskilling is also crucial when adapting in times of change[5,6] or crisis[7] and to align with up-to-date best practice.

Health and care providers may range from registered clinicians such as surgeons, general practitioners and doctors, nurses and midwives, to allied health and non-registered staff who provide care. Allied health staff may include paramedics, dietitians, podiatrists and radiographers[8], while carers also include those working for care-based organisations such as in care homes or homecare agencies. Regardless of the role, all staff that provide health and care services must act in accordance with policies/guidelines and optimally engage in up-to-date evidence-based best practice.

Evidence-based practice is widely recognised as the gold standard when providing effective and safe healthcare[9]. This requires professionals to update and upskill themselves on current evidence and to alter their practice to align with this, as well as with their patient's preferences[10]. Current evidence is usually retrieved from peer-reviewed journal articles; however, due to time constraints and workload demand, many health and care staff rely on organisational policies and protocols as formal sources of knowledge[11]. As the evidence base grows, old habits must be adapted and upskilling is required to align with the newest best practice.

Upskilling is also essential when adapting in times of change or crisis. For example, the emergence of medical and healthcare technologies requires staff to upskill, including improving their digital literacy skills[5,6]. Additionally, the novel coronavirus disease-19 (COVID-19) pandemic caused significant changes to health and care systems. Changes included staff deployment to wards (e.g. COVID-19 wards) outside of their normal experience and of retired and newly qualified staff, remote provision of healthcare using telehealth (phones, video, patient portals), distancing/minimal contact care, stringent use of personal protective equipment and strengthened inter-professional collaboration[12-15]. These challenges required prompt upskilling, especially in using technologies and in infection, prevention and control behaviours to minimise the spread of COVID-19.

Upskilling training programmes

Upskilling training programmes traditionally consist of e-learning, textbooks, workshops, seminars, shadowing/observation and reading peer-reviewed journal articles. Hatfield et al.[16] systematically reviewed 12 studies that delivered behaviour change training interventions to healthcare professionals. All used educational elements (e.g. presentations and workshops) and most were delivered in-person. Morris et al.[17] reviewed training interventions aimed at carers. Both reviews concluded that interventions that use both educational and practical elements (e.g. practising skills or discussion) are

1 most effective [16,17]. This indicates that education-only interventions may not be effective in
2 upskilling health and care staff.

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7 4 Time, organisational structure, difficult to access resources and a reliance on experiential knowledge
8 5 also constrain providers from upskilling[3,11]. Health and care staff have widely reported a
9 6 preference for learning through ‘doing’ (such as interacting with or observing colleagues), rather than
10 7 from journal articles or textbooks[18-20]. Additionally, although support and care workers provide
11 8 clinical, care-based and clerical patient care, their value is often not reflected in their allocated
12 9 training budgets and available programmes[3]. As a result, many feel insufficiently prepared[3].
13 10 However, clinical, health support and care staff indicate a willingness to upskill, receive further
14 11 training and to participate in interventions that will improve their practice[11,21]. Further, some
15 12 managers and nurses in England-based nursing homes have expressed enthusiasm toward
16 13 implementing innovative digital health technologies that may improve residents’ quality of care[22].
17 14

15 **Digital technologies for upskilling**

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17 Effective interventions that are short, accessible, interactive, memorable and low cost are needed, to
18 18 overcome training barriers. For workplaces with staff shortages, training also needs to be flexible and
19 19 provided on a drop-by basis[3]. Brief interventions delivered via digital technology may be
20 20 appropriate, as they can be made available online and accessed 24/7. They can also be more engaging
21 21 and memorable, by including interactive activities (e.g. games, quizzes, simulations and immediate
22 22 performance feedback). However, there is limited literature on implementation strategies for digital
23 23 interventions that upskill health and care workers. Theories of change can be applied to knowledge of
24 24 existing barriers and facilitators to using digital health programmes for healthcare workers. Lewin
25 25 describes behaviour as “a dynamic balance of forces working in opposing directions” [23]. Lewin
26 26 theorises that driving forces (i.e. facilitators) and restraining forces (i.e. barriers) counter one another,
27 27 but can result in change if one overrides the other. This means that barriers and facilitators directly
28 28 impact the implementation success and effectiveness of digital training programmes for health and
29 29 care staff.
30 30

31 Literature on digital health technologies has highlighted various driving and restraining forces that
32 32 impact both implementation and the effectiveness of programmes. Keyworth et al.[24] conducted a
33 33 review of 69 studies to determine what maximises the effectiveness and implementation of
34 34 technology-based interventions that support healthcare professional practice. They concluded that
35 35 successful technologies employ behaviour change theories and specific instruction on how to perform
36 36 behaviours. They also provide professionals with knowledge and person-specific information to assist
37 37 with practice (e.g. patient management). Driving forces for implementation include integration into
38 38 clinical workload, alignment with organisational strategies and senior peer endorsement. Restraining
39 39 forces include organisational challenges, as well as the design, content and technical issues of the
40 40 interventions.
41 41

42 Literature also highlights key strategies for implementation, focussing on provider adoption and
43 43 acceptance. Recommendations for facilitating change include linking new practice with old practice
44 44 to build familiarity[25,26], identifying people who are willing to facilitate and promote the new
45 45 practice[26,27] and to clearly communicate to staff as to how the new practice will benefit them and
46 46 their patients[26,28,29]. Spagnoletti et al.[28] provide specific examples, highlighting that short
47 47 sessions, role-modelling content (e.g. video clips of the behaviour) and modules that refresh
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1 understanding of familiar curriculum were important in their implementation of an online training
2 programme for interns.

3 4 **Simulation technologies for upskilling**

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6 The implementation of simulation technologies may be a novel and engaging approach to upskilling
7 health and care workers. The term health and care workers captures the breadth of professionals
8 working in health and social care, including medical staff, general practitioners, nurses, carers and
9 community workers. Simulation in this context refers to the replication of real-life interactions or
10 scenarios, whereby learners receive immediate feedback/de-briefing[30]. Various levels of simulation
11 exist, depending on 'fidelity' (reality). According to Seropian et al.[31], these can be categorised as
12 high, medium and low fidelity and use tools such as human-like body parts, haptic feedback,
13 computer programmes (e.g. serious games) or virtual reality (VR) headsets to facilitate experimental
14 learning. Low fidelity simulation may include a simple body part, such as a doll-like arm to practice
15 intravenous insertion skills[32]. In contrast, high fidelity simulation tools include real-life responses
16 driven by computers[32]. These are more expensive and may include the METI Human Patient
17 Simulator, which looks and acts like a human (e.g. blinks, has a pulse and speaks) and accurately
18 mirrors responses to clinical procedures, such as intubation and catheterisation. However, it is
19 important to note that simulators mimic, rather than replicate reality[32].

20
21 Simulation technology has been found to be as effective as traditional teaching methods for educating
22 health and care staff and students[33-35]. However, when compared to traditional methods, students
23 report better retention of knowledge[36] and higher satisfaction and motivation when using simulation
24 technologies such as games[34]. Experimental learning by simulation also allows for learners to
25 repeatedly practice skills and make and learn from their mistakes without harming a patient,
26 distressing them or facing other negative consequences[32,37]. Computer-driven simulation
27 technologies such as games, augmentation and VR also enable independent learning, often without
28 the need for an instructor to immediately provide feedback or de-brief learners. De-briefing can then
29 occur at a later date, such as to determine trainee performance and learning progress.

30
31 In VR, users wear a headset to become immersed in a digital environment. Headsets range from the
32 low-cost Samsung Gear VR or Google Cardboard to high-end gaming equipment such as Oculus
33 Touch. The extent of immersion also differs, ranging from non-immersion (e.g. using computer-based
34 VR), semi-immersion and fully immersive simulations (e.g. those with haptic feedback). The
35 perception of being immersed within a non-physical world is created through various stimuli,
36 including images and sound[38], which enable users to learn from experience. In interactive medical
37 VR, users can engage in virtual worlds, including with patients, colleagues and react to specific
38 scenarios[30]. In contrast, within augmented reality (AR) real-world environments are complemented
39 with interactive computer-generated imagery and information.

40
41 Unlike traditional simulators, the main benefit of VR is transporting the learner into an immersive
42 environment. VR and AR interventions are also cost-effective as they can be used autonomously,
43 independently, and repeatedly, compared to traditional simulation technologies. In fact, they have
44 been deemed as the learning tool of the 21st century[39] and their popularity is expected to continually
45 increase. Current projections for the AR/VR head-mounted display market include a worth of USD 25
46 billion by 2022, with an annual growth rate of 39.5%[40]. This highlights that now is the ideal time to
47 research implementation of AR/VR, due to an inevitable growth in use and further reduction in costs.

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3 1 These technologies have transformed clinical training and have been used to support health care
4 2 workers in decision-making and teaching emergency response, resuscitation, robotic surgery and
5 3 alcohol screening skills[41-45]. However, their effectiveness is contested within the literature, with
6 4 some research stating that VR is not as effective as other training tools, including for phlebotomy
7 5 training[46]. Other literature highlights that VR is useful for 'presence', but does not improve learning
8 6 outcomes[47,48]. It is hypothesised that VR increases cognitive load and therefore compromises
9 7 cognitive resources from the learning experience[47]. Conversely, some research has found VR to be
10 8 more effective than other educational techniques[49,50], with systematic reviews concluding that VR
11 9 training is effective in improving technical skills for arthroscopic surgery[51] and knowledge and skill
12 10 performance when learning clinical psychomotor skills[52]. Evidently, research is needed to explore
13 11 to what extent and for whom VR interventions are effective.
14 12

15 13 Despite their contested effectiveness, VR and AR technologies have now been commercialised and
16 14 implemented to upskill and support health providers. FundamentalVR[53], for example, provides
17 15 flight simulator-like training for surgeons with the use of haptic elements for tactile feedback. In the
18 16 SentiAR[54] tool, holographic visualisations are provided for each patients anatomy and float
19 17 alongside or above the patient during procedures (e.g. treating cardiac arrhythmias). Other tools
20 18 include the AR xVision[55] three-dimensional anatomical images that enable clinical providers to see
21 19 a patient's skin and tissue (akin to x-ray vision) and the AR SureWash[56] mobile app, which
22 20 provides personalised feedback for hand hygiene technique[57]. VR technologies were also
23 21 implemented during the COVID-19 pandemic when face-to-face teaching was not possible[58]. For
24 22 example, St Bartholomew's Hospital used VR to train their nurses and doctors on 50 clinical
25 23 procedures[59]. Their OMS VR system provided performance feedback, tracked improvement and
26 24 facilitated group learning.
27 25

26 26 **Gap in research and aim**

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28 28 Despite the emergence and potential efficacy of simulation technologies, the effectiveness of these
29 29 technologies as an educational intervention remains debated. This includes how good they are at
30 30 enabling upskilling compared to other strategies, and how they can be implemented into a practice
31 31 setting, to enable upskilling. Additionally, as evident in the mixed findings on the effectiveness of AR
32 32 and VR interventions in upskilling staff, programme interventions, including digital ones, do not work
33 33 for everyone equally[60]. A gap in research remains on the factors that influence when an AR or VR
34 34 intervention works, to what extent, for whom and in which context. Moreover, research is needed on
35 35 the causal mechanisms that influence the outcomes of AR/VR interventions and their implementation.
36 36 This is essential in ensuring that future digital interventions are designed and appropriately targeted at
37 37 health and care workers, for both maximum efficiency and sustained effects. The aim of this review is
38 38 to develop, test and refine an evidence-informed programme theory on what facilitates or constrains
39 39 the implementation of AR or VR programmes in health and care settings and understand how, for
40 40 whom and to what extent they 'work.'
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42 42 **METHODS AND ANALYSIS**

43 43 44 44 **Realist review**

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46 46 This research will take a realist approach because it can produce useful answers to complex questions
47 47 often left unexplored by experimental research[60]. These questions include: how, when, for whom
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1 and to what extent, does an intervention ‘work’? To answer these questions, realist approaches
2 consider the complex interactions between the environment, individuals and the intervention.

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Realist evaluation is an emerging theory-driven methodology that seeks to understand CMO
configurations, i.e. the context (C), mechanisms (M) and outcomes (O) of interventions. Context
refers to the backdrop of conditions that may impact outcomes, such as organisational structure,
functional fidelity, environmental settings, culture and norms. These trigger or modify mechanisms
(causal forces) that influence outcomes[61]. Examples of mechanisms include the resources offered
by interventions or changes in reasoning or behaviour.

Realist reviews seek to understand context, mechanisms and outcomes, by identifying candidate
theories and then systematically reviewing literature for underlying social entities, processes or social
structures that result in the intended outcome[62]; rather than assuming that the intervention itself
produces an outcome. This process is useful for complex interventions, in which outcomes may not
necessarily be linear, and instead depend on the context and both intended and unintentional
mechanisms[62]. It also allows exploring how an intervention is meant to work compared to how it
actually works in practice[63]. Additionally, ‘demi-regularities’ are identified to acknowledge that
outcomes will vary across contexts, but some CMO patterns will remain[61]. This focuses reviewers
on the transferable aspects of a programme theory[62]. By definition, candidate theories are
individual and specific theories, while a programme theory provides an over-arching explanation of
how a specific intervention is expected to ‘work,’ including how contexts and mechanisms lead to
negative and positive outcomes[64].

CMO configurations are then developed as a programme theory, which is tested and refined in real-
life settings and with key stakeholders[60]. As with AR/VR technologies, the main benefit of realist
evaluation is the ability to bridge theory and practical application in the contexts and with the
populations that the intervention targets[60].

A realist review will therefore help to answer the following questions:

- What facilitates or constrains the implementation of AR/VR programmes in health and care settings?
- What are the mechanisms by which VR/AR interventions result in their intended outcomes?
- What contexts determine whether the different mechanisms produce their intended outcomes?
- In what circumstances and for whom are VR/AR interventions effective in upskilling health and care providers?

The core research team is a multi-disciplinary group of researchers, from the backgrounds of nursing,
primary healthcare, health informatics and implementation. Across this group, expertise relevant to
the topic includes that on digital health innovation and evaluation, behaviour change, implementation
science and conducting realist reviews. The RAMESES training documents[62] will be referred to,
and the review will be reported in accordance with the RAMESES Publication Standards for Realist
Synthesis[65] (supplementary Table S1).

Procedures

Realist reviews tend to follow a three-step process: theory elicitation, theory testing, and theory
refinement. This process will be followed to describe our procedures. Unlike systematic reviews,

1 which aim to uncover all research relevant to the topic, realist reviews find a comprehensive balance
 2 of empirical research and theory[66]. Searches will therefore be iterative and additional rounds of
 3 searching may alter the following procedures. Figure 1 highlights the processes that will be conducted
 4 in each stage.

5 6 *1. Theory elicitation*

7 8 Search strategy

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10 A search will be conducted to identify initial candidate theories. These will not be limited by
 11 publication date and are characterised as academic, practitioner and learning and technology adoption
 12 theories.

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14 We will identify academic and practitioner theories using free text and MeSH terms when searching
 15 Medline, SCOPUS, CINAHL, EMBASE, Education Resource Information Centre, PsycINFO and
 16 Web of Science. Snowballing will also help to identify relevant work. Supplementary Table S2
 17 provides the search strategy. An initial search of the databases in January, 2021 located 811 items, of
 18 which 200 were deemed potentially eligible, after reviewing their titles and abstracts.

19
20 We will focus on the discussion section of items, to identify why AR or VR interventions did or did
 21 not achieve their intended outcomes. These often include the author's theories[67]. Existing
 22 systematic reviews will first be reviewed.

23
24 Relevant practitioner theories may be presented by professional bodies, or within grey literature,
 25 including editorials, letters, news articles and commentaries[68]. We will therefore supplement the
 26 above search with the additional journals presented in Table 1. Literature from other relevant journals
 27 such as JMIR and JAMIA will be identified through the database searches, as they are indexed in
 28 Medline.

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30
31 Table 1. Summary of relevant journals related to continued learning in health and care
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33 Professional Body	34 Journal/s
35 Association of American Medical Colleges	36 Academic Medicine; MedEdPORTAL
37 Association for Medical Education in Europe	38 Medical Teacher
39 Foundation for Advancement of International 40 Medical Education and Research	41 International Journal of Medical Education
42 Alliance for Continuing Education in the Health 43 Professions; Association for Hospital Medical 44 Education; Society for Academic Continuing 45 Medical Education	46 Journal of Continuing Education in the Health 47 Professions
48 German Association for Medical Education	49 GMS Journal for Medical Education

The Australian & New Zealand Association for Health Professional Educators Focus on Health Professional Education

Association for the Study of Medical Education Medical Education

Journals not associated with a professional body

Journal of Nursing Education and Practice

Nurse Education Today

International Journal of Nursing Studies

We will also identify theories related to adult learning from the academic articles. These are expected to include theories related to adult learning for health and care professionals, including the Schon[69] theory on the reflective practitioner, and Slotnick's[70] theory on how physicians learn. Two theories identified by Mukhalalati and Taylor[71] as key to professional learning are directly applicable to AR/VR. These include:

- Experiential learning, whereby knowledge construction and learning are facilitated through interaction with the environment. Kolb[72] proposes a framework for experiential learning that includes concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation.
- In constructivism, learning occurs through interaction between previous skills/knowledge, those gained through social interaction and social activities, within the learner's environment, physical and social world[73]. Simulation has been identified as a tool that supports constructive learning[74,75], as constructivists generally believe that people learn best by 'doing,' as this is how they construct their knowledge[76].

Theories may also relate to technology acceptance and adoption. Frameworks include:

- The Diffusion of Innovations theory[77], which explains how and at what rate innovations (e.g. technologies) spread, as determined by different categories of adopters. This can be applied to organisations and individuals.
- The Technology Acceptance Model[78] explains that an individual's perceived usefulness and ease-of-use of a technology influence intention to use and actual use.
- The Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology[79] determines that four constructs: performance expectancy, effort expectancy; social influence; and, facilitating conditions (e.g. age, gender, experience and voluntariness of use) influence an individual's technology use and acceptance.
- The NASSS framework[80] evaluates reasons for non-adoption, abandonment, and challenges to implementation through six domains (condition, technology, value proposition, adopter system and institutional and societal contexts).
- The Consolidated Framework for Implementation Research[81] considers five domains related to the intervention, outer and inner settings, the individuals involved and implementation process.

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- The Normalisation Process Theory[82] focuses on people's actions, rather than their intentions/beliefs. It considers coherence, cognitive participation, collective action and reflexive monitoring as crucial to the implementation process.

Record management

Similar to the methods in Randell et al.[63], records will be saved to an Endnote library, as well as charted on Excel. A timeline sheet on Excel will record search activities, including the databases searched, the date of each search and the number of records found.

Screening

Two researchers (NG and DD) will screen the literature for eligibility, starting by determining the relevance from the title and abstract, and then reading the full-text. As in other realist reviews, the first researcher will screen all items and generate a short-list of possible eligible items, while the second independently screens a random sub-set of items (20%) at each screening stage[83]. A raw agreement rate will be calculated to determine interrater reliability, while any disagreements will be resolved through discussion, so that consensus is met. The inclusion criteria for the academic and practitioner theories will be:

- Using simulation technologies (any type of immersion will be accepted)
- Health and care workers and individuals post-graduation/registration as learners.
- Any health, care or university-based setting (as these often have simulation labs)
- Includes detail on implementation and/or on what contexts, how and for whom they 'worked.'
- Published in English

The exclusion criteria include simulation technologies that do not use augmentation or VR (e.g. low fidelity web-based e-learning interventions or manikin-only simulators), undergraduate students and published in languages other than English. Work also including undergraduate learners or other simulation technologies will only be included if the data for post-graduate/registered learners and AR/VR can be separated. Undergraduate students will be excluded as they differ from learners post-registration. Namely, they are learning content for the first time, rather than upskilling their clinical or practical knowledge/experience. For the purpose of this review, VR is defined as a computer-generated simulated environment, while AR refers to the projection of computer-generated imagery onto real-world environments[84,85].

A PRISMA flowchart[86] will document the review selection and decision process.

Analysis and synthesis

We will extract relevant information (presented in Box 1) including that pertaining to context, mechanism and outcomes from each article from the academic and practitioner theories. Adult learning and technology adoption theories will be briefly summarised. For consistency, outcomes should broadly be related to the Kirkpatrick et al.[87] components of evaluation: reaction (i.e. satisfaction), learning (i.e. knowledge), behaviour or results (skills). Unintended and other subjective or observed outcomes (e.g. increased confidence or perceived interactivity) will be included too. A second reviewer will code and extract data from a random selection of 10-20% of the articles to ensure consistency in interpretation.

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2
3 1 Box 1. Content to be extracted from included sources and recorded in the coding sheet
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- Author; date
- Title
- Type of publication (journal paper, conference paper or book chapter)
- Research design, theoretical orientation (if applicable) and methods
- AR/VR technology description
- Study objective (focus)
- Setting; country
- Sample (type, size, age, gender)
- Context
- Mechanism
- Outcome (intended, unintended and/or subjective)
- Implementation (strategy, adoption and/or uptake)
- Learning or technology adoption theories mentioned (if applicable)

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27 5 All information will be recorded in an Excel sheet for analysis. If possible, complete CMO
28 6 configurations will be recorded, however; it is unlikely that all articles will contain complete
29 7 statements- fragments will therefore be recorded too[63].
30 8

31 9
32 10 Upon completion, we will conduct a narrative synthesis to determine any overlapping CMO
33 11 configurations. These will then be compared with identified (learning and adoption) theories to further
34 12 explore the underlying causal mechanisms so as to understand how VR/AR interventions can or
35 13 should upskill health and care professionals[88]. The resulting CMO configurations will answer (a)
36 14 what facilitates or constrains the implementation of AR/VR programmes in health and care settings?
37 15 (b) How, for whom and to what extent did they produce the intended outcomes (reaction/satisfaction,
38 16 short and long-term learning/knowledge and behaviour/results)?
39 17

40 18 The research team will then select a number of CMO configurations to test, focusing on those that are
41 19 most feasible and likely to apply to future AR or VR interventions.
42 20

43 21 **2. Theory testing**

44 22 Search strategy

45 23
46 24 We will search databases to identify empirical and published studies that will enable the CMO
47 25 configurations to be tested. First we will identify the empirical literature from step one. We will then
48 26 search the same databases as in step one, using the same keywords, but limit the timeframe of the
49 27 search to only include recently published literature that we will have missed since conducting the first
50 28 search. Snowballing will help to identify additional literature. This will consist of checking the
51 29 reference lists of the included literature.
52 30

53 31 Screening

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3 1 The articles will be screened by determining their relevance to the programme theory (e.g. AR/VR
4 2 tools used by health and care workers). A benefit of realist reviews is the focus on the intervention
5 3 mechanism, enabling the inclusion of literature whereby the intervention has been applied to different
6 4 settings, people or even similar interventions in the same setting[68,89]. All study designs will be
7 5 included. A PRISMA diagram will visualise the study selection process[86].
8 6

7 Analysis and synthesis

8

9 Relevant information (presented in Box 1) will be extracted into an excel sheet. We will also assess
10 10 the quality of each paper using the Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT), as this is appropriate for
11 11 qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods research[90]. The MMAT was developed in 2007[91],
12 12 and revised in 2011[92]. Unlike earlier versions, the newest 2018 MMAT is not intended to be
13 13 quantified and instead offers a guide for discussing quality. We will therefore highlight
14 14 methodological flaws to inform recommendations for future research. Low quality research will not
15 15 be excluded, as realist methodologists acknowledge that useful information on contextual factors may
16 16 be present[93]. In alignment with the guidelines for conducting realist reviews, the quality of each
17 17 study will focus on the evidential fragment (relevant section) that each theory is drawn from[93]. For
18 18 example, when only quantitative data is used from a mixed-methods study to test the theory, the
19 19 quality of the qualitative component will not be assessed. Cohen's kappa will be calculated, to
20 20 determine interrater reliability between the two authors conducting the quality assessments.
21 21

22 **3. Theory refinement**

23

24 Coded data will be compared to the initial programme theory, and differences will be identified to
25 25 refine and revise the programme theory. Upon completion of the final theory, a narrative and
26 26 diagrammatic summary will be presented[64,94]. We will use the MMAT to assess the extent to
27 27 which we are confident in each finding. Ultimately, each CMO configuration will be rated as high,
28 28 moderate, low or very low in confidence. This rating will highlight areas for research and also support
29 29 decision-makers when deciding whether to implement or develop similar technologies to upskill
30 30 health and care workers.
31 31

32 **Strengths and limitations**

33

34 Inherent limitations of realist reviews must be acknowledged. Realist reviews have been critiqued to
35 35 be laborious and time-intensive[95], so the included literature is not always up-to-date when it is
36 36 published. We will overcome this through a second database search, which will specifically identify
37 37 recently published work. Programme theories are also only as good as the literature they include, but
38 38 they do sometimes not acknowledge or assess quality[83]. We are therefore conducting quality
39 39 assessments of the literature and using this to identify our confidence in each CMO configuration. A
40 40 fundamental limitation we cannot overcome but must acknowledge is that mechanisms are often
41 41 untested and subjective author hypotheses[96], which may limit the accuracy of the programme
42 42 theory.
43 43

44 **Patient and public involvement**

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46 Members of the public were not involved in the development of this protocol.
47 47

48 **ETHICS, DISSEMINATION AND CONCLUSION**

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3 1
4 2 Ethics approval is not required to conduct this realist review. This protocol describes how we will
5 3 conduct a realist review that constructs, tests and refines an evidence-informed programme theory on
6 4 what facilitates or constrains the implementation of AR/VR programmes in health and care settings
7 5 and how, for whom and to what extent they ‘work.’ The results may inform and support AR/VR
8 6 interventions from clinical educators, healthcare providers and software developers. Upskilling
9 7 through AR/VR learning interventions may ultimately improve quality of care and promote evidence-
10 8 based practice and continued learning. Findings will be disseminated through conference
11 9 presentations and peer-reviewed journal publications. In our future work we will continue to refine
12 10 our programme theory, by involving stakeholders. This will include interviews, as well as
13 11 experimental work.
14 12

13 13 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

14 14
15 15 NG conceived and designed the study with support from DD, SNVDV and PW. NG wrote the first
16 16 draft of the manuscript. All authors revised and approved the final manuscript.
17 17

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24 24

25 25 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

26 26
27 27 The authors have no competing interests to declare.
28 28

29 29 **PATIENT CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION**

30 30
31 31 Not required.
32 32

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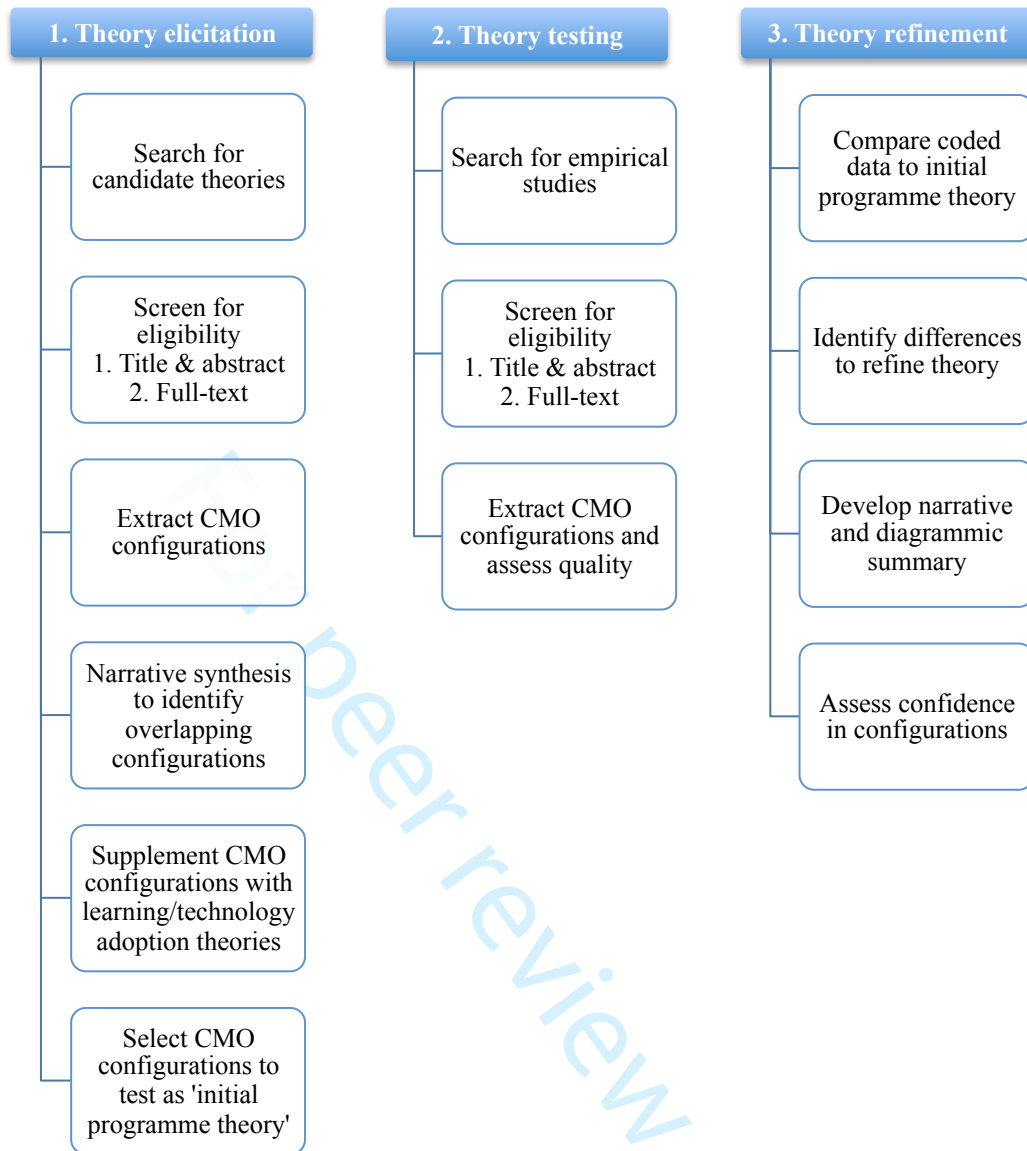
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FIGURE LEGENDS

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- 1 Figure 1. Summary of the three steps and process that will be conducted. CMO stands for Context
- 2 Mechanism and Outcome.

For peer review only



Supplementary file

Table S1. Completed checklist of the RAMESES Publication Standards for realist reviews¹

RAMESES* publication standards: realist syntheses				
* Realist And MEta-narrative Evidence Syntheses: Evolving Standards				
No.	Section / Topic	Checklist item	Reported	
			Yes	N/A
Title				
1.		In the title, identify the document as a realist synthesis or review.	X	
Abstract				
2.		While acknowledging publication requirements and house style, abstracts should ideally contain brief details of: the study's background, review question or objectives; search strategy; methods of selection, appraisal, analysis and synthesis of sources; main results; and implications for practice	X	
Introduction				
3.	Rationale for review	Explain why the review is needed and what it is likely to contribute to existing understanding of the topic area.	X	
4.	Objectives and focus of review	State the objective(s) of the review and/or the review question(s). Define and provide a rationale for the focus of the review.	X	
Methods				
5.	Changes in the review process	Any changes made to the review process that was initially planned should be briefly described and justified.		X
6.	Rationale for using realist synthesis	Explain why realist synthesis was considered the most appropriate method to use.	X	
7.	Scoping the literature	Describe and justify the initial process of exploratory scoping of the literature.	X	
8.	Searching processes	While considering specific requirements of the journal or other publication outlet, state and provide a rationale for how the iterative searching was done. Provide details on all the sources accessed for information in the review. Where searching in electronic databases has taken place, the details should include, for example, name of database, search terms, dates of coverage and date last searched. If individuals familiar with the relevant literature and/or topic area were contacted, indicate how they were identified and selected.	X	
9.	Selection and appraisal of documents	Explain how judgements were made about including and excluding data from documents, and justify these.	X	
10.	Data extraction	Describe and explain which data or information were extracted from the included documents and justify this	X	

		selection.		
11.	Analysis and synthesis processes	Describe the analysis and synthesis processes in detail. This section should include information on the constructs analysed and describe the analytic process.	X	
Results				
12.	Document flow diagram	Provide details on the number of documents assessed for eligibility and included in the review with reasons for exclusion at each stage as well as an indication of their source of origin (for example, from searching databases, reference lists and so on). You may consider using the example templates (which are likely to need modification to suit the data) that are provided.		X
13.	Document characteristics	Provide information on the characteristics of the documents included in the review.		X
14.	Main findings	Present the key findings with a specific focus on theory building and testing.		X
Discussion				
15.	Summary of findings	Summarise the main findings, taking into account the review's objective(s), research question(s), focus and intended audience(s).		X
16.	Strengths, limitations and future research directions	Discuss both the strengths of the review and its limitations. These should include (but need not be restricted to) (a) consideration of all the steps in the review process and (b) comment on the overall strength of evidence supporting the explanatory insights which emerged. The limitations identified may point to areas where further work is needed.		X
17.	Comparison with existing literature	Where applicable, compare and contrast the review's findings with the existing literature (for example, other reviews) on the same topic.		X
18.	Conclusion and recommendations	List the main implications of the findings and place these in the context of other relevant literature. If appropriate, offer recommendations for policy and practice.		X
19.	Funding	Provide details of funding source (if any) for the review, the role played by the funder (if any) and any conflicts of interests of the reviewers.	X	

¹Wong, G., Greenhalgh, T., Westhorp, G., et al. RAMESES publication standards: realist syntheses. *BMC Medicine* 2013;11(1):21.

Table S2. Initial search strategy

Databases	
	Medline
	SCOPUS
	CINAHL
	EMBASE
	Education Resource Information Centre
	PsycINFO
	Web of Science
Keywords	
Technology/Intervention	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • augmented reality • virtual reality
Population/sample	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • health* healthcare; health; health worker; health staff; health provider • care* care; carer; caregiving; caregiver; caring • nurs* nurse, nursing, nurses • doctor • surgeon
Focus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • training • upskilling • skill • education • evaluation • implementation • feasibility • effectiveness
Example with Boolean operators	
	(TITLE-ABS-KEY (augmented AND reality OR virtual AND reality) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (health* OR care* OR nurs* OR doctor OR surgeon) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (training OR upskilling OR skill OR education) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (evaluation OR implementation OR feasibility OR effectiveness))

Table S1. Completed checklist of the RAMESES Publication Standards for realist reviews¹

RAMESES* publication standards: realist syntheses				
* Realist And Meta-narrative Evidence Syntheses: Evolving Standards				
No.	Section / Topic	Checklist item	Reported	
			Yes	N/A
Title				
1.		In the title, identify the document as a realist synthesis or review.	X	
Abstract				
2.		While acknowledging publication requirements and house style, abstracts should ideally contain brief details of: the study's background, review question or objectives; search strategy; methods of selection, appraisal, analysis and synthesis of sources; main results; and implications for practice	X	
Introduction				
3.	Rationale for review	Explain why the review is needed and what it is likely to contribute to existing understanding of the topic area.	X	
4.	Objectives and focus of review	State the objective(s) of the review and/or the review question(s). Define and provide a rationale for the focus of the review.	X	
Methods				
5.	Changes in the review process	Any changes made to the review process that was initially planned should be briefly described and justified.		X
6.	Rationale for using realist synthesis	Explain why realist synthesis was considered the most appropriate method to use.	X	
7.	Scoping the literature	Describe and justify the initial process of exploratory scoping of the literature.	X	
8.	Searching processes	While considering specific requirements of the journal or other publication outlet, state and provide a rationale for how the iterative searching was done. Provide details on all the sources accessed for information in the review. Where searching in electronic databases has taken place, the details should include, for example, name of database, search terms, dates of coverage and date last searched. If individuals familiar with the relevant literature and/or topic area were contacted, indicate how they were identified and selected.	X	
9.	Selection and appraisal of documents	Explain how judgements were made about including and excluding data from documents, and justify these.	X	
10.	Data extraction	Describe and explain which data or information were extracted from the included documents and justify this selection.	X	

11.	Analysis and synthesis processes	Describe the analysis and synthesis processes in detail. This section should include information on the constructs analysed and describe the analytic process.	X	
Results				
12.	Document flow diagram	Provide details on the number of documents assessed for eligibility and included in the review with reasons for exclusion at each stage as well as an indication of their source of origin (for example, from searching databases, reference lists and so on). You may consider using the example templates (which are likely to need modification to suit the data) that are provided.		X
13.	Document characteristics	Provide information on the characteristics of the documents included in the review.		X
14.	Main findings	Present the key findings with a specific focus on theory building and testing.		X
Discussion				
15.	Summary of findings	Summarise the main findings, taking into account the review's objective(s), research question(s), focus and intended audience(s).		X
16.	Strengths, limitations and future research directions	Discuss both the strengths of the review and its limitations. These should include (but need not be restricted to) (a) consideration of all the steps in the review process and (b) comment on the overall strength of evidence supporting the explanatory insights which emerged. The limitations identified may point to areas where further work is needed.		X
17.	Comparison with existing literature	Where applicable, compare and contrast the review's findings with the existing literature (for example, other reviews) on the same topic.		X
18.	Conclusion and recommendations	List the main implications of the findings and place these in the context of other relevant literature. If appropriate, offer recommendations for policy and practice.		X
19.	Funding	Provide details of funding source (if any) for the review, the role played by the funder (if any) and any conflicts of interests of the reviewers.	X	

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