

# Offering male endoscopists as decoy option to nudge disinclined women to have colorectal cancer screening

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## Abstract

**Background.** Previous studies have shown that a large proportion of women invited for bowel cancer screening prefer endoscopists of the same gender. We tested whether women who are initially disinclined to undergo flexible sigmoidoscopy screening would be more willing to have the test with a female practitioner if they were also offered a decoy appointment with a male practitioner.

**Methods.** We conducted two online experiments with women aged 35-54, living in England, who did not intend to undergo flexible sigmoidoscopy screening. In both experiments, women were randomised to two conditions: (1) *control* (appointment with a female endoscopist) and (2) *decoy*

(two appointments to choose from, one with a male endoscopist and one with a female endoscopist).

Experiment 1 (N=302) verified the conditions for the decoy using a conventional intention scale, while experiment 2 (N=300) tested how the presence of the decoy influences the likelihood of women choosing the appointment with the female practitioner in a discrete choice task.

**Results.** While experiment 1 showed that the presence of the decoy increased intentions to attend the appointment with the female practitioner ( $p=0.02$ ), experiment 2 confirmed that women were more likely to choose the appointment with the female endoscopist if they were also offered the decoy ( $p<0.001$ ). In both experiments, the presence of the decoy decreased perceived difficulty of the screening decision and cognitive effort required to make the decision.

**Conclusion.** Offering disinclined women a male practitioner increased intention to have the test with an endoscopist of the same gender. This suggests that male screening practitioners can be used as decoy options to increase the likelihood that women choose female practitioners and facilitate the screening decision.

## 1 **Background**

2 It is well established that women have a strong preference for female healthcare professionals across a  
3 wide range of health settings, including: primary care, gynaecology and gastroenterology (Fennema et  
4 al., 1990; Garcia et al., 2003; Graddy 1990; Kerseen et al. 1997; Meenes et al., 2005; Plunkett et al.,  
5 2002). In the context of gastroenterology, specifically, several studies have shown that, not only do a  
6 significant proportion of women have a preference for a female endoscopist, but that many would be  
7 willing to wait longer for an appointment in order to receive their preference, and some would even be  
8 more willing to undergo endoscopy if they were guaranteed their preferred practitioner gender (Fidler,  
9 et al. 2000; Menees et al. 2005; Stockwell et al. 2002; Varadarajulu et al. 2002; Farraye et al. 2004;  
10 Stoffel et al., 2018).

11 To date, there is very little experimental evidence demonstrating that the offer of a same sex  
12 practitioner improves attendance at gastroenterology appointments. In a recent randomised online  
13 experimental survey, Stoffel and colleagues (2018) demonstrated that the offer of a same-sex  
14 practitioner was effective at improving intention among disinclined women approaching the eligible  
15 age for flexible sigmoidoscopy screening (commonly referred to as ‘bowel scope screening’ in  
16 England; Stoffel et al., 2018), although the effect was relatively small (improving intentions in only  
17 17% of women). Furthermore, they did not find that offering women the possibility to choose the  
18 endoscopist’s gender increased screening intentions over and above allocating women a female  
19 practitioner by default. They argued that this was caused by the strong preference for female  
20 endoscopists in their sample.

21 Behavioural economics, which analyses individual decision making by combining insights from  
22 economics and psychology, suggests that individual’s preferences can be influenced by the presence  
23 of alternatives (Kahneman, 2011). Specifically, by offering an additional, less attractive, alternative  
24 (i.e. the ‘decoy effect’; Huber et al., 1982). The fundamental idea underlying the decoy effect (the  
25 ‘asymmetric-dominance’ effect or ‘attraction’ effect) is that, given that human value judgments are  
26 relative and contextual (Vlaev et al., 2011), the additional, less attractive, alternative increases the  
27 perceived attractiveness of the target, thus increasing its likelihood of it being chosen.

28 According to Thaler and Sustein, the decoy effect is a nudge technique that is aimed at influencing  
29 behaviour in a predictable way without forbidding any options or significantly changing their  
30 economic incentives (Thaler & Sunstein, 2008). The effectiveness of the decoy effect has been  
31 consistently shown in the context of product selection (Huber et al., 1982; Doyle et al., 1999; Sellers-  
32 Rubio & Nicolau-Gonzalbez, 2015), gambling (Herne, 1999; Huber et al., 1982), employee selection  
33 (Tversky et al., 1988; Highhouse, 1996) and political elections (Herne, 1997; Pan et al., 1995).

34 To date, only a few studies have tested the decoy effect in the context of medical decision making,  
35 mainly because of ethical reasons (Rubaltelli et al., 2008; Schwartz & Chapman, 1999; Stoffel et al.,  
36 2019; Zenko et al., 2016). As the principle of employing the decoy effect is to guide people towards a  
37 target behaviour, researchers must be careful that the target is desirable for both society and the  
38 individual. Medical treatments often bear benefits and potential harms which can be distressing for the  
39 individual. We are only aware of one study exploring whether the decoy effect could be applied to  
40 increase interest in CRC screening (Stoffel et al., 2019). The study showed that offering participants  
41 an inferior alternative screening appointment at a screening centre that was further away and/or  
42 required longer waiting times than the standard screening centre increased screening intentions for the  
43 standard appointment.

44 To test the hypothesis that male practitioners could be used as decoy alternatives, we performed two  
45 online experiments. Study 1 examined intention to undergo flexible sigmoidoscopy screening when  
46 offered an appointment with a female endoscopist or a choice of appointments with a male or female  
47 endoscopist. Study 2 investigated whether the alternative appointment offer of a male practitioner  
48 increased the likelihood of the female appointment being chosen in a discrete choice task. The aim of  
49 the first online experiment was to verify the conditions for the decoy (i.e. to confirm that disinclined  
50 women state lower intention to undergo flexible sigmoidoscopy with a male than a female  
51 practitioner), while the aim of the second experiment was to test whether the decoy increased the  
52 likelihood of the target being chosen.

53 The study protocol received ethics approval from the university's research ethics committee (approval  
54 number 13439/005).

## 55 **Experiment 1 – Examining intention as outcome**

56 Experiment 1 aimed to investigate whether the offer of a screening appointment with a male  
57 practitioner would serve as a decoy option. Specifically, experiment 1 examined: 1) whether women  
58 would state lower intention to attend the ‘decoy’ than the ‘target’ and; 2) whether women would be  
59 more likely to intend to attend the ‘target’ in the presence of the ‘decoy’.

### 60 ***Methods***

61 Like Stoffel and colleagues (2018), we recruited women aged 35-54 (living in England), without a  
62 prior bowel cancer diagnosis or removal of part of the bowel (N=1,216), from an online survey  
63 panel (Norstat; see S1 Figure in supplementary files). Participants received a small financial incentive  
64 from the survey vendor, which was defined by the length of the questionnaire, for completing the  
65 survey (around £0.50). Furthermore, we followed their approach to present eligible participants with a  
66 short description of flexible sigmoidoscopy, which is offered in England at no cost to men and women  
67 aged 55, and then asked them to correctly identify where the scope is inserted (to ensure they had read  
68 and understood the description of the screening test). Participants were not able to continue with the  
69 survey unless they could correctly answer the comprehension question (Stoffel et al., 2018; von  
70 Wagner et al., 2019). Participants were then asked to indicate their intention to undergo flexible  
71 sigmoidoscopy screening using the question: ‘Would you take up the offer if you were invited to have  
72 the bowel scope screening test?’ with responses on a fully labelled four-point scale (‘definitely not’,  
73 ‘probably not’, ‘yes, probably’ and ‘yes, definitely’). Only 309 women (27.7%) indicated that they  
74 would ‘definitely not’ (N=56) or ‘probably not’ (N=219) do the test and were therefore considered  
75 ‘disinclined’ and randomised to one of the two experimental conditions with equal probability. We  
76 chose to test the decoy among disinclined people to minimise ceiling and social desirability effects  
77 often associated with self-reported intention measures (Michie & Abraham, 2004) and to simulate a  
78 targeted intervention aimed at non-attenders who are in most need of an effective behavioural  
79 intervention (Stoffel et al., 2018; Stoffel et al., 2019; von Wagner et al., 2019).

80 Participants in both conditions were asked to imagine that they had received one, or, in the case of the  
81 decoy condition, two appointments for flexible sigmoidoscopy. In the control condition, the

82 appointment offered was always with a female practitioner ('target'). In the intervention condition,  
83 one of the two appointments offered was with a female practitioner ('target'), while the other was  
84 with a male practitioner ('decoy').<sup>1</sup> To adjust for any confounding resulting from the time and the day  
85 of the appointment offered, participants were offered one (control) or two (intervention) of six  
86 possible appointment times / days using pseudorandom selection (the randomisation was designed to  
87 prevent the same time and day from being offered for both the male and female appointments  
88 presented to intervention participants).

### 89 ***Measures***

90 **Intention.** We measured post-exposure intentions to attend the offered screening appointments with  
91 the question 'How likely would you be to attend appointment 1(2)?' using a slider ranging from 0 to  
92 100, where 0 indicates that they would definitely not attend the appointment, and 100 indicates that  
93 they would definitely attend the appointment.

94 **Perceived decision difficulty and decision effort.** In line with previous studies examining the decoy  
95 effect, we asked women in both conditions to state their perceived difficulty to state the intention on a  
96 fully labelled five-point Likert scale ('Not at all', 'Slightly', 'Moderately', 'Very' and 'Extremely') in  
97 response to the question 'How difficult was it for you to state your intention to attend the  
98 appointment(s)?' and to indicate their decision effort on a similar fully labelled five-point Likert scale  
99 ('None', 'Little', 'Some', 'Considerate', and 'Great') for the question 'How much effort did you put  
100 into stating your intention to attend the appointment(s)?' Both difficulty and effort questions were  
101 adapted and simplified from a 12-item subjective measurement of mental load and mental effort  
102 (Krell & Hui, 2017).

103 **Cancer literacy and numeracy skills.** At the end of the survey, responders' numeracy skill was  
104 assessed by the question 'Which of the following numbers represents the biggest risk of getting a  
105 disease?' with answer options '1/10', '1/100', '1/1000' and 'I don't know', adapted from Lipkus and

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<sup>1</sup> Our experimental conditions differed from Stoffel and colleagues' design (2018) in that we offered women specific appointments with day and time.

106 colleagues (2001). Similarly, we measured cancer health literacy through six questions from Dumenci  
107 and colleagues' CHLT-6 questionnaire (2014).

### 108 ***Statistical analysis***

109 Due to the non-normal distribution of the intention answers (see S2 Figure in supplementary files), we  
110 used medians as measures of central tendency. We calculated confidence intervals for intention using  
111 nonparametric bootstraps. We used a Two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann-Whitney) test to  
112 compare intention to attend the decoy appointment with intention to attend the target appointment for  
113 women in the decoy condition and a Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test to compare intention to attend the  
114 target across the two experimental conditions. Furthermore, we used unadjusted and adjusted ordered  
115 logistic regressions to investigate the effect of including the appointment with the male endoscopist  
116 on perceived decision difficulty and decision effort. The distribution of these two outcome variables  
117 are presented in S3 Figure in the supplementary files.

### 118 ***Results***

119 The final sample consisted of 302 women, who were on average 42 years old, were mostly married or  
120 cohabiting (N=187; 61.9%), White-British (N=245; 81.1%), had at least A-levels (N=130; 57.0%),  
121 had paid work (N=187; 61.9%), and stated in the first intention question (N=233; 77.7%) that they  
122 would probably not undergo screening. S1 Table in the supplementary files shows that that there were  
123 no imbalances in sociodemographic characteristics among the two experimental conditions.

124 Table 1 shows that women in the decoy condition stated significantly lower intention to attend the  
125 decoy than the target (Median 10 vs 40,  $p<0.0001$ ). Similarly, women in the decoy condition stated  
126 significantly higher intention to attend the target appointment than those in the control condition  
127 (Median 40 vs 28.5,  $p<0.0181$ ).

128 < Table 1 about here >

129 The ordered logistic regression models presented in Table 2 show that women in the decoy group  
130 perceived the screening decision as less difficult (adjusted Odds Ratio (aOR): 0.60, 95% Confidence

131 Interval (95% CI): 0.43-0.84,  $p < 0.01$ ) and less effortful (aOR 0.48, 95% CI: 0.34-0.66,  $p < 0.01$ ) than  
132 women in the control group (see S3 Figure in the supplementary files).

133 < Table 2 about here >

134 Results of the first experiment confirmed that the additional offer of a screening appointment with a  
135 male practitioner increases intention to attend the appointment with a female practitioner. Thus, the  
136 male appointment offer seemingly acts as a decoy to the standard appointment by making the  
137 screening decision simpler as supported by our analysis investigating cognitive effort. However, our  
138 experiment examined intention and not choice between alternatives. Women in the decoy condition  
139 could indicate the same intention for both appointments. In fact, 34 women (23.0%) indicated that  
140 they would be as likely to attend the appointment with the male practitioner as attend the appointment  
141 with the female practitioner. In experiment 2, we addressed the limitations of asking intention, by  
142 using a choice question to measure the decoy effect.

## 143 **Experiment 2 – Examining choice as outcome**

144 Experiment 2 tested whether a screening appointment with a male practitioner could be used as a  
145 decoy to increase the likelihood that women chose to have flexible sigmoidoscopy with a female  
146 endoscopist in a discrete choice task. Specifically, we asked women to state whether they would  
147 choose to attend one of the offered screening appointments or prefer to not attend either.

### 148 ***Methods***

149 Our recruitment method for experiment 2 followed the first experiment. We recruited 1,130 women  
150 aged 35-54 (living in England), who were without prior bowel cancer diagnosis or removal of part of  
151 their bowel and didn't participate in the first experiment (Norstat; see S4 Figure in supplementary  
152 files). After excluding those who stated that they would undergo the flexible sigmoidoscopy (i.e. those  
153 who were not 'disinclined'), we ended up with a final sample of 300 disinclined women who were  
154 randomly assigned to the control (N=154) or the decoy condition (N=146).

155 The two experimental conditions were the same as in experiment 1. Women in the control condition  
156 were told that they have received an appointment with a screening appointment with an endoscopist of



157 the same gender; women in the decoy condition were offered two different appointments, one with a  
158 practitioner of the same gender and one with an endoscopist of the opposite gender.

### 159 ***Measures***

160 **Choice.** In the control condition, respondents were asked to indicate their choice by responding to the  
161 question ‘What would you choose?’ with possible response options ‘I would attend the appointment’  
162 and ‘I would not attend the appointment’ in the case of the control condition. Conversely, in the decoy  
163 condition, respondents were asked to choose between ‘I would attend appointment 1, ‘I would attend  
164 appointment 2’ and ‘I would not attend either of these appointments’.

165 **Perceived decision difficulty and decision effort.** Similar to experiment 1, we measured perceived  
166 decision difficulty with the question ‘How difficult was it for you to answer whether you would  
167 confirm the (one of the two) appointment(s)?’ Decisional effort was measured with the question ‘How  
168 much effort did you put into deciding whether you would confirm the (one of the two)  
169 appointment(s)?’ Response options to both questions were identical to experiment 1.

170 **Cancer literacy and numeracy skills.** Both cancer literacy and numeracy skills were measured in the  
171 same way as in experiment 1.

### 172 ***Statistical analysis***

173 We used unadjusted and adjusted logistic regressions to investigate the effect of including the  
174 appointment with the male practitioner in the choice set on the frequency of women choosing the  
175 appointment with the female endoscopist. Similar to experiment 1, we use unadjusted and  
176 adjusted ordered logistic regressions for perceived decision difficulty and decision effort. The  
177 distribution of these two outcome variables are presented in Supplementary Figure 5.

### 178 ***Results***

179 Sociodemographic characteristics of the final sample were similar to experiment 1, in that the average  
180 age was 43 years, most were married or cohabiting (N=183; 61.0%), White-British (N=255; 85.0%),  
181 had at least A-levels (N=188; 62.7%), had paid work (N=190; 63.3%), and stated in the first intention  
182 question (N=219; 79.6%) that they would probably not undergo a flexible sigmoidoscopy.

183 Importantly, there were no statistically significant differences in sociodemographic characteristics and  
184 initial intention (see S2 Table in supplementary files).

185 Table 3 shows that, in the unadjusted logistic regression, women were more likely to choose the  
186 appointment with the female practitioner if it was offered together with the appointment with the male  
187 practitioner (49.3% vs 25.3%, OR 2.87, 95% CI: 1.76-4.67,  $p < 0.001$ ).<sup>2</sup> This effect remained  
188 statistically significant after adjusting for covariates, including: initial intention, sociodemographic  
189 variables, own perceived bowel cancer risk, cancer literacy score and numeracy (aOR) 2.62, 95% CI:  
190 1.57 - 4.37,  $p < 0.01$ ).

191 < Table 3 about here >

192 Similar to experiment 1, Table 4 shows that responders in the decoy condition found the choice  
193 scenario less difficult than those in the control condition (aOR 0.63, 95% CI 0.41 - 0.98,  $p < 0.05$ ) and  
194 that they spent less cognitive effort in making the decision (aOR 0.62, 95% CI: 0.41 - 0.95,  $p < 0.05$ ;  
195 see 53 Figure in the supplementary files).

196 < Table 4 about here >

## 197 **Discussion**

198 This study investigated whether one could increase intention to attend flexible sigmoidoscopy  
199 screening intentions, among disinclined women, by offering them additional appointments with male  
200 screening practitioners. Experiment 1 found that including appointments with male screening  
201 practitioners in the choice set increased intention to have the test with a female endoscopist.  
202 Experiment 2 replicated this finding when looking at choice instead of intentions. Here, women were  
203 more likely to choose the appointment with the female endoscopist when it was offered alongside an  
204 alternative appointment with a male practitioner. These results demonstrate that male screening  
205 practitioners can be used as decoy options to increase the likelihood that women choose female  
206 practitioners and facilitate the screening decision. It should be noted that while our results seem to

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<sup>2</sup> Note that in line with Stoffel et al. 2019, we classified the 5 women in the decoy condition (3.4%) who chose appointment with the male endoscopist as not wanting to attend the appointment with the female practitioner.

207 contradict Stoffel and colleagues (2018) findings (they did not find any evidence that offering an  
208 active choice between male and female endoscopists would increase screening intention over and  
209 above allocating women female practitioners by default), we used a slightly different decision setting,  
210 which featured appointment dates and times, as well as different outcome variables (intention from 0  
211 to 100 and discrete choice vs intention on a fully labelled four-point scale).

212 The results provide support that techniques from behavioural economics, such as nudge, can influence  
213 health behaviours (Marteau et al., 2012; Vlaev et al., 2016). Hollands and colleagues (2013) defined  
214 nudges as interventions that alter the properties or placement of objects or stimuli within micro-  
215 environments, with the goal to change behaviour. Nudges typically require minimal conscious  
216 engagement and can in principle influence the behaviour of many people simultaneously as they are  
217 not targeted to specific individuals. This definition focuses on the specific context including physical  
218 and social dimensions of micro-environments (e.g., spaces such as health centres). This definition also  
219 specifically reflects the focus on automatic processes that require minimal conscious engagement but  
220 does not exclude conscious and reflective processes. In contrast to nudge interventions, conventional  
221 public health tools (including cancer screening campaigns), usually include dissemination of  
222 information. An essential feature of those reflective strategies is their appeal to reflective mental  
223 processes to provoke informed choice. Our results reveal that this traditional approach can be  
224 enhanced by insights from behavioural economics.

225 Finally, this study had several limitations. It used hypothetical scenarios and non-representative online  
226 study samples. Furthermore, the experiments lacked behavioural validation, in that they only  
227 measured intentions and choice in a hypothetical setting. Thus, the next step would be to test the  
228 decoy offer of a male practitioner under more ecologically valid conditions with real behaviour in a  
229 randomised controlled trial.

## 230 **Open practices**

231 The materials and data for the experiments are available at OSF:  
232 [https://osf.io/b29vx/?view\\_only=854484ae63ee4613896f3273d0a9f7f3](https://osf.io/b29vx/?view_only=854484ae63ee4613896f3273d0a9f7f3)

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