

1 **Parent clinical-trial priorities for Fragile X syndrome: A best-worst scaling**

2
3 Erin Turbitt^{a,b}, PhD, Celeste D’Amanda^c, ScM, Sarah Hyman^d, MPH, Jayne Dixon Weber^e,
4 BS, John FP Bridges^d, PhD, Holly L Peay^f, PhD, Barbara B Biesecker^g, PhD

5
6 **Affiliations:** ^aNational Human Genome Research Institute, Bethesda, MD; ^b University of
7 Technology Sydney, NSW, Australia; ^c University of Rochester Medical Center, Rochester,
8 NY; ^d Ohio State University College of Medicine, Columbus, OH; ^e National Fragile X
9 Foundation, McLean, VA; ^f Research Triangle Institute, International, Research Triangle
10 Park, NC; ^g Research Triangle Institute, International, Washington, DC

11
12 **Address correspondence to:** Erin Turbitt, Discipline of Genetic Counselling, Graduate
13 School of Health, University of Technology Sydney, Building 7, Level 4, 100 Broadway,
14 Ultimo, NSW 2007, Australia, T. +61 (02) 9514 9223, E. erin.turbitt@uts.edu.au

15
16 **Short title:** Parent clinical trial priorities for Fragile X

17
18 **Abbreviations:** Fragile x syndrome (FXS)

21 ABSTRACT—words 224/250

22 An expansion in the availability of clinical drug trials for genetic neurodevelopmental
23 conditions is underway. Delineating patient priorities is key to the success of drug
24 development and clinical trial design. There is a lack of evidence about parent decision
25 making in the context of clinical drug trials for genetic neurodevelopmental conditions. We
26 assessed parents' priorities when making a decision whether to enroll their child with Fragile
27 X syndrome (FXS) in a clinical drug trial. An online survey included a best-worst scaling
28 method for parents to prioritize motivating and discouraging factors for child enrollment.
29 Parents were recruited through The National Fragile X Foundation and FRAXA. Sequential
30 best-worst with conditional logit analysis was used to determine how parents prioritize
31 motivating and discouraging factors about trial enrollment decisions. Respondents ($N=354$)
32 were largely biological mothers (83%) of an individual with FXS who ranged in age from
33 under 5 to over 21 years. The highest motivating factor was a trial to test a drug targeting the
34 underlying FXS mechanism ($coeff=3.28, p<0.001$), followed by the potential of the drug to
35 help many people ($coeff=3.03, p<0.001$). Respondents rated requirement of blood draws
36 ($coeff=-3.09, p<0.001$), loss of access to the drug post trial ($coeff=-3.01, p<0.001$), and drug
37 side-effects ($coeff=-2.96, p<0.001$) as most discouraging. The priorities defined by parents
38 can be incorporated into evidence-based trial design and execution to enhance the enrollment
39 process.

40 **Keywords:** Fragile X syndrome, best-worst scaling, clinical trials, decisional factors, rare
41 disease, parents, proxy decision making

42 INTRODUCTION

43 Genomics has rapidly advanced understanding of the causes of neurodevelopmental
44 conditions (1). Promising evidence has emerged from studies of conditions with variants in a
45 single gene such as Fragile X syndrome (FXS), informing generation of novel pharmaceutical
46 treatments. Such treatments target the underlying mechanism of the condition, for global
47 symptom reduction, as opposed to current available treatments that target discrete symptoms
48 (e.g. attention, learning, communication) (1). Translation of treatment advances into the
49 clinic requires drug trials to produce safety and efficacy data.

50 Little is known about patient and parent priorities in drug trials for genetic
51 neurodevelopmental conditions such as FXS. There is evidence showing that less than one-
52 third of parents rate currently available treatments as very effective (2). The FDA endorse the
53 advancement of patient-focused drug development (3). This can be achieved through
54 engagement with members of affected families to delineate their priorities for developing
55 new treatments.

56 Significant progress in drug development for genetic neurodevelopmental conditions
57 has occurred in FXS (4). FXS is an X-linked inherited condition caused by a CGG repeat
58 expansion in the *FMR1* gene (5). It is the most common form of inherited intellectual
59 disability and over 50% of males and 20% of females with FXS meet the diagnostic criteria
60 for autism (6). Other common behavioral symptoms – seen most often in affected boys –
61 include anxiety, aggression, attention deficits, and hyperactivity (7).

62 There have been 56 clinical drug trials for FXS (8). The most commonly used
63 outcome measure is the Aberrant Behavior Checklist. Language and learning outcomes have
64 been included in a subset of studies as well (8). There are 13 trials currently (or soon to start)

65 recruiting and more anticipated. As such, parents are increasingly faced with complex trial
66 enrollment decisions for their affected children.

67 Parents and caregivers of individuals with FXS are primarily responsible for decisions
68 to enroll their child in a drug trial. Little is known about how these decisions are made. Prior
69 research in parent decision making for clinical trials has been conducted in the context of life-
70 threatening, progressive, primarily physical conditions such as cancer (9, 10). In the context
71 of pediatric cancers, informed consent can be difficult to achieve as parents are often
72 psychologically distressed, with limited alternative treatment options (11). Such dire
73 circumstances have been shown to leave many parents with high expectations for benefit
74 from clinical trials and high tolerance level for adverse outcomes (11, 12).

75 There is limited evidence about parent decision making in conditions that are not life-
76 threatening or progressive such as FXS. Parents who consider enrolling their child in FXS
77 research are likely managing symptoms with existing interventions (2, 13). Thus, decisions to
78 enroll in a trial for FXS may be made over a longer period of time as compared to trials in
79 other disease contexts where rapid decisions are often needed to circumvent disease
80 progression (14). We sought to quantitatively determine how parents prioritize motivating
81 and discouraging factors when making decisions to enroll a child with FXS into a clinical
82 drug trial. We further sought to determine whether parent priorities differed based on clinical
83 and demographic characteristics. Our evidence can contribute parent priorities in the drug
84 development process and may be used to guide the design and execution of clinical trials for
85 FXS to enhance enrollment (15, 16).

86 METHODS

87 *Best-worst scaling*

88 Object-case best-worst scaling is a quantitative stated-preferences method (17). We used
89 best-worst scaling to determine how parents prioritize motivating and discouraging factors
90 for child enrollment in a FXS drug trial. We selected best-worst scaling case 1 over other
91 stated preference methods as this method is more understandable to the general population
92 and aligned with our research objective to quantify parents' priorities, rather than identify
93 potential trade-offs. The application of best-worst scaling to healthcare research is relatively
94 new, though increasingly being used and validated in a variety of contexts, in particular to
95 study patient priorities in healthcare (18). We used best-worst scaling case 1, also known as
96 the object case. This best-worst scaling task presents respondents with a range of different
97 combinations (sets) of related items (referred to as factors hereafter) and requires a forced
98 choice response. When responding to the best-worst scaling task, factors are presented in a
99 variety of sets and respondents are asked to select the most and least preferred (often
100 described as the "best" and the "worst") factor among each set. An example set is shown in
101 Figure 1. The best-worst scaling technique overcomes measurement problems that arise with
102 standard rating scales such as poor discriminative ability and data skewing (19).

103 *Instrument development*

104 We used a previously-described process to develop and refine the list of motivating and
105 discouraging factors for the best-worst scaling task (20). These factors included a range of
106 trial and drug related benefits, risks, side-effects, and burdens (Table 1). The first step
107 involved identifying general concepts to be later refined as factors. Concepts had been
108 previously explored with 34 parents of children with FXS in qualitative interviews
109 (undertaken by author CD) (21). Inductive content analysis was used with a specific intent to
110 elucidate motivating and discouraging concepts. For this experiment, these concepts were
111 then compared with those in the published literature, in particular, see Tromp *et al.*, 2016
112 (22). Studies from Tromp and colleagues' review are primarily in the context of oncology,

113 diabetes, and respiratory disease, with only two in psychopharmacology (one in ADHD and
114 one in depression and anxiety). We found seven concepts common to both the qualitative
115 findings and the systematic literature review. The interview data identified four additional
116 concepts (Table 1).

117 The next stage in developing the experiment involved progression from general
118 concepts to defined factors to prepare a mock best-worst scaling task. ET drafted statements
119 to describe the general concepts and feedback was sought from the research team.
120 Incorporation of the feedback generated 14 defined factors. Ten clinical or research graduate-
121 level trainees at the National Human Genome Research Institute provided feedback about the
122 face validity of 14 factors, focusing on potential misunderstanding, overlapping or confusing
123 concepts, and literacy level. For example, provision of additional information about the
124 frequency of blood draws, and severity of nausea as a side-effect.

125 Following elimination of redundant or overlapping factors the research team agreed
126 on, the factors were reduced to a final 11 factors. Three eliminated factors were determined
127 too complex and multi-dimensional to include in the best-worst scaling task and were
128 included elsewhere in the questionnaire. These three factors related to trust in trial personnel
129 or child's doctor, attitudes about children in research, and attitudes about using medication
130 for FXS.

131 A best-worst scaling task was generated based on the 11 selected factors and tested
132 through in-depth "think aloud" exercises with five parents of children with FXS whereby the
133 factors and overall task were tested for comprehension, terminology, and cognitive ease (23).
134 Minor edits were made based on parents' feedback to finalize the survey. For example
135 reference to the factors was changed from "motivating and discouraging factors" to "best and
136 worst thing" in the final task.

137 A fixed vignette contextualized the best-worst scaling task (Figure 1). The use of a
138 fixed vignette enabled respondent engagement to understand how we can improve trial
139 experiences for families in the future. It also allowed responses to be drawn from a wider
140 pool of participants as certain factors may not be relevant to all families’ actual experiences.
141 For example, it was necessary for the factor “the trial allows children to stay on their regular
142 medicines” to be evaluated in the context of a child who takes regular medicines. As not all
143 children take regular medication for FXS, a fixed vignette was required. Respondents were
144 asked to indicate the “best thing” and the “worst thing” within a list of motivating and
145 discouraging factors. Development of the scenario and specific details about the factors was
146 based on a content analysis of information about past and current clinical drug trials for FXS
147 available through clinicaltrials.gov. For example, nausea is the most common side-effect for
148 drugs currently tested in FXS clinical trials. Travel to the study site and blood draw
149 frequency were also based on protocols for past and current FXS trials. A balanced
150 incomplete block design was used to develop the sets to ensure that each item was displayed
151 an equal number of times (24). Set order was randomized independently for each participant.

152 The questionnaire also included items assessing demographic characteristics (parent
153 and patient) (see Table 2), disease severity, past clinical trial experiences – “has your child
154 ever been in a clinical drug trial for FXS?” and medication use – “does your child take
155 medication for FXS symptoms?”

156 *Data collection*

157 Respondents were 18 years-of-age or older, parents (or primary caregiver) of one or more
158 person(s) with FXS, who understood English. Recruitment was targeted at parents living in
159 the USA. The questionnaire was administered online using SurveyMonkey and was made
160 available to collect responses from June 1 – September 20, 2018. A study advertising

161 campaign included in-person recruitment at the National Fragile X Syndrome (NFXS)
162 meeting (July 11-15), emails sent to members of the NFXF membership and FRAXA
163 research foundation membership, listings on the NFXF and FRAXA website and social
164 media (Twitter and Facebook). These recruitment avenues were selected as they have
165 previously been shown to be most effective for rare disease groups and are commonly used to
166 advertise clinical drug trials to families. Responses were anonymous. Parents were asked to
167 consider their oldest child with FXS when responding to questions about their child. The
168 study was determined exempt by the Office of Human Subjects Research Protections,
169 National Institutes of Health (#17-NHGRI-00124-1).

170 *Data analysis*

171 Our analysis plan tested: (1) overall prioritization of motivating and discouraging factors; and
172 (2) whether priorities would differ among parents based on clinical or demographic variables
173 (child's age and gender, number of children with FXS in family, severity of child's FXS, and
174 whether or not their own child has previously participated in a drug trial for FXS). Data were
175 analyzed descriptively whereby averages (means) and frequencies of items were calculated.
176 We used a sequential best-worst process to analyze the best-worst scaling data (25, 26). This
177 method assumes respondents chose a factor they determined as best from the list presented to
178 them, followed by a selection of the worst factor. Factors selected as best were coded as one,
179 those selected as worst coded as negative one and those not chosen were coded as zero. A
180 single dichotomous dependent variable described the choice of best and worst for each set.

181 Conditional logit analysis was then used to model this choice set against other factors
182 (27). This analysis generates coefficients for each of the 11 factors which can be interpreted
183 as priority scores. These priority scores can be ordered to produce a ranked list of the 11
184 barriers and facilitators. Finally, we explored differences in ranking based on demographic

185 and clinical characteristics that have been empirically associated with clinical trial decisions
186 (9-11, 28, 29). This included child's age and gender, severity of child's FXS, and whether or
187 not their own child has previously participated in a drug trial for FXS.

188 RESULTS

189 In total, 475 parents accessed the link to the online questionnaire and began responding. We
190 had 354 parents complete the best-worst scaling task in its entirety. Parents were
191 predominantly white, biological mothers, and educated beyond high school (Table 2). Most
192 parents had only one child with FXS, though close to 30% had two or more affected children
193 and answered the best-worst scaling exercise in reference to their oldest affected child. Just
194 over a quarter (28%) indicated their child has been in a clinical drug trial for FXS. Sixty five
195 percent indicated that their child was taking medication to manage symptoms of FXS. Just
196 over half (57.9%) answered that a specialist cared for their child with FXS.

197 *Prioritization of motivating and discouraging factors for clinical trial enrolment*

198 Factor prioritization from the best-worst scaling is shown in Figure 2. Factors with a positive
199 value were selected as best more often than worst, and factors with a negative value were
200 selected as worst more often than best. The most motivating factor was that the drug treats
201 the underlying mechanism of FXS and addresses a wide range of FXS symptoms (Figure 2).
202 Other highly motivating factors were that the drug is likely to help many people with FXS,
203 and that the trial participant is likely to benefit from participating in the trial. Three factors
204 were rated as close to equally discouraging, including the requirement for blood draws as part
205 of the trial, having no access to the study drug after the trial, and drug side effects – that the
206 drug causes nausea leading to reduced food intake.

207 *Stratified Prioritization*

208 We examined whether rankings would differ based on a variety of clinical and demographic
209 characteristics (Table 3). There were no differences in the most motivating factors based on
210 child’s age, gender, disease severity, number of children with FXS, or prior clinical trial
211 experiences.

212 There were differences in rankings of discouraging factors based on clinical and
213 demographic characteristics. The most discouraging factor among parents whose child with
214 FXS was male was loss of access to the drug after the trial finished; whereas the requirement
215 for blood draws was most discouraging amongst parents of affected females. The most
216 discouraging factor for parents of children who are mildly or severely affected was loss of
217 access to the study drug after the trial; however, the trial requiring blood draws was the most
218 discouraging for those with children who are moderately affected. Drug side effects were the
219 most discouraging for those with previous trial experience; whereas the most discouraging
220 factor for those who had not previously enrolled their child in a trial was the trial requiring
221 travel and overnight stays. Parents’ priorities of discouraging factors did not differ based on
222 their child’s age.

223 DISCUSSION

224 We found parents to be most motivated by a trial testing a drug treating the underlying
225 mechanism of FXS. The possibility of the drug helping many with FXS was the second most
226 motivating factor. The requirement of blood draws, loss of access to the drug after the trial,
227 and side effects of the drug – causing nausea leading to reduced food intake – were most
228 often selected as discouraging. These results align with the qualitative study from which the
229 motivating and discouraging factors arose (21). Our study extends this prior work, providing
230 a quantitative assessment of these factors, revealing both order and relative strength of these
231 priorities.

232 We note findings that may be specific to parents of children with genetic
233 neurodevelopmental conditions, distinct from prior research in other contexts. For example,
234 studies of children with physical, life-limiting conditions often cite personal benefit for their
235 child as a principal motivating factor to enroll in a clinical drug trial (11, 30). Parents in our
236 study prioritized the possibility of a novel drug treatment targeting a range of symptoms, and
237 the drug helping many people as the principal motivating factors, and more highly than
238 individual benefit.

239 Parents' motivations, of the possibility of a drug to treat the underlying mechanism of
240 FXS, align with recent progress in novel drug treatments (4). The progress in drug
241 development is largely due to the well characterized genetic cause of FXS. Future studies
242 could compare motivating and discouraging factors for other neurodevelopmental conditions
243 such as idiopathic autism to determine whether our findings are specific to
244 neurodevelopmental conditions caused by a single gene, or if they hold for other
245 neurodevelopmental conditions. Furthermore, parents in our study reported to be motivated
246 by altruistic factors (the drug helping many people) which may be indicative of an active
247 advocacy community that generally supports research advances (31). This is particularly
248 salient in the rare disease community, where advocacy organizations representing affected
249 individuals and their families are often partners in the conduct of clinical research (32).

250 While the most motivating factors did not change based on specific characteristics of
251 the child of the parent completing the survey (i.e., gender, condition severity and prior
252 clinical trial experience), we did note some differences in parents' rankings of discouraging
253 factors. Of note, parents whose child had previously enrolled in a trial reported to be more
254 discouraged by the risk of side-effects compared to parents without prior trial experience.
255 This could suggest some level of naivety about the impact of side effects for those
256 participating in drug trials for the first time.

257 The variation in discouraging factors based on child gender and condition severity
258 that we report could mean that families have unique needs and requirements to overcome
259 different barriers and participate in research, based on their individual circumstances. Those
260 designing and approving clinical trial research should be knowledgeable about such
261 individual variations and may consider drawing on a person-orientated research ethics
262 framework, which has recently been suggested to address the needs of participants with
263 autism (33).

264 Our findings can contribute priorities defined by parents in the drug development
265 process. Specifically, our data provide evidence that parents support development of
266 treatments that target the underlying mechanism. This finding aligns with recent advances in
267 the field in developing treatments for FXS, which are leading the way for drug development in
268 genetic neurodevelopmental conditions. Given that one of most discouraging factors for
269 parents in our sample was loss of drug access post trial, those designing trials may consider
270 how access could be maintained after the trial where that may be appropriate. Alternatively,
271 if access cannot be maintained, it is important to ensure this information is clearly
272 communicated to families considering trial enrollment, to avoid disappointment at the close
273 of the trial. Parents in our study were discouraged by blood draw requirements. Strategies
274 that offer an alternative for collecting biological samples such as collection of saliva or
275 buccal cells could overcome the barrier of blood draw requirements. Novel distraction
276 methods such as virtual reality may be effective at reducing pain scores, fear and anxiety in
277 children undergoing blood draws (34). Future research could investigate the suitability of
278 such methods for children with neurodevelopmental conditions including FXS.

279 Further, the evidence may be used to inform conversations between parents of eligible
280 children and investigators or clinicians recruiting families to these drug trials, enhancing
281 informed choice and the enrollment process. For example, knowledge that many families will

282 be motivated to enroll in a trial testing a drug treating the underlying mechanism of FXS
283 suggests that enrollment discussions about clinical drug trials should explicitly include
284 whether the drug targets the effects of the *FMRI* expansion (that is, the specific gene
285 variation).

286 Parents of children with neurodevelopmental conditions face many difficult decisions
287 throughout the child's life, including decisions about treatment and clinical trial enrollment.
288 Parents may find the decision-making process challenging and isolating, warranting further
289 support for these families (21, 35). Such support could consist of decision tools and
290 interventions which contextualize parents' situations and allow parents to consider whether a
291 trial aligns with their values and priorities (36). Support interventions can improve decision
292 quality which has wide reaching implications including improved psychological outcomes for
293 parents. While decision interventions such as these exist to facilitate decision making in the
294 adult clinical trial context, interventions for surrogate decision makers such as parents are
295 less commonly available (37).

296 *Limitations*

297 The recruitment strategy through advocacy groups was efficient and successful,
298 leading to a large sample size for a rare disease population. However, the strategy may have
299 introduced selection bias. Parents who are more inclined to participate in research may be
300 overrepresented in our sample. These parents may also have more positive attitudes toward
301 clinical drug trials. We lack information about non-responders to test this hypothesis. Future
302 research should investigate how to capture the views of parents who are not engaged in the
303 research enterprise. The sample lacked diversity (e.g., most respondents were white, female
304 and educated beyond high school) and study materials were only available in English which
305 limits the generalizability of findings to the population. Of a total of 475 individuals who

306 accessed the survey link, 121 did not complete the best-worst scaling task. These individuals'
307 responses could not be included in our analysis. Parents with more than one child with FXS
308 provided responses based on their oldest child. Responses may have differed if parents were
309 instructed to consider their child closest in age to the child in the fixed vignette. Further, it is
310 possible that parents were unable to completely discount prior experiences when responding
311 to the fixed vignette. Despite these limitations, our study provides nuanced data on both
312 motivating and discouraging factors in one decision-making scenario, and the fixed vignette
313 minimizes response variation due to personal circumstances.

314 We intentionally chose to use best-worst scaling case 1 due to the cognitive ease for
315 respondents, and the ability to generate robust and reliable data. Alternative stated-preference
316 techniques such as discrete-choice experiments could have been used to identify trade-offs
317 between motivating and discouraging factors. Lastly, while the focus on FXS may produce
318 data that are less generalizable, this context was selected due to the advanced stage of drug
319 development compared to other neurodevelopmental conditions. In fact, close to one third of
320 our sample had a child who had been in a FXS drug trial. Further research should test
321 whether these findings are comparable among other neurodevelopmental condition clinical
322 drug trial contexts.

323 Conclusion

324 We report a prioritized list of motivating and discouraging factors for parents considering
325 enrolling their child with FXS into a clinical drug trial. Patient engagement has been
326 recognized by the FDA as essential in determining treatment developments and clinical trial
327 priorities,(3) and our data adds to such efforts. Our findings further contribute to guiding
328 discussions with families about clinical trial enrollment and development of decisional
329 support tools.

330 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

331 Thank you to the parents and caregivers who provided responses to the survey and those who
332 helped with survey development. We are grateful to Dr Philip Shaw at the National Human
333 Genome Research Institute for recruitment support. Thank you to the National Fragile X
334 Foundation and FRAXA for their help advertising our study.

335 DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

336 The authors declare no competing interests.

337 FUNDING

338 This research study was funded by the National Human Genome Research Institute
339 Intramural Research Program, National Institutes of Health

340 REFERENCES

- 341 1. Tărlungeanu DC, Novarino G. Genomics in neurodevelopmental disorders: an avenue
342 to personalized medicine. *Exp Mol Med.* 2018;50(8):1-7.
- 343 2. Bailey DB, Raspa M, Bishop E, Olmsted M, Mallya UG, Berry-Kravis E. Medication
344 utilization for targeted symptoms in children and adults with fragile X syndrome: US survey.
345 *J Dev Behav Pediatr.* 2012;33(1):62-9.
- 346 3. U.S. Food and Drug Administration. Learn About FDA Patient Engagement 2020
347 [Available from: <https://www.fda.gov/patients/learn-about-fda-patient-engagement>.
- 348 4. Berry-Kravis EM, Lindemann L, Jønch AE, Apostol G, Bear MF, Carpenter RL, et al.
349 Drug development for neurodevelopmental disorders: lessons learned from fragile X
350 syndrome. *Nat Rev Drug Discov.* 2018;17(4):280-99.
- 351 5. Reiss AL, Hall SS. Fragile X syndrome: assessment and treatment implications. *Child*
352 *Adolesc Psychiatr Clin N Am.* 2007;16(3):663-75.

353 6. Hall SS, Lightbody AA, Reiss AL. Compulsive, self-injurious, and autistic behavior
354 in children and adolescents with fragile X syndrome. *American Journal on Mental*
355 *Retardation*. 2008;113(1):44-53.

356 7. Hagerman RJ, Berry-Kravis E, Kaufmann WE, Ono MY, Tartaglia N, Lachiewicz A,
357 et al. Advances in the treatment of fragile X syndrome. *Pediatrics*. 2009;123(1):378-90.

358 8. U.S. National Library of Medicine. *ClinicalTrials.gov* 2020 [Available from:
359 <https://clinicaltrials.gov/>.

360 9. Fisher HR, McKevitt C, Boaz A. Why do parents enrol their children in research: a
361 narrative synthesis. *J Med Ethics*. 2011;37(9):544-51.

362 10. Truong TH, Weeks JC, Cook EF, Joffe S. Altruism among participants in cancer
363 clinical trials. *Clin Trials*. 2011;8(5):616-23.

364 11. de Vries MC, Houtlosser M, Wit JM, Engberts DP, Bresters D, Kaspers GJ, et al.
365 Ethical issues at the interface of clinical care and research practice in pediatric oncology: a
366 narrative review of parents' and physicians' experiences. *BMC Medical Ethics*. 2011;12(1):1-
367 11.

368 12. Mason SA, Allmark PJ, Group ES. Obtaining informed consent to neonatal
369 randomised controlled trials: interviews with parents and clinicians in the Euricon study. *The*
370 *Lancet*. 2000;356(9247):2045-51.

371 13. Becerra TA, Massolo ML, Yau VM, Owen-Smith AA, Lynch FL, Crawford PM, et
372 al. A survey of parents with children on the autism spectrum: Experience with services and
373 treatments. *Perm J*. 2017;21:16-009.

374 14. Paquette E, Shukla A, Davidson J, Rychlik K, Davis M. Burden or Opportunity?
375 Parent Experiences When Approached for Research in a Pediatric Intensive Care Unit.
376 *Journal of Ethics and Human Research*. 2019;41(3):2-12.

- 377 15. Johnson FR, Beusterien K, Özdemir S, Wilson L. Giving patients a meaningful voice
378 in United States regulatory decision making: The role for health preference research. *Patient.*
379 2017;10(4):523-6.
- 380 16. Moultrie RR, Lewis MA, Paquin RS, Lucas A, Jarecki J, Peay HL. An evidence-
381 based, community-engaged approach to develop an interactive deliberation tool for pediatric
382 neuromuscular trials. *J Genet Couns.* 2018;27(2):416-25.
- 383 17. Cheung KL, Wijnen BF, Hollin IL, Janssen EM, Bridges JF, Evers SM, et al. Using
384 Best–Worst Scaling to Investigate Preferences in Health Care. *Pharmacoeconomics.*
385 2016;34(12):1195-209.
- 386 18. Louviere J, Lings I, Islam T, Gudergan S, Flynn T. An introduction to the application
387 of (case 1) best–worst scaling in marketing research. *Int J Res Mark.* 2013;30(3):292-303.
- 388 19. Louviere J, Flynn TN. Using best-worst scaling choice experiments to measure public
389 perceptions and preferences for healthcare reform in Australia. *Patient.* 2010;3(4):275-83.
- 390 20. Bridges JF, Oakes AH, Reinhart CA, Voyard E, O'Donoghue B. Developing and
391 piloting an instrument to prioritize the worries of patients with acute myeloid leukemia.
392 *Patient Prefer Adherence.* 2018;12:647-55.
- 393 21. D'Amanda C, Peay H, Wheeler A, Turbitt E, Biesecker BB. Fragile X Syndrome
394 clinical trials: exploring parental decision making. *J Intellect Disabil Res.* 2019;63(8):926-35.
- 395 22. Tromp K, Zwaan CM, van de Vathorst S. Motivations of children and their parents to
396 participate in drug research: a systematic review. *Eur J Pediatr.* 2016;175(5):599-612.
- 397 23. Ryan M, Watson V, Entwistle V. Rationalising the 'irrational': a think aloud study of
398 discrete choice experiment responses. *Health Econ.* 2009;18(3):321-36.
- 399 24. Louviere JJ, Flynn TN, Marley AAJ. Best-worst scaling: Theory, methods and
400 applications: Cambridge University Press; 2015.

- 401 25. Flynn TN. Valuing citizen and patient preferences in health: recent developments in
402 three types of best–worst scaling. *Expert Review of Pharmacoeconomics & Outcomes*
403 *Research*. 2014;10(3):259-67.
- 404 26. Flynn TN, Louviere JJ, Peters TJ, Coast J. Using discrete choice experiments to
405 understand preferences for quality of life. Variance-scale heterogeneity matters. *Soc Sci Med*.
406 2010;70(12):1957-65.
- 407 27. McFadden D. Conditional logit analysis of qualitative choice behavior. *Frontiers in*
408 *Econometrics*. Academic Press 1973. p. 105-42.
- 409 28. Tait AR, Voepel-Lewis T, Malviya S. Participation of children in clinical research
410 factors that influence a parent's decision to consent. *The Journal of the American Society of*
411 *Anesthesiologists*. 2003;99(4):819-25.
- 412 29. Caldwell PH, Butow PN, Craig JC. Parents' attitudes to children's participation in
413 randomized controlled trials. *The Journal of pediatrics*. 2003;142(5):554-9.
- 414 30. Peay H, Tibben A, Fisher T, Brenna E, Biesecker B. Expectations and experiences of
415 investigators and parents involved in a clinical trial for Duchenne/Becker muscular
416 dystrophy. . *Clin Trials*. 2013;11:77-85.
- 417 31. Richstein J, Cohen J, Hardiman B. Fragile X Research from a parental perspective.
418 *Fragile X Syndrome*: Elsevier; 2017. p. 457-70.
- 419 32. Landy DC, Brinich MA, Colten ME, Horn EJ, Terry SF, Sharp RR. How disease
420 advocacy organizations participate in clinical research: a survey of genetic organizations.
421 *Genet Med*. 2012;14(2):223-8.
- 422 33. Cascio MA, Weiss JA, Racine E. Person-oriented research ethics to address the needs
423 of participants on the autism spectrum. *Ethics and Human Research*. 2020;42(5):2-16.

- 424 34. Özalp Gerçeker G, Ayar D, Özdemir EZ, Bektaş M. Effects of virtual reality on pain,
425 fear and anxiety during blood draw in children aged 5–12 years old: A randomised controlled
426 study. *Journal of clinical nursing*. 2020;29(7-8):1151-61.
- 427 35. Nicholas DB, Zwaigenbaum L, Ing S, MacCulloch R, Roberts W, McKeever P, et al.
428 “Live it to understand it” the experiences of mothers of children with autism spectrum
429 disorder. *Qual Health Res*. 2016;26(7):921-34.
- 430 36. Bombard Y, Hayeems RZ. How digital tools can advance quality and equity in
431 genomic medicine. *Nature Reviews Genetics*. 2020;21(9):505-6.
- 432 37. Gillies K, Cotton SC, Brehaut JC, Politi MC, Skea Z. Decision aids for people
433 considering taking part in clinical trials. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2015(11):doi:
434 10.1002/14651858.CD009736.pub2
435

436 FIGURE TITLES AND LEGENDS

437 Figure 1. Example best-worst scaling choice set.

438 Figure 2. Best-worst scaling estimates and factor prioritization