

Understanding Specialists' Workflow and Decision-Making for Designing Digital Tools

Many decision-support tools aim to support clinical decision-making but clinicians often choose not to use them. One reason is that such tools do not align with the workflows and cognitive processes of clinicians. This challenge is evident in specialties like movement disorders, where diagnostic work is complex, uncertain, and shaped by long-term care. Our research team interviewed movement disorder specialists to understand how they structure diagnostic workflows and reason through complex cases. Our findings show that specialists do not always follow one concrete workflow. Instead, they adapt their activities based on contextual factors—such as diagnostic certainty, resource constraints, administrative needs, and patient/family behavior. Specialists also face a range of challenges—diagnostic, disease-related, logistical, and interpersonal—and draw on their experience to manage them. From these insights, we outline design implications for digital tools that support specialists' diagnostic workflows by improving how information is represented, how clinicians interact with tools during diagnostic work, and how collaboration is supported.

CCS Concepts: • **Human-centered computing** → **Human-computer interaction (HCI)**.

Additional Key Words and Phrases: Movement disorders, Clinical workflow, Contextual factors, Digital technology, Human-centered healthcare

1 INTRODUCTION

Designers and researchers increasingly create digital tools to support clinicians in improving clinical decision-making. Examples include AI-powered tools that predict cancer grades [13], estimate survival rates for artificial heart implants [61], enable early detection of sepsis [68], and assess fine motor performance in individuals with movement disorders [26]. Despite promising application areas in diagnosis, prognosis and risk assessment, many such tools fail to gain traction in real-world clinical settings: clinicians don't use them [65], abandon them [9], or use them incorrectly [13]. A key reason for such low adoption is a lack of understanding of clinicians' workflows and cognitive processes—specifically, how they work and make decisions [13, 52, 61].

HCI researchers have examined clinical workflows in several medical domains [25, 28, 31, 35, 68]. However, the work practices of domains such as movement disorders—where clinicians rely heavily on visual assessment and longitudinal clinical judgment, often without definitive biomarkers—remain underexplored [1, 11]. Moreover, within a single medical domain, clinicians who specialize in specific conditions often have unique workflow patterns and decision-making needs [63]. Without a clear understanding of specialists' practices, digital tools fail to integrate with existing workflows [59, 61, 62] and do not align with specialists' cognitive processes [52, 68].

Movement disorder care highlights the need for digital tools that support specialists as they interpret subtle signs, compare findings across visits, and manage diagnostic uncertainty. Designing such tools requires understanding how specialists work, the challenges they face, and how they make decisions in practice. Without this understanding, novel

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tools can miss clinicians’ needs or even get in the way. Our research presents an interview-based need-finding study to answer the following research questions:

RQ1.1: What are the current workflows for movement disorders specialists?

RQ1.2: What factors shape how workflows are carried out?

RQ2.1: What challenges do movement disorders specialists face in their work?

RQ2.2: How do they tackle some of the challenges?

RQ3.1: What use cases do specialists identify for digital tools to support their work?

RQ3.2: What characteristics do specialists expect such tools to have?

Our study focuses on movement disorders specialists—neurologists with advanced training in diagnosing and treating conditions such as Parkinson’s disease, essential tremor, and dystonia [54]. One concrete challenge in movement disorder care work is diagnosis of particular disorders. Symptoms such as tremor, slowness or stiffness frequently overlap across disorders like Parkinson’s disease, essential tremor, and atypical Parkinsonian syndromes¹—making it difficult to distinguish between them [57]. Unlike medical conditions with concrete confirmatory tests—such as diabetes (blood tests) or breast cancer (imaging tests)—most movement disorders lack definitive diagnostic tests. Imaging tools such as DaTscan or MRI provide supportive information but rarely confirm a diagnosis on their own [11, 44]. Additionally, distinguishing features such as changes in symptom progression, treatment response, or the appearance of additional motor and non-motor signs, often emerge only over time, requiring specialists to compare findings across visits and continually revise their impressions as new signs emerge [4, 57]. Since early and accurate diagnosis shapes treatment decisions, delays or errors can significantly affect patients’ quality of life.

Our research team conducted semi-structured interviews with six movement disorders specialists to explore their real-world workflows, the challenges they face and how technology might better support their work. Movement disorders specialists’ responses provide insights into the workflow and cognitive demands of movement disorders diagnosis, including how to design digital tools for such practice.

Our findings show that specialists do not always follow one concrete workflow. Instead, their approach is flexible and changes depending on the context. Factors such as *diagnostic certainty (or uncertainty)*, *resource constraints*, *administrative needs*, and *patient or family behavior* influence specialists’ decision making. We identified four types of challenges that specialists navigate: 1) *diagnostic*: challenges related to making a clinical diagnosis, 2) *disease-related*: challenges that stem from the nature of movement disorders themselves, 3) *logistical*: challenges caused by healthcare system constraints, and 4) *interpersonal*: challenges that arise from communication gaps, especially when patients have difficulty describing their symptoms.

Specialists saw opportunities for digital tools to support their work by enabling remote assessment and monitoring of motor symptoms, supporting collaboration in complex cases, assisting non-specialists with early evaluation and referral, and supporting communication with patients and families. Our study also identifies the conditions and characteristics that shape whether specialists would be willing to use such tools or would be wary of using them in practice. Based on our findings, we reflect on how digital tools might be designed to support specialists’ work and we highlight concrete tool ideas based on use cases from specialists’ descriptions.

This paper makes two contributions to human-computer interaction and human-centered health research. First, we offer an empirical contribution through an interview study with movement disorders specialists. We document specialists’ workflows, the challenges they face in clinical decision-making, and how they navigate some of these

¹Atypical parkinsonian syndromes are conditions that resemble Parkinson’s disease early on but progress differently, such as multiple system atrophy and progressive supranuclear palsy.

105 challenges. This contribution adds domain-specific insights to the body of human-computer interaction work that
106 examines real-world clinical workflows [13, 51, 59, 63, 64, 68]. Second, we present design implications for future clinical
107 tools grounded in specialists' workflows, challenges, and their ideas for digital tools that can help with clinical work.
108

109 2 RELATED WORK 110

111 Our work draws on clinical literature on movement disorder diagnosis, human-computer interaction research on why
112 digital tools are abandoned in clinical practice, and prior work on digital tools for movement disorders. Together,
113 synthesizing literature from these cross-cutting topics informs how tools are designed for busy healthcare professionals
114 like specialists.
115
116

117 2.1 How do movement disorder specialists structure their diagnostic work? 118

119 Clinical workflows vary across medical specialties. In acute domains such as emergency medicine or the intensive care
120 unit, clinicians must act quickly, triage, and respond to rapidly changing clinical states, such as sudden declines in
121 patient stability [68]. In contrast, in movement disorders which are chronic and progressive conditions, clinicians work
122 on a much longer timescale. These specialists must interpret subtle motor features and weigh overlapping diagnoses
123 over time, often without definitive biomarkers [44]—making diagnosis highly interpretive [11, 30].
124

125 Movement disorders provide a concrete example of a clinical specialty where diagnosis relies heavily on clinician
126 interpretation. Movement disorder diagnosis follows an iterative, hypothesis-driven workflow [1, 58]. By observing how
127 patients move, specialists characterize the visible features—such as speed, rhythm, distribution across the body, and how
128 movements change across tasks—to situate symptoms within broad movement disorder categories [4, 11]. Since many
129 movement symptoms look similar, these judgments rely on clinical experience [4, 57]. Standardized rating scales such as
130 the Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale (UPDRS) for Parkinson's disease depend on clinician interpretation as well
131 [30]. Alongside observation, clinicians gather detailed patient histories to understand symptom onset, progression, and
132 triggers [1, 32]. They also use structured physical examinations to understand how movements respond to distraction,
133 effort, or emotional state—features that help distinguish between overlapping disorders [23, 44]. Since most movement
134 disorders lack definitive biomarkers and often evolve slowly, diagnosis is often not finalized in a single visit [8]; instead,
135 specialists compare findings across visits, selectively order investigations, and revise their working diagnosis as new
136 features emerge over time [30, 57].
137
138
139

140 Clinical literature describes diagnostic processes and often presents them as guidance on how diagnosis should
141 proceed, with an emphasis on formalizing diagnostic criteria and teaching best-practice approaches. Clinical studies
142 typically do not examine how specialists perform or adapt *diagnostic processes* in practice. Prior digital health work has
143 examined neurologists' perspectives on improving Parkinson's disease clinical visits, focusing on communication, visit
144 structure, and care delivery challenges [50]. While such work shows how neurologists manage communication and
145 quality-of-life concerns during visits, it does not examine how movement disorders specialists structure diagnostic
146 work or make clinical decisions.
147
148

149 HCI researchers have extensively examined workflows in domains such as radiology, pathology, sepsis, and emergency
150 medicine, producing valuable insights for designing clinical tools. In movement disorders, substantial work has focused
151 on developing computational methods to detect, classify, or model disease [3, 15, 18]. Far less work has examined
152 movement disorder diagnosis from the clinician's perspective—how specialists interpret symptoms, structure diagnostic
153 work over time, and make decisions. Our study addresses the gap in empirical insights into the workflows and decision-
154 making processes of movement disorders specialists. Additionally, our study shows how contextual factors actively
155
156

157 shape which tasks are prioritized, skipped, or revisited. Such insights offer an understanding of how specialists work in
158 practice and highlight opportunities for designing digital tools that align with, rather than disrupt specialists’ workflows.
159

160 **2.2 Clinicians often ignore digital tools when such tools do not fit how clinicians work and make decisions**

161 Clinicians are expected to make “perfect decisions with imperfect information” [40]. Clinical decision-making is
162 an interpretive, hypothesis-driven process shaped by uncertainty, incomplete data, and evolving evidence [17, 29].
163 Clinicians continually form, revise, and integrate hypotheses while drawing on tacit knowledge and multiple information
164 sources. To support them, digital tools like AI-based decision support tools (DSTs) aim to assist with diagnosis, treatment
165 planning, and prognosis recommendations [15, 62]. While such tools hold promise in clinical decision-making, few
166 are routinely used in clinical practice [9, 12, 27, 61]. One reason is that such tools are often designed without an
167 understanding of specialists’ workflows in the real world and how they make decisions [61].
168

169 Workflows are often flexible, messy, and shaped by interruptions and coordination needs that technology designers
170 tend to overlook [70]. Research efforts focusing on developing complex technology might not prioritize starting with
171 understanding stakeholders’ workflows and needs during the design process [33, 53, 60]. For instance, only 20 of
172 17,000 papers on AI and clinical decision support systems (CDSS) considered clinicians’ needs and experiences [60].
173 Unsurprisingly, clinicians often ignore or override recommendations from digital tools when such tools interfere with
174 clinicians’ established workflows [33, 52].
175

176 HCI researchers have responded with several workflow studies across clinical domains and have shown that digital
177 tools fail when they do not reflect the cognitive processes of clinicians. For example, clinicians frequently dismissed AI-
178 generated sepsis alerts because the system focused on the wrong clinical need—predicting the final decision rather than
179 supporting the reasoning process that led to the decision [68]. As a result, clinicians felt that the system was challenging
180 their role as experts. Similar patterns have emerged in radiology [65, 66], cardiology [63], and pathology [13, 25] where
181 clinicians disengage from tools that disrupt their judgment, appear at the wrong moment, or produce outputs that
182 require additional interpretation work. In one case, specialists preferred tools that organized information—similar to
183 how mid-level clinicians prepare cases—over tools that attempted to make decisions on their behalf [61].
184

185 Additionally, clinicians’ use of digital tools can be shaped by the conditions under which care is delivered. For
186 example, environmental and organizational factors—such as lighting conditions, network reliability, staffing constraints,
187 and added workload for nurses or patients—directly influenced whether and how tools were used [9]. Therefore, whether
188 clinicians adopt or use tools also depends on how such tools interact with the realities of clinical work. Our study
189 contributes to HCI research on clinical workflows by examining the workflows and decision-making processes of one
190 group of clinical experts—movement disorder specialists. Rather than focusing solely on producing the final diagnostic
191 outcome, our work investigates how specialists approach *the process of diagnosis*: how they gather information, respond
192 to different challenges, and make decisions. The findings also identify situations in which specialists find digital tools
193 helpful and conditions that shape whether and how specialists choose to engage with such tools.
194

195 **2.3 Digital tools in movement disorders**

196 Close to the thrust of *Computing in Healthcare*, researchers have explored digital technologies to support clinical
197 assessment and decision making in movement disorders. Such line of research is motivated by the difficulty of observing
198 subtle motor symptoms during brief clinic visits and by the availability of consumer devices that can capture motor
199 behavior outside the clinic.
200

Prior research has developed a wide range of digital tools across platforms including computers, smartphones, wearables, and video, largely with the goal of objectively capturing and quantifying motor symptoms. Everyday computer use can reveal motor impairments associated with ataxia and Parkinsonism [21]. Smartphone and touchscreen-based systems have used drawing tasks [34], gesture interactions [56], passive sensing [22], and mobile games [37] to distinguish people with Parkinson's disease from healthy controls and quantify symptom severity [3]. At-home wearables and measurements collected across multiple sessions have been used to track symptom fluctuations and correlate motor measures with clinical severity [10, 16]. Video-based tools such as VisionMD convert ordinary video into kinematic features—including tremor cycles, gait metrics, and joint angles—with high reliability [2]. AI models trained on neuroimaging, electrophysiology, and sensor data also perform well in identifying or classifying movement disorders [15]. Researchers have additionally developed tools to support self-care [7, 42] and tools for clinical assessment in related domains such as multiple sclerosis [39].

Taken together, prior work demonstrates substantial progress in measuring and modeling motor symptoms using widely available technologies. However, advances in digital technology have not consistently translated into improvements in diagnosis in part because many systems focus on producing measurements, scores, or classifications rather than on supporting how movement disorder specialists use such information during diagnostic work [3, 18]. To improve data interpretability, Lin et al. [36] presented Hevelius Report, a visualization system that aggregates outputs from a web-based mouse task to help clinicians interpret and compare fine-motor measurements. Branco et al. [10] similarly summarized wearable and self-report data to support clinical review and discussion.

Our study complements such efforts by providing empirical insights into movement disorders specialists' diagnostic work in practice, informing how digital tools might better support specialists' work. Our study takes a formative approach to understanding how movement disorder specialists structure diagnostic work and how digital tools might better support specialist decision-making in practice.

3 BACKGROUND: MOVEMENT DISORDERS

Movement disorders are neurological conditions that affect body movements [14]. Some examples include Parkinson's disease, essential tremor, dystonia, and Huntington's disease. These conditions typically get worse over time and require long-term care, including frequent monitoring and changes to treatment plans as the disorder progresses. Movement disorders specialists are neurologists with advanced training who diagnose and manage conditions such as Parkinson's disease, essential tremor, and dystonia [54]. Such conditions are defined by their clinical features—such as the type, speed, and pattern of movements—which clinicians must understand or describe in detail to guide diagnosis. Most movement disorders are diagnosed clinically with careful observation and description of abnormal movements rather than with laboratory tests or imaging [20]. However, the diagnosis process is far from straightforward. The clinical presentation of movement disorders is often “complex, variable, and sometimes even bizarre” [1], making accurate diagnosis difficult even for experienced specialists [1].

Many movement disorders lack definitive biomarkers², requiring clinicians to rely on subjective interpretation of subtle motor signs and patient history. Overlapping symptoms further complicate diagnosis: tremor in early Parkinson's disease can resemble tremor in atypical parkinsonian syndromes, and imaging tools such as DaTscan do not reliably distinguish between them [11]. As a result, misdiagnosis is more likely in early or atypical cases [18]. Additionally, symptoms can look very different from one patient to another and can also change from day to day in the same person,

²Biomarkers refer to objective measures that can reliably indicate the presence or progression of a disease (e.g., laboratory tests or imaging). In movement disorders, proposed biomarkers can also be digital, such as measures derived from sensors, video, or smartphone interactions.

making it difficult to assess how the disorder is progressing [18]. Current assessment tools like the Unified Parkinson’s Disease Rating Scale (UPDRS)³ for Parkinson’s disease, are limited in their ability to track symptom variability, and assessments often depend on clinician interpretation [44].

Another challenge in movement disorder care is the scarcity of movement disorder specialists. As a result, clinicians often have limited time with each patient, and they must use each appointment carefully to make the best possible decisions for long-term care. Despite clear evidence that specialized care leads to better outcomes [49], only 9% of people with Parkinson’s disease receive care from a movement disorder specialist [45]. Instead, most patients see general practitioners or general neurologists who provide important frontline care but may lack the necessary knowledge to diagnose movement disorders or make timely referrals. Taken together, the subjective, variable, and longitudinal nature of movement disorder diagnosis, combined with limited access to specialists, introduces challenges for clinical decision-making.

4 METHOD

We conducted semi-structured interviews with six movement disorders specialists to understand how they work, the challenges they face, and how technology might support their clinical decision-making. Several reasons informed our decision to interview movement disorders specialists. First, most patients initially see general practitioners or general neurologists; however, movement disorder specialists are trained to identify and interpret abnormal movements that non-specialists may miss [1, 20]. Second, unlike many health conditions with definitive diagnostic tests, movement disorders lack objective biomarkers, making diagnosis highly dependent on clinical expertise [44]. As a result, movement disorder specialists provide the clinical “gold standard” for diagnosing Parkinson’s disease and related disorders [1, 57]. Diagnostic accuracy is also higher when assessments are made by specialists rather than non-specialists [49]. Since our goal is to understand the workflow and decision-making process for the diagnosis of movement disorders, specialists are the most appropriate population for a formative study. Understanding how experts (like movement disorders specialists) make decisions provides a foundation for designing tools that can eventually assist clinical practice.

Our participants represented a range of clinical backgrounds within the movement disorders specialty. Five participants were based in the United States, and one had worked in both Nigeria and the United Kingdom. These clinicians had between 5 and 20 years of experience. We recruited participants using snowball sampling [24], starting with professional colleagues and contacts and asking them to share our recruitment materials within their networks. The

³The UPDRS is a standardized scale used to assess Parkinson’s disease severity and progression, covering motor symptoms, non-motor symptoms, daily functioning, and treatment-related complications.

Table 1. Overview of interview participants. PD- Parkinson’s disease, ET- Essential tremor, HD- Huntington’s disease, PSP- Progressive supranuclear palsy, MSA- Multiple system atrophy, DLB- Dementia with Lewy bodies, FND- Functional neurological disorders

ID	Common conditions treated	Experience
P1	PD, ET, dystonia, tics and Tourette’s syndrome	8 years
P2	PD, HD, tremors, chorea	7 years
P3	PD, tremors, balance problems, gait difficulty, stiffness, memory	14 years
P4	PD, Parkinsonism, ET, dystonia, chorea, tics	20+ years
P5	PD, PSP, MSA, DLB	12 years
P6	PD, ET, atypical Parkinsonisms, FND	4–5 years

313 study team followed up with individuals who expressed interest and scheduled interviews at their convenience. Table 1
314 provides more details on all participants' demographics.

315 We conducted all interviews over Zoom. Each session was originally planned for one hour and many participants
316 provided rich, in-depth responses that extended beyond this time schedule. As a result, two interviews were split into
317 two sessions to allow participants to complete their responses comfortably. The interviews ranged from 42 to 110
318 minutes, with an average duration of approximately 70 minutes. The study team recorded the Zoom interviews with
319 participants' consent in audio and video formats. The study received approval from the Institutional Review Board
320 (IRB) of the authors' institution.
321

322 The interviews followed a semi-structured format and were grouped into three sections: i) understanding specialists'
323 workflow in diagnosing movement disorders; ii) identifying the challenges they face in clinical practice; iii) exploring
324 how technology could support their work. Within these sections, we asked participants about their experience with
325 patients, decision-making processes, and current assessment methods for motor performance. We also asked them
326 to describe what kinds of technological support could meaningfully assist their day-to-day workflow or diagnostic
327 reasoning. In addition, we asked whether they would use technology to support their assessments, and under what
328 conditions they would use such tools in their practice. Participants were also asked to walk us through a recent
329 (de-identified) patient case to describe their diagnostic process.
330

331 We transcribed the interviews using Otter.ai [43] and manually reviewed each transcript to ensure accuracy. We
332 analyzed the data using an inductive thematic analysis approach [55]. The first author coded the transcripts using
333 atlas.ti [6], exported the codes into Miro [38], and used affinity mapping to group them into broader themes. The first
334 author progressively discussed codes and themes with the second author to synthesize themes to answer the research
335 questions.
336
337
338
339

340 5 RESULTS

341 Our study examines how movement disorders specialists work, the challenges they face in clinical practice, and
342 opportunities for technology to support specialists' work. Hence, our findings are organized around workflows,
343 challenges, and design opportunities. Each discussion subsection maps to our findings for a research question. Sections
344 5.1 and 5.2 address specialists' diagnostic workflows and the factors that shape how these workflows are carried out in
345 practice (RQ1.1–RQ1.2). Section 5.3 examines the challenges specialists face and, where applicable, how they respond
346 to them (RQ2.1–RQ2.2). Section 5.4 focuses on use cases specialists identified for digital tools and the characteristics
347 that shape whether specialists would be willing or wary of using such tools in practice (RQ3.1–RQ3.2).
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350

351 5.1 Specialists' Tasks—observation, gathering patient history, conducting physical examination, and 352 clinical diagnosis

353 In this section, we describe four tasks that structure movement disorders specialists' diagnostic work: observing the
354 patient, gathering patient history, conducting the physical examination, and arriving at a clinical diagnosis. These tasks
355 broadly align with components described in the clinical literature (Section 2.1), but specialists' accounts reveal how
356 such tasks are carried out in real-world practice and the factors that shape their use during clinical interactions. We
357 briefly summarize the tasks below.
358
359
360

361 *5.1.1 Observation to form initial hypotheses.* Observation often starts before the formal examination. From the moment
362 the patient enters the room—or when the specialist approaches the patient—specialists watch carefully for signs in the
363

365 patient’s movements, posture, facial expressions, and behavior. These early observations help form initial hypotheses
 366 of possible diagnoses. Specialists’ observations also guide what questions specialists ask patients and help identify
 367 abnormalities that may point to specific movement disorders. For example, if a patient shows reduced arm swing or
 368 masked facial expression ⁴, the specialist might ask targeted questions about Parkinsonism.
 369

370 *“...when a patient walks in, ... I observe the walking pattern, the arm swing, the way the patient talks, the*
 371 *face, those are the things I will observe, and then I’ll ask my questions.” (P2)*
 372

373 *“Let’s say the patient comes in and says, ‘I came here for evaluation of Parkinson’s disease.’ You say, ‘Why*
 374 *Parkinson’s disease?’ And then, observation of the patient as you interact with the patient, from the moment*
 375 *you walk in the room, how does that patient move and speak and think and respond to questions.” (P4)*
 376

377 5.1.2 *Gathering patient history to narrow possible diagnoses.* Patient history comprises three types of information.
 378

- 379 (1) **Motor symptoms**—such as tremors, balance issues, and stiffness—help specialists narrow down possible
 380 movement disorders.
 381 (2) **Non-motor symptoms**—such as sleep disturbances, mood changes, and hallucinations—provide supporting
 382 cues, especially when motor symptoms overlap across conditions.
 383 (3) **Other contextual information**—such as the chief complaint(s), past medical history, medications, social and
 384 family history—helps specialists understand the patient’s overall health and risk factors.
 385

386 *“I pretty much have my standard list of questions...when I’m doing a history. The general ‘What brings you*
 387 *in?’, ‘What are you most concerned about?’ And then specific to their movement disorders; ‘What symptoms*
 388 *have you noticed?’... then I’ll go through my non-motor questions. ‘Do you have sleep issues?’...then I’ll...*
 389 *[go through] past medical history, medications, allergies, [and] family history.” (P6)*
 390
 391

392 In gathering patient history, specialists request patients—and often caregivers—to speak freely to understand patients’
 393 concerns. Then they follow up with specific questions to rule in or out certain diagnoses.
 394

395 *“...the most important thing is what the patient and their caregiver tell me... even though I don’t do formal*
 396 *tools of assessment, I do get to ask thorough questions and detailed questions to the patient and... assess*
 397 *based on what they are telling me.” (P1)*
 398

399 *“...gathering history from patients, allowing them to speak on what their concerns are...[and] asking*
 400 *questions that I want to know the answers to rule in or out certain disorders.” (P6)*
 401

402 5.1.3 *Conducting physical examination to confirm or refine hypotheses.* Physical examination allows specialists to
 403 identify and characterize abnormal movement patterns to confirm or refine their working diagnosis. Physical exams
 404 typically include two components:
 405

- 406 (1) **General neurological examination** covers functions such as sensation, motor strength, reflexes, coordination,
 407 gait, and tone.
 408 (2) **Focused examination** allows specialists to explore specific features of a patient’s movement—such as tremor
 409 type or slowness—to better understand the phenomenology⁵ of the disorder.
 410

411 *“The neurologic exam includes a full general neurologic exam. And then we do a focused exam on like*
 412 *movement disorders as well as like the symptom or problem that the patient is coming in for.” (P1)*
 413

414 ⁴Masked facial expression refers to reduced facial expressiveness commonly observed in Parkinsonism.

415 ⁵Phenomenology refers to the clinical features that characterize a movement disorder, such as the speed, frequency, rhythm, and pattern of movement.

417 *"We do a focused examination for the patient to either confirm what we are thinking, and then we make*
 418 *our diagnosis and treat the patient."* (P2)

419 *"...through the examination, you want to understand what is the abnormal pattern of movement. So you're*
 420 *going to say to yourself, is this a tremor, or is this something else?... be it dystonia or chorea⁶?"* (P4)

421
 422 Clinicians sometimes use standardized assessment scales—such as the Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale
 423 (UPDRS) for Parkinson's disease—alongside the physical exam. Such tools are often used after the clinician has
 424 established a diagnosis, to quantify disease severity or track disease progression over time.

425 *"...[the scales] are more of a method of tracking disability, medication response, change in symptoms. You*
 426 *can attach those scales to any person and get a number, but that number doesn't mean anything unless it's*
 427 *used in the right clinical context."* (P6)

428
 429 Information from physical exams helps specialists distinguish between similar disorders by revealing motor clinical
 430 features.

431
 432
 433
 434 **5.1.4 Clinical diagnosis by synthesizing findings from previous tasks to diagnose.** Specialists make clinical diagnoses by
 435 synthesizing information gathered across observation, patient history, and physical examination. Observation provides
 436 early visual cues—such as changes in posture or facial expression—that help form initial impressions and guide the
 437 rest of the assessment. Patient history provides insights into motor and non-motor symptoms, along with contextual
 438 factors like medications and family history, all of which help narrow possible conditions and identify patterns. Physical
 439 examination allows specialists to check for movement abnormalities and confirm or adjust their thinking.

440
 441 At the end of the diagnostic workflow, diagnosis relies heavily on the specialist's judgment—how the clinician weighs
 442 different pieces of information, interprets symptom patterns, and reasons about likely explanations.

443
 444 *"We diagnose many of the diseases...based on what we see the patient doing in clinic...the patient has tremor,*
 445 *bradykinesia, rigidity. We say this is a form of Parkinsonism... and of all the possible types...we think this*
 446 *patient is more likely to have Parkinson's disease, as opposed to another disorder in that family."* (P4)

447 *"The key phrase is pattern recognition...[We] put symptoms and exam findings together into a syndrome."*
 448 (P5)

449
 450 Specialists described using clinical judgment alongside formal diagnostic criteria, when available or feasible to apply,
 451 and comparing observed symptoms with those criteria to assess diagnostic fit.

452
 453 *"Most of our movement disorders diagnoses are based on criteria...for Parkinson's, the movement disorder*
 454 *society has a criteria that says, if someone meets this checklist, then they have Parkinson's disease."* (P1)

455 *"You use existing criteria, clinical diagnostic criteria, when possible, and that gets you to...a diagnosis."* (P5)

456
 457 *"...for the UK PDS Brain Bank criteria... [the] patient must have bradykinesia...and then any other one of*
 458 *either rigidity, tremor or postural instability. So we already make our diagnosis based on those criteria,"* (P2)

459
 460 *"To make a diagnosis of Parkinson's, you have four motor features that a patient can present with...tremor,*
 461 *slowness, stiffness, postural instability. You need three of those four to make a clinical diagnosis..."*(P3)

462
 463 Together, these four tasks—observation, gathering patient history, conducting physical examination, and clinical
 464 diagnosis—represent main tasks of the specialist's workflow as seen in Table 2.

465
 466 ⁶Dystonia and chorea are types of movement disorders. Dystonia involves sustained or repetitive muscle contractions that cause twisting movements or
 467 abnormal postures. Chorea involves brief, irregular, dance-like movements that can affect different parts of the body.

Table 2. Summary of clinical tasks, the types of information clinicians gather, and how they use that information to support diagnosis and decision-making.

Main Tasks		
Task	Information Gathered	How Clinicians use this Information
Observation	Patient’s movement, posture, arm swing, facial expression, spontaneous behaviors	Forming hypotheses, identifying abnormalities, planning follow-up questions
Patient History	Patient’s complaints, motor symptoms, non-motor symptoms, medical/family/social history	Narrowing diagnoses, identifying comorbidities, focusing the physical exam
Physical Exam	Movement patterns, rigidity, reflexes, balance	Confirming or refining diagnosis, determining movement phenomenology, assessing severity
Clinical Diagnosis	Synthesized data from prior steps; diagnostic criteria when applicable	Assigning diagnosis, planning further steps or treatment
Supporting Tasks		
Assessment Scales	Symptom severity (<i>e.g.</i> , UPDRS scores)	Tracking disease progression, documenting disability for research, surgery, or insurance
Diagnostic Testing	Imaging (<i>e.g.</i> , DaTscan), genetic, or physiological tests	Clarifying uncertain cases, supporting or revising diagnosis, helping patients understand diagnosis
Consult with Colleagues	Case summaries, video recordings, test results	Getting opinions, validating reasoning, managing diagnostic uncertainty

5.2 Contextual factors that shape how workflow tasks are carried out

Although observation, patient history, physical examination, and clinical diagnosis are central to clinical workflows, these tasks are **not always performed in a fixed order or to the same depth**. Instead, specialists adjust the order of tasks based on contextual factors, which include: (1) diagnostic certainty or uncertainty, (2) resource constraints, (3) administrative needs, (4) patient or family behavior. These factors shape how clinicians perform core tasks, and help explain why they sometimes skip certain tasks marked as supporting in Table 2. We share how these factors influence how clinicians prioritize, sequence, adjust, and carry out their tasks.

5.2.1 Diagnostic certainty (or uncertainty). Specialists adjust their workflow based on how certain (or uncertain) they are about their initial suspicion of a patient’s diagnosis. When they feel confident early on—typically due to a clear presentation of a familiar disorder—they may skip or shorten tasks they judge unnecessary. For example, in a case that resembles Parkinson’s disease, a specialist may choose not to perform certain parts of the neurological exam because the findings are unlikely to alter their diagnosis.

521 *“...there is a suspicion for Parkinson’s disease. I may or may not spend much time on the sensory exam or*
 522 *deep tendon reflexes... because I don’t need that information.” (P4)*
 523

524 However, when specialists feel uncertain—especially in cases involving overlapping or unusual symptoms—they
 525 often prioritize tasks that yield more information. In such cases, specialists may focus more on gathering a detailed
 526 patient history or engaging the patient’s family to better understand the context of the symptoms, while placing less
 527 emphasis on the physical examination at that stage. Such context includes when symptoms first appeared, how they
 528 have changed over time, how they affect daily activities, and observations from family members who have seen the
 529 symptoms outside the clinic.
 530

531 *“...most of the effort was based not on seeing the movements and analyzing the movement pattern, but... on*
 532 *talking to the patient and talking to his relatives . . . asking them a series of questions about the context of*
 533 *these movements.” (P4)*
 534

535 Comorbidities can also decrease diagnostic certainty. Conditions like hypertension, diabetes, or a history of stroke
 536 prompt clinicians to order additional tests (e.g., MRI) to explore alternate causes or confirm a suspected diagnosis.
 537

538 *“For a patient who is hypertensive, diabetic or has had a stroke... I might like to do a brain MRI because it*
 539 *could be vascular Parkinson’s⁷.” (P2)*
 540

541 In essence, specialists dynamically prioritize, add/remove, and carry out tasks based on the level of diagnostic
 542 certainty. When specialists are less certain, they adopt a more investigative approach—rearranging the workflow,
 543 delving deeper into the patient’s history, and using ancillary tests.
 544

545 **5.2.2 Resource constraints.** Specialists adjust their workflow based on available resources—such as time, diagnostic
 546 tools, and personnel. When time is limited, specialists may limit the depth of tasks—for example, skipping standardized
 547 assessment scales during physical examination if those results will not impact immediate decisions.
 548

549 *“Most often, I’m very limited by time in clinic and I don’t have time to add these scales... because I already*
 550 *do an exam and gather the information that I need.” (P1)*
 551

552 *“...there are inevitably visits..where you may not do the MDS UPDRS because you didn’t have time.” (P4)*
 553

554 Tool availability also shapes specialists’ choices. If no standardized assessment scale exists for a disorder, specialists
 555 use their own judgment instead.
 556

557 *“There are no standardized scales for those [like chorea or hemiballismus⁸]... you pick it clinically.. and*
 558 *then evaluate for the diagnosis.” (P2)*
 559

560 When medical assistants are available, routine tasks like cognitive testing or vitals can be delegated, allowing
 561 specialists to focus on diagnostic reasoning.
 562

563 *“When the MAs do these things for us, it saves me time... but in other institutions, the physicians might*
 564 *end up having to do these things themselves.” (P1)*
 565

566 In resource-limited settings, experienced specialists also adapt by internalizing tools like the UPDRS and applying
 567 them informally.
 568

569 ⁷Vascular parkinsonism refers to parkinsonian symptoms caused by cerebrovascular disease, such as strokes, rather than by neurodegeneration typical of
 Parkinson’s disease.

570 ⁸Chorea and hemiballismus are movement disorders involving involuntary movements. Chorea involves brief, irregular, dance-like movements that can
 571 affect different parts of the body. Hemiballismus is a more severe form, involving large, flinging movements, usually on one side of the body.
 572

573 *“I don’t necessarily do a formal UPDRS... I just do it naturally. At this point I can do it in my head... I know*
 574 *what I’m looking for.”* (P3)
 575

576 These adjustments—skipping, adjusting, delegating, or streamlining—reflect how clinicians flexibly manage resource
 577 constraints.
 578

579 5.2.3 *Administrative needs.* Specialists described how external demands—such as insurance documentation, research
 580 study protocols, and surgical evaluations—influence how and when they use certain tools in clinical care. An example is
 581 the use of standardized assessment scales like the Unified Parkinson’s Disease Rating Scale (UPDRS). Clinicians often
 582 use such tools *after* they have decided on a diagnosis, primarily to quantify symptom severity or monitor disease
 583 progression.
 584

585 *“I guess the scales themselves don’t necessarily help us diagnose because they are more of a method of*
 586 *tracking disability, medication response, change in symptoms.”* (P6)
 587

588 Specialists noted that they might skip using such tools when the results are unlikely to influence immediate clinical
 589 decisions. However, clinicians rely on such tools when they need to document for specific purposes such as insurance
 590 coverage, research participation, or surgical evaluation.
 591

592 *“But sometimes I need to document these things for insurance reasons, or research study reasons, or patients*
 593 *are undergoing a surgical evaluation, and that’s most often when I utilize these tools.”* (P1)
 594

595 *“I don’t even necessarily do a formal UPDRS...I can do it in my head. I can get a number...if I have to*
 596 *document it for insurance purposes, or surgical clearance purposes, that’s a different story.”* (P3)
 597

598 5.2.4 *Patient and family behavior.* Specialists adapt their workflow based on how patients and their families engage
 599 during the clinical interaction. When patients seem hesitant or uncertain about a diagnosis, clinicians may take extra
 600 steps—such as ordering additional tests or proposing trials to help the patient better understand or accept the diagnosis.
 601

602 *“When I order a DaTscan, it is really to either reassure the patient that my clinical diagnosis is correct,*
 603 *even though I already know it’s correct or if they really are sort of in a gray area between, like a tremor*
 604 *predominant Parkinson’s, or an essential tremor, or drug induced tremor, and Parkinson’s, then it can be*
 605 *helpful in crystallizing the diagnosis.”* (P3)
 606
 607

608 These adjustments also influence the time and depth of tasks. Some patients or family members ask more questions
 609 or need more time to process the information, which can extend certain steps like gathering patient history.
 610

611 *“Some patients ask more questions... you might spend a longer time with them... even when you’re giving*
 612 *them the diagnosis. So yes, patient and family factors do affect our workflow.”* (P1)
 613

614 These contextual factors show that although movement disorders specialists have a common set of clinical tasks,
 615 *how they prioritize, sequence, or carry out those tasks depends on their judgment and the unique circumstances of each*
 616 *patient.*
 617

618 5.3 Challenges faced by specialists and how specialists tackle them

619 We present the challenges described by specialists in their clinical work, particularly around diagnosis. These challenges—
 620 and how specialists respond to some of them—offer insights into their cognitive processes. This section highlights how
 621 specialists think through complex, uncertain, and evolving clinical situations.
 622

625 5.3.1 *Diagnostic challenges.* Diagnostic challenges refer to the difficulties clinicians face when working toward a
626 diagnosis. These include: diagnostic dilemma, subjectivity in assessment, and limitations of diagnostic tools.
627

628 (1) **Diagnostic dilemma:** Specialists described experiencing uncertainty in arriving at a diagnosis in some cases.

629 *"Sometimes you have difficulty making a diagnosis for your patient, sometimes you're not sure what*
630 *exactly the patient has."* (P2)

631
632 Such dilemmas often arise for several reasons, including overlapping symptoms across disorders, subtle or early
633 presentations, age-related changes, cases that do not fit diagnostic criteria, and the limits of existing criteria.
634 Movement disorders often present gradually, and many disorders share similar motor features such as tremor,
635 stiffness, or slowness—making it difficult to determine a clear diagnosis from a single visit.

636
637 *"...the atypical Parkinson's—the Multiple System Atrophy, Progressive Supranuclear Palsy, they look like*
638 *Parkinson's, but they are not idiopathic Parkinson's."* (P2)

639 Early symptoms may also be easily overlooked or attributed to other causes, and key signs may not yet have
640 appeared, leaving multiple possibilities open.

641
642 *"...somebody that has Parkinson's disease... might have MSA or PSP in the beginning, and we're just not*
643 *aware of it, because certain more clarifying clinical symptoms ...haven't declared themselves yet."* (P3)

644
645 Uncertainty increases in older adults, whose age-related changes overlap with early signs of disease.

646 *"If someone has decremting bradykinesia and I'm not seeing a tremor, it's hard for me to tell is this the*
647 *very beginning of Parkinson's...or is this just them getting old?"*(P1)

648 *"But if someone who is 70, 80, or 90 starts developing signs of Parkinsonism, distinguishing what's the*
649 *disease from the effects of normal aging can become more difficult."* (P4)

650
651 Diagnostic uncertainty also arises when patients show symptoms that suggest a disorder but do not yet meet
652 formal diagnostic criteria.

653 *"the other difficulty is when you're seeing something that doesn't quite fit into an accurate box..."*(P6)

654 Finally, diagnostic criteria are limited, as they do not always account for every patient's unique experience or
655 presentation.

656
657 *"the criteria was developed based on most people will have these symptoms, but there's no two Parkinson's*
658 *patients that are the same."* (P1)

659 (2) **Subjectivity in assessment:** Diagnosing movement disorders often relies on the clinician's judgment. Spe-
660 cialists described sources of subjectivity in assessment, including differences in how clinicians interpret subtle
661 signs, variation in how standardized scales are applied, and the limits of what can be observed during a brief
662 exam.
663

664 Specialists interpret subtle motor signs—like tremor amplitude, slowness, or rigidity—based on what they
665 see during short clinic visits. Such interpretations can vary from one clinician to another, which can lead to
666 inconsistent conclusions.

667
668 *"...our inter-rater reliability is not great depending on the disease... Diagnosis A from one movement*
669 *specialist, diagnosis B from a second one, diagnosis C from a third, and I finally, as the last stop, giving*
670 *diagnosis D. That's a very typical situation."* (P5)

671
672 Clinicians often reach different conclusions because the symptoms they assess do not always present clearly.
673 Even clinicians with similar training and years of experience can disagree on whether a symptom should be
674 considered normal, subtly abnormal, or clearly abnormal.
675

677 *“I might see a patient and say, I think there’s a subtle abnormality here. And one of my colleagues with*
 678 *just as much experience will say, Oh no, it’s clearly abnormal. And someone else will say, I think it’s*
 679 *actually normal.”* (P4)
 680

681 Standardized assessment scales like the UPDRS aim to standardize evaluations; however, specialists might still
 682 interpret the scale’s categories differently. Clinicians rely on their own judgment when mapping what they
 683 observe onto the scale’s categories.
 684

685 *“...everything we do is subjective up to a point. You have one movement disorder specialist do the*
 686 *UPDRS...and another movement disorder specialist do the UPDRS...they definitely won’t be exactly the*
 687 *same.”* (P3)
 688

689 One reason for such variation is the heavy reliance on what the clinician sees and estimates. Clinicians judge
 690 features like tremor amplitude during the exam, without tools that precisely measure these features in routine
 691 clinical practice.
 692

693 *“... we’re not using a ruler in clinic to say this is five centimeters... what I see as five centimeters might*
 694 *be...different from what one of my colleagues [sees].”* (P1)
 695

696 Additionally, specialists noted that some movement patterns are difficult to assess through observation alone.
 697 In some cases, movements are subtle, and in others, movements from different conditions can look similar. As a
 698 result, clinicians may recognize the presence of a movement—such as tremor—but still struggle to judge its
 699 characteristics or determine its underlying cause through human vision.
 700

701 *“... most tremors, we’re able to [diagnose] with our naked eye... but some patients are more challenging*
 702 *where... the tremor is difficult to fully assess with the limitations of my human eye.”* (P1)
 703

704 *“Tremor is a very common, very frequent complaint, and you might just say, well, isn’t it easy to see*
 705 *tremor?...but I would say, we think we can recognize tremor, but because tremor of different causes can*
 706 *look remarkably similar, diagnosing the different causes of tremor can be challenging.”*(P4)
 707

- 708 (3) **Limitations of diagnostic tools:** Specialists noted limitations of diagnostic tools including the lack of definitive
 709 tests, reduced usefulness in early stages of disease, limits in accuracy and reliability, and the increased time
 710 and effort required for routine use. Specialists emphasized that no single diagnostic tool can offer a definitive
 711 diagnosis for most movement disorders. Instead, diagnosis relies on clinical judgment, often after the disease
 712 has progressed. Diagnostic tools like DaTscans, synuclein markers, and genetic panels can provide helpful clues,
 713 but such tools do not support early diagnosis.
 714

715 *“By the time that Parkinson’s disease is clinically diagnosed by someone like me in the office, 40 to 60% of*
 716 *dopamine-producing cells at the base of the brain... are already lost.”* (P5)
 717

718 Clinicians also highlighted that diagnostic tools are not always accurate or reliable. In some cases, test results
 719 may point toward a diagnosis that does not hold up over time.
 720

721 *“We have genetic risk factors... but those don’t guarantee someone is going to develop Parkinson’s disease.*
 722 *And even our scans that we use, such as a DaTscan or a synuclein marker, skin biopsy, or CSF, are not*
 723 *100% accurate.”* (P6)
 724

725 *“I’ve had patients that tested positive on the DaTscan. I told them they had Parkinson’s. And over the*
 726 *years, it didn’t make sense that they had Parkinson’s; they just didn’t fit...you repeated the DaTscan again,*
 727 *it comes back negative... these tests aren’t as great as we think they are.”* (P1)
 728

Beyond accuracy, some tests are labor-intensive, time-consuming or invasive for routine care. One specialist
 described a colleague who performed detailed neurophysiological assessments using accelerometers and

729 electrodes. While the data was rich, the process required substantial time and effort, making it feasible only for
730 a small number of selected cases.

731 *“He [the specialist conducting these assessments] would spend at least an hour with the patient...and then*
732 *interpreting the data afterward...also took so much time and effort...it was only the most challenging*
733 *patients we would refer to him that he would agree to take on.” (P1)*

734
735 **How specialists respond to diagnostic challenges:** Specialists navigate diagnostic dilemmas by using ancillary
736 tests, giving the case more time, consulting with colleagues, and drawing on clinical experience. These actions help
737 specialists make and revise decisions when the diagnosis is uncertain.

738
739 Clinicians use ancillary tests—like imaging or genetic tests—to gather additional evidence when symptoms alone
740 do not clearly indicate a diagnosis. Such tools reduce uncertainty and help with a differential diagnosis. For example,
741 specialists may use a DaTscan to help distinguish between Parkinsonism and essential tremor.

742
743 *“But then sometimes people have subtle features...that suggest Parkinson’s, but they don’t meet the full*
744 *checklist for me to actually say, yes, you have Parkinson’s. And I’m not really sure. These are the patients*
745 *where I’m like, Okay, let’s order DaTscan. I have this as an ancillary test that can guide me as to like, are*
746 *these subtle features the very beginning of Parkinson’s disease, or an unusual presentation of Parkinson’s*
747 *disease, or... someone’s just getting old.” (P1)*

748
749 Specialists may delay diagnosis in order to re-evaluate the patient over time. Instead of relying on a single visit,
750 clinicians may see the patient again after several months and observe how symptoms change or whether new signs
751 emerge. Repeating observation allows clinicians to revise or refine the diagnosis as more information becomes available.

752
753 *“there’s nothing that’s 100% ... we put all that information together and make the most likely diagnosis*
754 *based on it...and always re evaluate as you have more information. There are some patients that I’ve revised*
755 *their diagnosis after a period of time, based on new information that I have” (P1)*

756
757 *“I’m seeing the patient now, I may see the patient another couple of months from now, and then another six*
758 *months later... that repetition of observations is very helpful.” (P4)*

759
760 *“there’s so much crossover between those diagnoses...and it’s often the situation where time is really what*
761 *we need to see how this person progresses” (P6)*

762
763 To help resolve difficult cases, clinicians may formally consult with more experienced clinicians, informally ask for
764 opinions, or bring the case to formal grand rounds or team discussions in their movement disorders division.

765
766 *“... sometimes, when we see challenging patients, we record a video... So we have weekly meetings in the*
767 *Movement Disorders Division; one of those weekly meetings, one time a month, we do video rounds. I would*
768 *show my colleagues the video and talk to my colleagues about the patient’s story... and get their thoughts*
769 *and their input.” (P1)*

770
771 *“Sometimes you have difficulty making a diagnosis for your patient, sometimes you’re not sure what exactly*
772 *the patient has. So what I do most times is... I consult colleagues, sometimes I consult senior colleagues...We*
773 *also have meetings regularly... where we have videos of our patients...we will discuss with them” (P2)*

774
775 Finally, many participants noted that years of training, repeated exposure to different cases, and learning to recognize
776 subtle patterns help them navigate ambiguous presentations with greater confidence.

781 *“I think it really is all about that experience of seeing all the different ways that these sorts of diseases can*
 782 *present and the ways that they don’t present as well... and just getting those repetitions of seeing it over*
 783 *and over again to develop those sort of patterns.” (P6)*
 784

785 5.3.2 *Disease-related challenges.* Specialists described challenges that stem from the nature of movement disorders
 786 themselves. Symptoms vary widely across patients, change within the same patient over time, interact with other health
 787 conditions, and often worsen as the disease progresses.
 788

789 A common issue is the **unpredictable nature of symptoms** across patients and within the same individual. Even
 790 when two patients share a diagnosis, their symptoms may present in highly idiosyncratic ways. And for a single patient,
 791 symptom expression can change significantly from one day—or even one moment—to the next.
 792

793 *“...there’s no two Parkinson’s patients that are the same. And some people might not have your classical*
 794 *symptoms and still have Parkinson’s.” (P1)*
 795

796 *“...but they [same patient] have tremendous fluctuations, ups and downs in their symptoms and their*
 797 *examination findings over the course of the day.” (P5)*
 798

799 This variability—between and within patients—makes diagnosis and monitoring difficult. Clinicians can only evaluate
 800 what they see in a brief visit, which may not represent the patient’s full experience. Adding to the complexity, some
 801 patients present with **comorbidities** like hypertension, diabetes, or cardiovascular disease. Such health conditions
 802 can worsen motor symptoms or make it harder to distinguish which symptoms stem from the movement disorder and
 803 which do not.
 804

805 *“...having more medical problems, actually if they’re poorly managed and not well treated, often makes it*
 806 *more difficult to treat the movement disorder.” (P1)*
 807

808 *“Patients with other medical conditions tend to have worsened symptoms. They tend to have worse symptoms*
 809 *than patients without.” (P2)*
 810

811 Finally, specialists pointed out that **most movement disorders are progressive**, with symptoms worsening over
 812 time.
 813

814 *“...so most of the conditions I see worsen, it’s just the unfortunate reality of movement disorders, most of*
 815 *them are neurodegenerative diseases that get worse over time.” (P1)*
 816

817 These challenges are inherent to the disease, and specialists do not necessarily have strategies to tackle them except
 818 through their clinical experience and judgment.
 819

820 5.3.3 *Logistical challenges.* Specialists described logistical challenges that shape how they deliver care—particularly
 821 a shortage of movement disorder specialists, limited time during clinic visits, and long delays between follow-up
 822 appointments. These issues often intersect, leading to care that might feel rushed, fragmented, or delayed.
 823

824 A **shortage of movement disorder specialists** limits access to care at multiple levels. Many patients never see a
 825 specialist at all, while others face long delays before they receive a diagnosis or begin appropriate treatment.
 826

827 *“The vast majority of patients living today will likely never see a movement disorder specialist in their*
 828 *lifetime.” (P5)*
 829

830 This gap increases the risk of misdiagnosis and delays in treatment, particularly when patients first consult general
 831 practitioners or general neurologists who may lack training in recognizing movement disorder presentations.
 832

833 A related challenge is the **limited time available during clinic visits**, driven by the need to see more patients in
834 shorter appointment windows. As a result, clinicians often have to make trade-offs about what to prioritize in each
835 clinic visit. Clinicians may skip rating scales, which used to be routine, and instead focus on more targeted assessments.
836

837 *“These tools, like the MDS-UPDRS... I used to do this for each Parkinson’s patient every time. But because*
838 *of pressures to see more patients with less time, I’m not able to do that anymore the way I did.” (P1)*
839

840 Finally, the combination of staffing shortages and overloaded schedules contributes to **long gaps between follow-up**
841 **visits**, even for patients already under specialist care. Participants reported that appointments are often scheduled six or
842 more months apart, making it difficult to monitor disease progression or respond to new symptoms in a timely manner.
843

844 *“Some might get 6-month or 7-month appointments to see us.” (P2)*

845 *“We’re so busy right now... I barely have the capacity to see my own patients, who often go longer than*
846 *they need to before their next visit.” (P1)*
847

848 These long intervals disrupt continuity of care and reduce specialists’ ability to adjust treatment plans based on
849 more recent observations.
850

851 **5.3.4 Interpersonal challenges.** Another challenge specialists often face involves the interpersonal side of care—especially
852 when relying on patients to explain their symptoms. Getting an accurate history is key to diagnosing and managing
853 movement disorders, but not all patients can clearly communicate their symptoms or remember important details. This
854 is particularly common in patients who have cognitive problems or limited awareness of their condition.
855

856 *“So I think part of the challenges is that so much of it is based on history, and not all of our patients are*
857 *very good historians, or very aware of symptoms... Certainly, we have a patient population that deals with*
858 *cognitive issues, and so getting a reliable history can be difficult.” (P6)*
859

860 **How specialists respond to interpersonal challenges:** To address this challenge, specialists often rely on collateral
861 information from family members or caregivers who are more familiar with the patient’s condition. These individuals
862 can offer helpful details, clear up confusion, and describe symptoms the patient may not notice or be able to explain.
863

864 *“I think it’s very important to have collateral information from caregivers and other people, and I definitely*
865 *encourage caregivers to come to appointments and ask caregivers questions too, because sometimes people*
866 *are not aware of the full deficits that they have, and their caregivers may see things that they might not*
867 *appreciate about what’s going on.” (P1)*
868
869

870 **5.4 Use cases for new digital tools in specialists’ work**

871 We describe concrete situations in which specialists said digital tools could support their work, including remote
872 assessment and monitoring of motor symptoms, collaboration between specialists, support for non-specialists who see
873 patients first, and communication with patients and families (Sections 5.4.1–5.4.4). We then describe the characteristics
874 specialists want from digital tools and the characteristics they are wary of (Sections 5.4.5–5.4.6). These findings describe
875 where tools could fit into specialists’ work and what conditions shape their usefulness.
876
877

878 **5.4.1 Remote assessment and monitoring of motor symptoms.** In remote settings like telehealth visits, specialists are
879 often limited in their ability to observe fine motor symptoms—particularly those that require close observation or
880 hands-on examination. Participants noted that certain aspects of motor assessment such as tremor amplitude, slowness
881 of movement, or muscle tone are harder to evaluate remotely.
882
883

Table 3. Summary of clinical challenges specialists face and the strategies they use to manage diagnostic, disease-related, logistical, and interpersonal challenges

Challenge Type	Specific Challenges	How Specialists Respond
Diagnostic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diagnostic dilemma (due to overlapping or subtle symptoms, criteria not met in early stages) • Subjectivity in assessment • Limitation of diagnostic tools 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use ancillary tests (e.g., DaTscan) • Re-evaluate over time • Consult with colleagues • Rely on clinical experience
Disease-related	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Symptom variability (between and within patients) • Comorbidities • Disease progression 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use judgment to interpret fluctuations and clinical context
Logistical	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited time per visit • Shortage of specialists • Long gaps between appointments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prioritize essential tasks • Skip low-impact assessments
Interpersonal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Patients with cognitive impairments • Incomplete or inaccurate self-reports 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gather collateral information from families or caregivers

“In tele-visits, I’m much more limited by what I can see based on the quality of video that the patient has, how tech-savvy the patient is, how easy it is for them to follow the instructions I give them. But even with the highest quality video, and even if the patient is tech savvy, video doesn’t give me as good of information as... being in person and fully seeing what’s happening. So like, a tremor, I can assess it through video, but it’s probably not going to be the same quality as in person... I can’t assess tone through a video.” (P1)

Specialists expressed interest in digital tools that could help capture information they cannot access remotely. Beyond telehealth, participants also described wanting support for detecting subtle or variable motor changes that may not show up clearly during a brief exam.

“...a tool that monitors people’s movements...with much higher resolution than we can do in clinic, might pick up subtle problems before the clinician can pick them up” (P4)

Another specialist wanted support for tracking symptoms between visits, adjusting medications, and flagging changes that could indicate safety risks.

“After they go home, monitoring them for medication adjustments, symptom tracking, and prediction of concerning events like falls or aspiration pneumonia—these are things we’re really interested in tracking” (P5)

Some also thought that objective movement data could help guide clinical decisions over time.

“You can objectively gauge the prognosis of these symptoms...it will be useful at the first visit and then to compare subsequent visits.” (P2)

One specialist connected these needs to clinical research, noting that current clinical rating scales are limited and that more precise digital assessments could improve both care and clinical trials.

“Digital tracking has a lot of potential to improve on and hopefully replace these imperfect assessments by having more reliable, quantitative, digital assessments of subtle changes.” (P5)

937 5.4.2 *Supporting collaboration between specialists.* Specialists may consult with expert colleagues when they come
938 across complex or uncertain cases. Often, they discuss case details by verbally describing symptoms and clinical
939 observations, like abnormal movement patterns.
940

941 Different specialists may notice different features or weigh the same observations differently, even when reviewing
942 the same patient.

943 *“Different neurologists will weigh information differently and will come to different conclusions. And the*
944 *reality is that, how can you say that someone is right and someone is wrong?” (P4)*
945

946 Specialists described these disagreements as common in movement disorders, where distinctions between conditions
947 can be subtle. In such situations, clinicians noted that team discussion could benefit from having shared information
948 that goes beyond verbal descriptions. As one specialist explained, objective data could add a concrete reference point to
949 collaborative discussions.
950

951 *“...if we have objective data from tools...it could always be information that could be added to the discussion,*
952 *when I say the DaTscan showed this, I say this measure or this tool or assessment also showed that” (P1)*
953
954

955 5.4.3 *Supporting activities of non-specialists.* Specialists pointed out that many patients delay getting a correct diagnosis
956 because they first meet non-specialists—such as general practitioners or general neurologists—who may not have the
957 training to recognize movement disorders. These delays can lead to misdiagnoses, inappropriate treatments, or long
958 wait times before the patient is referred to the right specialist. This problem reflects a larger issue: the shortage of
959 movement disorder specialists.
960

961 One specialist described how these delays happen in practice.

962 *“A patient presents with back pain, slowness... and instead of referring them, they treat lumbar spondylosis*
963 *for two years. But the back pain was actually from rigidity, not a vertebrate problem.”(P2)*
964

965 Because most patients are first seen by non-specialists, several participants suggested that tools could help non-
966 specialists recognize early signs of movement disorders—such as rigidity, bradykinesia, or abnormal movement patterns—
967 before symptoms are misattributed to other conditions. Earlier recognition could help non-specialists decide when a
968 referral to a movement disorder specialist is warranted, reducing delays caused by misdiagnosis or prolonged treatment
969 for unrelated conditions.
970

971 Some participants described simple diagnostic support tools that could allow non-specialists enter observed symptoms
972 and receive disease suggestions to flag cases that require referral to a specialist.
973

974 *“For people that don't have the experience of movement disorders, these tools might be helpful...to get*
975 *information that can aid them in their diagnosis when they don't have that expertise that I do.” (P1)*
976

977 *“If there is an online system where every doctor can type symptoms and it comes out with suggestions...then*
978 *they can easily refer to us.” (P2)*
979

980 Specialists also described tools that could support non-specialists examine movement features more reliably. Video-based
981 pose estimation could provide quick assessments for initial evaluation.
982

983 *“A video-based pose estimation tool could be used outside the movement disorders clinic by general neurolo-*
984 *gists and non-neurologists, since they see the vast majority of patients.” (P5)*
985

986 Specialists who raised these issues emphasized that digital tools could support non-specialists by helping them
987 recognize early movement disorder signs, examine movement features, and identify appropriate referral options.
988

989 5.4.4 *Supporting communication between specialists, patients, and families.* Specialists shared that even when they feel
 990 confident in a diagnosis, patients and families may be unsure, confused, or hesitant to accept it. This often happens
 991 since most movement disorders are diagnosed clinically—based on what experts observe and how they interpret those
 992 observations. In these cases, patients and families tend to look for more concrete data to help them understand and
 993 trust the clinical assessment.
 994

995 *“...but I always think there’s going to need to be some sort of objective confirmation, because people like to*
 996 *see things in black and white.” (P3)*
 997

998
 999 5.4.5 *What makes movement disorder specialists willing to use digital tools.* Specialists were enthusiastic about the
 1000 possibility of new tools that align with their existing workflows, provide clear and useful information, and support clinical
 1001 decision-making without adding burden. In particular, specialists valued tools that produce quick, clear measurements
 1002 that complement their existing assessments. One participant noted that tools could be more useful if they translate
 1003 measurements into forms that align with established clinical rating scales, instead of presenting raw data alone.
 1004

1005 *“But if there was [a tool] that could tell you the amplitude and frequency of the tremor, the amount of*
 1006 *rigidity that a patient is experiencing, and disseminate that into the different components of the UPDRS.*
 1007 *Then that obviously would make it more objective than subjective.” (P3)*
 1008
 1009

1010 Participants also emphasized that any tool must be validated and trusted. Specialists said they are more willing to use
 1011 tools that researchers have tested, shown to be accurate, or endorsed by trusted organizations or colleagues.
 1012

1013 *“If there is a tool that has been formally proven, demonstrated to help you rule in, rule out diagnoses,*
 1014 *absolutely yeah. Why not?” (P4)*
 1015

1016 *“If the International Movement Disorders Society And Parkinson’s Network supports it... I’ll be glad to use*
 1017 *it. It will make my work easier and more objective.” (P2)*
 1018

1019 5.4.6 *What makes movement disorders specialists wary of digital tools.* Specialists described several factors that make
 1020 them wary of adopting digital tools in their work. In particular, they expressed concern about tools that consume time,
 1021 generate large volumes of data with little clinical value, or risk biasing clinical judgment.
 1022

1023 Time was a primary concern. Specialists explained that clinic visits are already tightly scheduled and tools that
 1024 require additional time to set up, interpret, or review would likely not be used.
 1025

1026 *“...tools that consume time, no one is going to use them... If you want a tool to actually be useful and be*
 1027 *used, it has to save time” (P1)*
 1028

1029 *“If someone is comfortable with doing the UPDRS routinely in their head, like they can get through that*
 1030 *quickly. If the tool were to slow that down, then that would not necessarily be helpful” (P3)*
 1031

1032 *“...tremor could be analyzed much greater detail, either with visual or physiological tools, where you*
 1033 *say, I’m going to analyze the exact frequency [and] amplitude of that tremor, using accelerometers, or*
 1034 *electrophysiology; but that takes time. We don’t typically do that. We rely on our vision [and] our senses”*
 1035 *(P4)*
 1036

1037 Some participants were also cautious about tools that generate large amounts of data without clear clinical value. When
 1038 tools produce information that does not directly support decision making, participants see the added data as extra work.
 1039

1041 *"...there's also other tools...that can notice...abnormal movement... And so we get all this information. I*
1042 *just don't know how much value any of that information has. If all of it gets sent to me, I don't find that*
1043 *helpful...otherwise, it's too much data to deal with in a clinical setting."* (P6)
1044

1045 Finally, specialists stressed that tools should be introduced in such a way that it does not bias their clinical judgment.
1046 They preferred to form their own assessments first and then use digital information as a supplement rather than a
1047 replacement.
1048

1049 *"I don't think I want it to bias me...I want to do my own assessment and keep an open mind before we know*
1050 *how accurate it is."* (P1)
1051
1052

1053 **6 DISCUSSION**

1054
1055 Our study examined movement disorders specialists' diagnostic work, highlighting the challenges specialists face, how
1056 they navigate challenges, and opportunities for digital tools to support specialists' work. We found that specialists rely
1057 on a common set of diagnostic tasks—observation, gathering patient history, conducting physical examination, and
1058 forming a clinical diagnosis—but do not follow these tasks in a fixed order. Instead, specialists streamline and adapt
1059 their workflow by choosing which tasks to focus on, shorten, skip, or revisit based on diagnostic certainty, resource
1060 constraints, administrative needs, and patient or family interaction.
1061

1062 Specialists face diagnostic challenges such as symptom overlap and subtle signs that create diagnostic uncertainty,
1063 variation in how clinicians judge movements, and limitations of current diagnostic tests. Disease-related, logistical, and
1064 interpersonal challenges also affect how clinicians carry out their work. Specialists saw value in tools that capture subtle
1065 motor features for remote visits and between-visit monitoring, provide shared visual/quantitative anchors for team
1066 discussion, help non-specialists flag cases for referral, and present clear evidence to patients and families. Specialists
1067 are willing to use tools that align with their workflows and are wary of tools that consume time in already busy clinical
1068 schedules. In the sections that follow, our research team reflect on the findings to discuss what they imply for designing
1069 tools in the movement disorders domain, highlight opportunities for tools to support specialists' work, and provide two
1070 illustrative tool ideas based on our findings. Finally, we acknowledge the limitations of our study and suggest directions
1071 for future work.
1072
1073
1074
1075

1076 **6.1 Designing useful digital tools for specialists needs to assist the adaptive processes they demonstrate**

1077 Specialists do not always follow a fixed workflow: they streamline their workflow—choosing which tasks to focus on,
1078 skip, or revisit—based on diagnostic certainty, resource constraints, administrative needs, and patient or family behavior.
1079 These adaptations reflect how specialists' decision making demonstrates flexibility, allowing them to prioritize more
1080 relevant aspects in each case.
1081
1082

1083 *6.1.1 Specialists streamline their approach when certain and investigate more when uncertain.* In initial steps—when
1084 observing the patient or hearing the chief complaint from patients/caregivers, specialists form an initial working idea
1085 of the concern. When specialists feel certain in the initial impression (for example, when symptoms match a familiar
1086 presentation), they proceed by focusing on a small set of confirmatory steps, such as conducting a focused physical
1087 exam or asking targeted history questions. When certainty is lower—such as in cases with overlapping or atypical
1088 symptoms—specialists slow down, revisit earlier steps, gather more detailed history, or consider alternative explanations
1089 [1, 20, 48]. In some cases, clinicians deliberately delay making a final diagnosis, treating uncertainty as part of sound
1090
1091
1092

1093 clinical judgment rather than as a failure to make a decision. Our findings reflect how diagnostic work unfolds in
1094 practice and align with prior research showing that real-world clinical work rarely follows “textbook workflows” [59].
1095

1096 Our findings suggest that tools that support diagnostic work will benefit from integrating with the adaptive process
1097 taken by specialists. *Provide multiple starting points to interact with a case.* Clinicians should be able to begin with
1098 whichever task is most relevant to the case at hand. For example, specialists in our study sometimes started by reviewing
1099 a key symptom observed as the patient walked into the room, while in other cases they began with an extended patient
1100 or caregiver history before examining movement in detail. *support flexible switching between tasks. Allow flexible*
1101 *switching between tasks.* Clinicians often moved back and forth between tasks rather than completing them once. For
1102 instance, specialists described revisiting observation after gathering history, or returning to history questions after
1103 noticing an unexpected movement during the exam.
1104
1105

1106 *6.1.2 Clinicians’ support needs vary across cases, not only by expertise.* Over time, specialists shift from step-by-step
1107 methods taught in medical school to more strategic, personalized ways of working. They learn to prioritize tasks that
1108 yield more clinical value and skip or adjust those unlikely to change the outcome. Our results echo prior findings:
1109 experienced clinicians emphasize what matters most and discard unnecessary steps when confident in their judgment
1110 [20, 46]. This approach allows specialists to focus on high-value cues—such as a patient’s responses to questions or
1111 subtle facial expressions (e.g., reduced facial movement seen in Parkinson’s disease)—rather than running every test.
1112

1113 At the same time, our findings show that expertise alone does not determine how deeply clinicians engage with
1114 diagnostic tasks or what kinds of support they seek. Specialists in our study described moments of uncertainty despite
1115 their expertise, especially when symptoms were ambiguous or did not align with classic diagnostic patterns. In movement
1116 disorder care, such cases are common, especially in early-stage or atypical presentations [30, 57]. When uncertainty
1117 increased, the same clinicians slowed down, revisited observations, or sought additional information—for example, by
1118 ordering imaging tests or examining quantitative details to confirm or challenge their initial impressions. Such shifts
1119 occurred across cases for the same specialist.
1120

1121 Our findings suggest that tools designed solely around clinician expertise (e.g., novice versus expert) may miss
1122 important variation in how specialists work across cases. Prior HCI work shows that experienced clinicians often prefer
1123 tools that perform brief quality checks on their assessments, while less experienced clinicians seek detailed explanations
1124 as learning aids to help build confidence [65, 66]. Our findings extend this insight by showing that experienced specialists
1125 may want different kinds of support depending on the demands of a specific case. In straightforward cases, tools that
1126 offer lightweight validation—such as brief summaries or quick checks that align with established clinical criteria—may
1127 be sufficient to confirm a working hypothesis without interrupting workflow. In more ambiguous cases, tools may
1128 need to support deeper investigation, for example by surfacing relevant patient history, enabling closer inspection of
1129 movement data, or prompting questions that help clinicians evaluate competing hypotheses.
1130
1131

1132 *6.1.3 When uncertainty persists, specialists extend diagnostic work.* While certain cases may seem routine, diagnostic
1133 work is often shaped by uncertainty. When uncertainty persists, specialists extend their workflow in several ways:
1134 1) *order diagnostic tests* (e.g., DaTscan) to clarify ambiguous findings. 2) *re-evaluate over time*, allowing patterns to
1135 emerge across visits. 3) *consult colleagues*, especially for rare or complex presentations. These strategies are not part of
1136 the core workflow but become essential in managing diagnostic uncertainty. Similar “*wait and see*” approaches and
1137 collaborative practices have been documented in other domains, such as heart failure decisions and AI-based decision
1138 support [61, 63].
1139
1140
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1143

1145 Our findings suggest that tools supporting diagnostic work under persistent uncertainty should align with existing
1146 strategies specialists use. *Make “wait and see” reasoning explicit across visits.* Tools could help clinicians make explicit
1147 *what they are waiting for.* For example, a clinician might indicate that they are monitoring whether tremor amplitude
1148 increases, whether asymmetry emerges, or whether symptoms improve with treatment of a comorbidity. The tool
1149 could then surface these clinician-defined questions at follow-up visits. *Support longitudinal comparison tied to clinical*
1150 *questions.* Tools could help clinicians compare observations across visits in ways that reflect clinicians' diagnostic
1151 decision-making processes. For example, showing side-by-side video clips or quantitative summaries that focus on the
1152 specific features the clinician wanted to monitor (e.g., progression of bradykinesia versus stability of tremor). *Facilitate*
1153 *collaborative review for complex cases.* When consulting colleagues, specialists described sharing patient videos and
1154 discussing specific observations. Tools could support such practice by organizing selected video clips, brief quantitative
1155 summaries, and relevant history into a shared view used during case discussions or video rounds. Clinicians could
1156 indicate which features they want input on allowing collaborators to reason from the same reference. Situating tools
1157 within these existing routines—instead of introducing new, standalone workflows—may better align with how specialists
1158 manage uncertainty in practice.
1159

1160 6.2 Opportunities for technology and AI to support movement disorder specialists' work

1161 Our study results highlight three conceptual dimensions at which technology and AI may support movement disorder
1162 care: *representation*, *interaction*, and *collaboration*. Representation concerns how movement and clinical evidence are
1163 captured and displayed, such as supporting visual comparison of subtle motor features across tasks or visits. Interaction
1164 concerns how clinicians engage with tools during diagnostic work, including when to access lightweight summaries
1165 versus more detailed information as uncertainty changes. Collaboration concerns how tools support shared reasoning,
1166 such as enabling specialists to review the same visual or quantitative evidence during case discussions. We discuss how
1167 thinking along these dimensions helps generate ideas for tools; further, we instantiate some ideas into concrete tool
1168 designs in the next subsection.
1169

1170 **6.2.1 Representation: Supporting how movement disorders are observed and tracked over time.** A substantial body of
1171 prior work has focused on improving how movement disorders are represented by transforming motor behavior into
1172 quantitative, persistent signals. Such systems capture observable aspects of movement—such as timing, speed, regularity,
1173 and amplitude—and store them in forms that allow later review or comparison. For example, studies of computer
1174 and mouse interactions extract features such as mouse trajectories, movement speed, pauses, or tapping variability
1175 to characterize fine motor control [21, 69]. Typing and gesture-based systems analyze keystroke timing, pressure, or
1176 gesture dynamics to capture slowness or irregularity in movement [5, 56]. Other approaches use smartphone-based
1177 drawing tasks or games to quantify tremor, precision, or motor coordination [34, 37]. Smartphone-based sensing and
1178 wearables enable repeated measurement of movement patterns over days or weeks to track symptom fluctuations
1179 [10, 67]. Video-based approaches use pose estimation and motion analysis to derive features such as tremor frequency,
1180 gait parameters, or joint angles from ordinary video recordings [2].

1181 Together, the output of such tools functions as external representations. Norman characterizes such external
1182 representations as *cognitive artifacts* that help make relevant patterns perceptible and easier to compare, particularly
1183 when representations are *well matched to the task at hand* [41]. In the context of movement disorder care, quantitative
1184 digital representations of motor performance might find greater utility when they are designed to support/complement
1185 concrete tasks such as patient observation (Sections 5.1.1 - 5.1.4) and remote tracking (Sections 5.4.1). For example, AI
1186

1197 techniques may help organize observations across visits to emphasize change over time, support side-by-side comparison
1198 of prior and current movement, or highlight aspects of movement that warrant closer inspection without producing
1199 diagnostic conclusions. Our findings show that specialists rely on their own judgment for diagnosis and find tools
1200 helpful when they provide visual or quantitative references that make subtle differences easier to see and compare over
1201 time, consistent with prior work emphasizing clinician autonomy [13, 68]. We illustrate one such representation-focused
1202 opportunity in the next subsection through *MotorLens*, an example tool concept that helps clinicians inspect and reason
1203 about subtle movement patterns during remote care.
1204
1205

1206 **6.2.2 Interaction: Supporting how tools are integrated into movement disorder specialists' workflow.** Movement disorder
1207 specialists adjust how they work through a case based on diagnostic certainty and the constraints of a given visit
1208 (Section 6.1). This suggests that specialists do not *interact* with information in a fixed or uniform way. Instead, specialists
1209 move between brief review and deeper inspection as uncertainty arises and as new information becomes available. Such
1210 patterns suggest interaction-level opportunities for technology to better align with specialists' workflow by supporting
1211 when and how clinicians engage with representations of movement data. For example, tools could remain lightweight
1212 during routine cases by presenting brief summaries or key changes since the last visit, while allowing clinicians to
1213 selectively access more detailed views—such as prior videos or movement traces—when a case is uncertain. AI could
1214 support such adaptive interaction by organizing representations for progressive disclosure, emphasizing what has
1215 changed since prior visits, and maintaining context about what has already been reviewed. Such support could allow
1216 clinicians to revisit unresolved questions across visits without having to re-examine information from scratch.
1217
1218

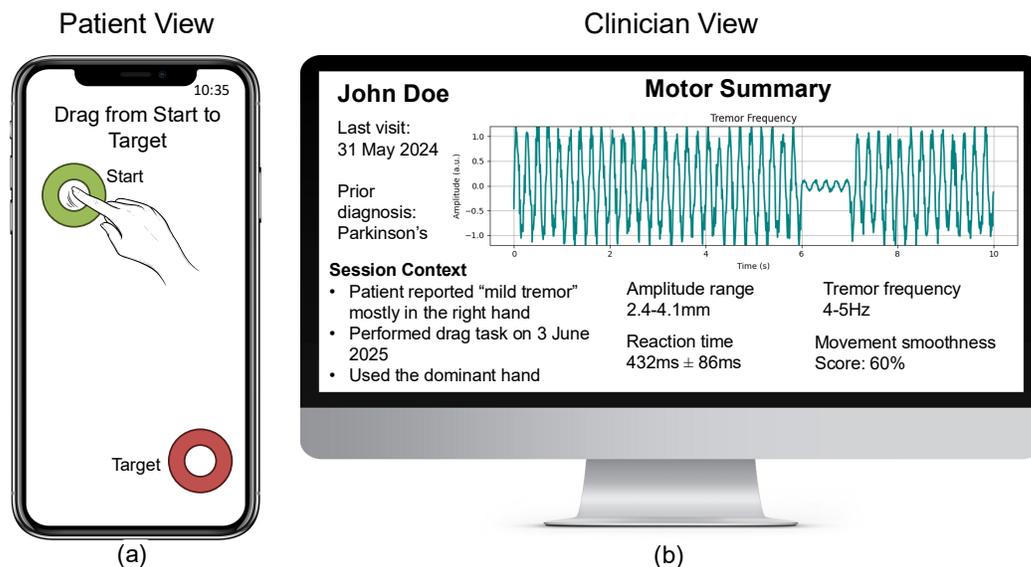
1219 **6.2.3 Collaboration: Supporting how specialists work through uncertainty with others.** Our findings show that movement
1220 disorder specialists frequently manage diagnostic uncertainty through collaboration—by consulting colleagues, coordi-
1221 nating with non-specialists who see patients first, and relying on caregivers to provide additional context. Such practices
1222 point to concrete opportunities for technology—and in some cases AI—to support coordination across people involved
1223 in care. One opportunity concerns supporting triage and referral. For example, AI could help non-specialists recognize
1224 when specialist input is likely needed and support referral by structuring and transmitting relevant information to
1225 specialists such as short movement videos or key symptom descriptions. Technology could also support specialist
1226 collaboration by organizing information discussed across case reviews meetings, keeping track of which observations
1227 support or contradict different hypotheses, and preserving context across meetings. At the same time, such collaboration
1228 meeting often relies on verbal discussion making it difficult to revisit how interpretations evolved. Such patterns
1229 suggest opportunities for tools that support shared review by organizing evidence and discussion without making
1230 diagnostic decisions. In this role, AI could help structure information discussed during meetings or highlight unresolved
1231 points, reducing coordination and memory burden while leaving interpretation to clinicians. We illustrate one such
1232 collaboration-focused opportunity in the next subsection through *ShowBoard*, an example tool concept designed to
1233 support shared case review among specialists.
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1235
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1240 **6.3 Example tool concepts to illustrate design opportunities**

1241
1242 To make a subset of the design opportunities identified in Sections 6.1 and 6.2 more concrete, our study presents two
1243 illustrative tool concepts that might assist specialists' work. These concepts are presented as concrete examples of
1244 how digital tools could fit into specialists' clinical workflows and decision-making processes. For each tool idea, our
1245 study provides a scenario and description of the tool's functionality. These tool concepts are included to ground the
1246 discussion and to motivate future design and validation work.
1247

1249 6.3.1 *Remote assessment of motor symptoms during telehealth visits.* Our findings suggest that remote motor assessment
 1250 tools can support specialists during video-based telehealth visits by helping them see subtle motor symptoms they
 1251 might otherwise miss. To illustrate a representation-focused design opportunity identified in Section 6.2.1, our study
 1252 describes an example tool concept, "MotorLens", that a patient uses on their phone before a visit.
 1253

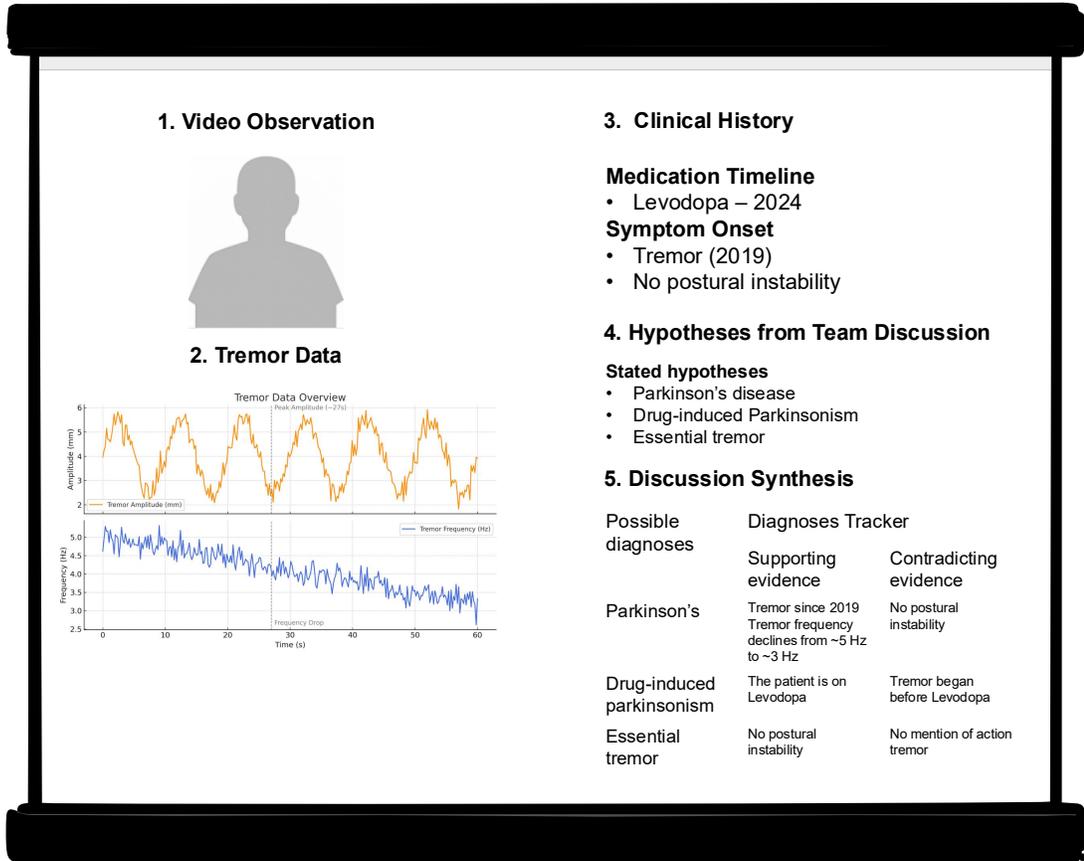
1254 We simulate a scenario where a specialist conducts a follow-up video visit with a patient who reports mild hand
 1255 tremors and slowed movement. Since the video quality is poor and the patient's movement are very subtle, the specialist
 1256 struggles to observe details like tremor characteristics or slowness. Prior HCI work has shown that brief, structured
 1257 motor tasks can capture fine-grained movement features [21]. *MotorLens* builds on such line of work by illustrating
 1258 how outputs from such tasks could be surfaced to movement disorder specialists during remote visits.
 1259
 1260
 1261



1282 Fig. 1. *MotorLens* helps specialists observe patient's hand movements during remote visits by showing results from a touchscreen-
 1283 based task the patient completed beforehand. Specialists rely on observation, but remote visits often makes fine motor details hard to
 1284 see. (a) Patient-facing interface: The patient completes a short touchscreen task by dragging from one point to another. (b) Clinician-facing
 1285 interface: a web based tool that summarizes result from the patient's task, giving specialists context to interpret hand movements.
 1286 The plot simulates Parkinson's tremor with a 4-5Hz rhythm and scaled amplitudes, offering a realistic on-screen pattern.
 1287
 1288

1289 *MotorLens* (Fig. 1) is a touchscreen-based tool that helps specialists observe motor symptoms during telehealth
 1290 visits by generating visual and quantitative summaries from short motor tasks the patient completes beforehand. Patient perform activities—such as dragging from one point to another—on their phone. The tool analyzes the motion to extract features that are often difficult to detect over video—such as tremor amplitude and frequency, reaction time, and movement smoothness. *MotorLens* presents the results to the clinician as a compact summary that includes contextual details like symptom reports and prior diagnoses. By showing plots of tremor characteristics, the tool can help specialists spot movement patterns they might have missed—due to poor video quality or subtle nature of symptoms—and focus their questions on the most relevant symptoms. A future study can evaluate such a tool by answering the following research questions: 1) What motor performance data do specialists use during remote care? 2)
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 1292
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 1300

1301 Does feedback from touchscreen-based motor tasks reduce uncertainty during telehealth visits? 3) How should motor
 1302 task data be summarized to support decision-making in remote settings?
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1337 Fig. 2. Our proposed tool "Showboard" is a collaborative case review tool (shown on a large shared display) that supports team decision-
 1338 making by helping specialists visually organize key clinical information. The tool embodies the idea that visual and quantitative
 1339 representation of motor symptoms can support clearer discussion than verbal descriptions alone. *Showboard* brings together video
 1340 observation, tremor data, clinical history, hypotheses from team discussion, and a discussion synthesis panel that highlights supporting
 1341 and contradicting evidence. The plot shows tremor frequency dropping and amplitude fluctuating over a 60-second session. *Showboard*
 1342 surfaces relevant patterns to support shared decision-making and planning—without suggesting decisions.
 1343
 1344
 1345

1346 **6.3.2 Showboard: A collaborative case review tool for shared decision-making.** Our findings show that movement
 1347 disorder specialists frequently work through diagnostic uncertainty by consulting colleagues, particularly during case
 1348 discussions and video rounds. To illustrate a collaboration-focused design opportunity identified in Section 6.2.3, our
 1349 study describes "ShowBoard", an example tool concept designed to support shared case review among specialists. We
 1350 simulate a movement disorders healthcare meeting where a specialist shares a complex tremor case for discussion with
 1351

1353 colleagues and seniors. The patient video, test results (e.g., DaTscan), and clinical notes are available. Specialists do not
1354 agree in their early impressions.

1355 *Showboard* (Fig. 2) is a low-fidelity prototype for a large shared display (like a projector screen) that supports
1356 collaborative case reviews. The tool supports decision-making by organizing what is known from teams' discussions
1357 and patient history, and helping clinicians consider relevant information. The tool does not suggest a final diagnosis.
1358 Due to lack of better tools, specialists rely heavily on "telling" during discussions. Shared understanding improves when
1359 clinicians can "see" and reason around visual and quantitative evidence (e.g., tremor plots). Our proposed tool can help
1360 reveal, not decide, by prompting reflection, rather than giving answers. The tool interface (Fig. 2) includes five panels:
1361

- 1362 (1) Video observation shows recorded patient movement.
- 1363 (2) Tremor data visualizes tremor amplitude and frequency over time, based on data extracted from patient video
1364 or touchscreen-based assessments.
- 1365 (3) Clinical history organizes patient history and test results either entered directly by a clinician or transcribed
1366 from the team's discussion.
- 1367 (4) Hypotheses lists working diagnoses entered directly by a clinician or transcribed from the team's discussion.
- 1368 (5) Discussion synthesis organizes supporting and contradicting evidence for each hypothesis based on team
1369 discussion and clinical history.

1370 A future study can evaluate such a tool by answering the following research questions: 1) Does the tool's visual layout
1371 help specialists notice relevant patterns or missing details that they might otherwise overlook? 2) Do specialists find
1372 the information shown in the tool helpful and relevant to their teamwork?
1373

1374 6.4 Limitations and Future Work

1375 Our study focused on one stakeholder group—movement disorder specialists. Movement disorder specialists play a
1376 central role in diagnosis, but they work alongside other team members—nurses, therapists, general neurologists, and
1377 caregivers [47]—who also influence decisions. Future work can explore how digital tools can support collaboration
1378 across this broader care team.

1379 Our study offers insight into how movement disorder specialists make decisions and adapt their workflow. We
1380 interviewed six specialists—similar to other formative HCI studies in clinical domains [13, 68]—due to the scarcity and
1381 busy schedules of these experts. While this number may seem small, it represents a meaningful proportion of this
1382 highly specialized field. In the United States, there are only approximately 660 practicing movement disorder specialists,
1383 with just six serving rural areas [45]. These few specialists are expected to meet the needs of over one million people
1384 living with Parkinson's disease alone—a single type of movement disorder [45]. Given this situation in healthcare, we
1385 believe that recruiting even a small number of these specialists to understand their needs is an important step ahead.
1386 Additionally, movement disorder specialists are extremely busy due to the demanding interpersonal and investigative
1387 nature of their work, the population pressure, and the many responsibilities they juggle across multiple hospitals
1388 systems across geographies. For example, one of our participants is licensed to work in five different U.S. states. We
1389 prioritized depth over quantity. We believe that our choice of not more than six participants was a good choice since
1390 insights plateaued in our study, suggesting we reached thematic saturation for our research goals.

1391 Additionally, most participants were based in the United States, often working in high-resource academic settings.
1392 This may limit generalizability to countries or clinics with different healthcare structures, fewer resources, or different
1393 ways of providing care. For example, clinicians in rural China often shorten tasks or multitask to cope with high patient
1394

loads and limited staff support [59]. Future work can explore how workflows and technology needs vary in other geographies and institutional setups.

Furthermore, interviews are limited in their ability to capture reasoning *as it unfolds*. Although participants shared thoughtful reflections, they may miss real-time cognitive processes which are difficult to recall from memory. Experts may not fully explain their decision-making process because some of their thinking might happen automatically and without them noticing [19]. Observational studies or video recordings of patient meetings could complement our findings by showing the anatomy of specialist workflow and how they make decisions in real-time.

Finally, while the tool concepts presented in this paper are illustrative, validating how such tools fit into specialists' workflows is an important next step. Future work could involve brief co-design sessions with movement disorder specialists to examine whether such tool concepts address challenges they recognize and fit within their time constraints and routines. In early, informal conversations with specialists at a professional meeting, we found that clinicians responded best to materials that were short, grounded in real cases, and easy to understand at a glance, and that they quickly focused on whether a tool would save time, or support decision-making during visits or team discussions. These observations suggest that future validation should prioritize lightweight, scenario-based evaluation and focus on how tools support specialists' workflows and decision-making processes.

7 CONCLUSION

This study explored the workflows and decision-making processes of movement disorder specialists. Our goal is to inform the design of tools that fit real-world clinical practice. We found that specialists do not follow a fixed sequence of tasks. Instead, they adapt their workflow based on contextual factors—such as diagnostic certainty, resource constraints, administrative needs, and patient or family behavior. We also identified four major categories of challenges—diagnostic, disease-related, logistical, and interpersonal—and showed how specialists develop strategies to navigate them. These insights give us a realistic picture of how clinical work unfolds in practice.

Based on these findings, our study outline design implications for digital tools that aim to support movement disorders specialists' diagnostic work. These implications highlight how tools could better align with specialists' adaptive workflows, and support clinical decision-making processes. By centering specialists' perspectives, our study provides a foundation for future research on designing tools that reflect clinical realities. Future work can build on these insights by prototyping and evaluating such tools in practice, in collaboration with the specialists they aim to support.

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