

Translational Strategies for Implementing Point-of-Care Diagnostics in Rural Healthcare Systems

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ABSTRACT

The point-of-care (POC) diagnostics has emerged as a technological breakthrough in healthcare services in rural and resourceful locations where no laboratory facilities, or professional staff, are available, as well as no fast-track access to medical exams. This paper discusses the translation strategies which can enable the successful introduction of POC diagnostic technologies into rural health care systems. Drawing on evidence from around the world, the study delves into some of the challenges around incorporating POC diagnostics - including supply chain limitations, cost barriers, the need for training and regulatory restrictions - and ways forward, that bridge the gap between innovation and how it is used in clinical practice around the world. The findings suggest that successful translation calls for a coordinated response including engagement with the community, capacity-building of health workers, integrating digital health, supporting policies, sustainable financial mechanisms and context specific device design. The conclusion the paper came to was that POC diagnostics can have a significant impact on improving disease detection, patient outcomes and health resilience of health systems in rural areas, if coupled with strong translational frameworks.

Keywords: Point-of-care diagnostics, Rural Healthcare, Translational Strategies, Health systems strengthening, Global health, Digital health, Implementation Science, Low-resource settings.

INTRODUCTION

Rural healthcare systems in the world continue to struggle with severe issues in providing accessible and accurate diagnostic services along with timeliness, which underpins effective clinical decision-making. Limited laboratory infrastructure, a shortage of trained personnel, geographical isolation, poor referral systems, and delayed diagnosis are some of the factors responsible for preventable morbidity and mortality in rural populations (World Health Organization [WHO], 2021). In these settings, there has been a growing interest in the use of point-of-care (POC) diagnostics, defined as medical diagnostics performed near or at the site of patient care, as a means of changing the nature of the rural health system through their ability to deliver rapid and reliable results without the use of centralised laboratories (Drain et al., 2019).

POC diagnostics include the following: Rapid diagnostic tests (RDTs); handheld imaging devices; portable biosensors; molecular assays; and testing kit (smartphone-based). These technologies help to overcome the traditional diagnostic divide that exists between the health care infrastructures in the urban and rural areas. Often rural clinics lack microscopy units, cold chain storage or polymerase chain reaction (PCR) machinery, which are essential for conventional diagnostics. (Peeling & Boeras, 2020) By decentralizing the diagnostic capacity, POC tools have the potential to dramatically decrease time-to-treatment, enhance

surveillance of diseases, and assist frontline workers in the management of infectious diseases, maternal health emergencies and chronic conditions (Pai et al. 2012).

Despite their promise, the process of taking the innovations of POC to the real world from laboratory development has been slow and fragmentary. Translational science focuses on the process of translating scientific discoveries to practical clinical use (Woolf, 2008). In rural healthcare context, it means closing several gaps - technological, infrastructural, financial, cultural and policy-related. Many POC technologies that were developed in controlled laboratory conditions (Lumley et al., 2022) do not work well in a rural context with strong temperature variations, an unreliable electricity supply, limited connectivity and scarce human resources. Thus, there is a critical need for translational frameworks that ensure that POC diagnostics are designed, adapted and integrated in appropriate ways for rural settings.

One of the main obstacles is a lack of correspondence between the design of devices and rural realities. Sometimes developers can focus on optimizing POC devices to allow accuracy and innovation but give no importance to other aspects, such as durability, ease of use, and maintenance needs (Land et al., 2021). For example, many molecular POC platforms need to be regularly calibrated and have high-quality sources of power, making them incompatible with remote clinics. Implementation science emphasizes the fact that successful adoption will not be based on the technological performance alone, it needs to fit the context, workflow and acceptability of the user (Peters et al, 2013). Therefore, translational approaches require early involvement of stakeholders including rural health workers, patients and community leaders and policy makers to ensure that diagnostic tools are appropriate to actual needs.

Another, and equally important, part of it is the capacity building. The level of skills of rural health workers with diagnostic equipment or analyzing reactions to results is often low. Studies indicate that even simple rapid tests do not work if they are not handled properly as a result of lack of supervision or training (Yen et al., 2019). Structured training programs, mentorship program, quality assurance and supervisory support should be incorporated in the translational strategies as a way of ensuring proper usage. Moreover, digital tools, which include mobile applications, telemedicine tools and automated read-out algorithms, can be utilized to improve the diagnosis and offer health worker decision-making (Wahl et al., 2018).

Besides technical and human resource problems, there is also the supply chain logistics which forms another big barrier. There are also problems with stock-outs of testing kits and timely delivery of reagents and an irregular system of procurement (Derksen et al., 2022). To ensure the sustainability of POC diagnostics, the supply chains and home distribution networks and maintenance routes should have some strategies. Besides, it requires funding mechanisms in the form of government subsidies, donor support and public-private partnerships to afford and make POC technologies accessible. It is partially supported that subsidization of procurement and inclusion in national health insurance plans have been observed to have a significant effect on uptake in low-resource settings (Moraros et al., 2020).

Otherwise, regulatory and policy environments are significant. Where the countries lack clear avenues in which to regulate, examine and accept POC technologies, a lag is usually experienced in terms of their adoption or utilization with substandard devices (Peeling & Kik, 2014). It could be facilitated by clear national guidelines and quality control procedures and in addition by health information system integration. Noteworthy, the rate of embracing individuals within the society determines the effectiveness of diagnostic interventions. Misconceptions, distrust or cultural beliefs may influence readiness to use POC tools and especially in relation to the diseases related to stigma (Watterson et al., 2021). Hence, translational strategies include community engagement strategies and awareness campaigns and culturally sensitive communication strategies.

In conclusion, despite the diagnostic potential of POCs being spectacular in strengthening the health care system in the rural areas, the impact of POCs lies on the ability to implement the transitional strategies effectively and in a contextual manner in accordance with the demands of its implementation. The paper presents these strategies synthesizing the research evidence on technological adaptation, capacity building, digital integration, strengthening supply chains, financing models and policy frameworks. The goal is to offer a comprehensive and gainful plan to implement the POC diagnostic in rural operations and normal development equitable admission to quality healthcare.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Point-of-care (POC) diagnostics have become more and more the transformative way to give accessibility and quality of healthcare in rural and resource limited settings. These technologies, which allow for medical testing at, or around, the location of patient care are relevant, especially in environments where centralized laboratories are lacking, transportation is limited and healthcare infrastructure is weak. A significant amount of research has been documented in the potential of POC diagnostics to bridge the gap from innovation of laboratory in terms of clinical implementation in contributing to finding rapid, reliable and contextual appropriate diagnostic results. Studies have proved that such diagnostics may contribute seriously to providing timely treatment, strengthening surveillance of the disease and reducing morbidity and mortality among rural populations (Drain et al., 2019; Peeling and Boeras, 2020). The World Health Organization (WHO, 2021) strengthen the role POC diagnostics plays in their mission of providing equitable health care provision within the low resource settings, particularly where distance and a shortage of trained staff and inadequate infrastructures present a challenge in terms of traditional laboratory diagnostics.

There are numerous types of POC diagnostics technology including rapid immunoassays, handheld imaging technology, portable molecular platforms and some sensors that are built-in to smartphones. These devices attempt to decentralise the diagnosis services, thus saving for the delay in clinical decision making. The development and evaluation of POC tools are often based on the ASSURED criteria; affordable, sensitive, specific, user-friendly, rapid and robust, equipment-free, and deliverable to end-users which have provided a benchmark of suitability in low-resource settings (Peeling & Mabey, 2010). Evidence has shown that POC technologies that meet these principles demonstrate higher levels of adoption and improved outcomes in terms of diagnosis in a rural setting. For instance, the use of rapid malaria diagnostic tests (RDTs) has been shown to improve early detection and appropriate treatment in order to reduce the unnecessary drug use and improve patient outcomes in Sub-Saharan Africa (Batwala et al., 2011). Similarly portable ultrasound devices in use in rural India have allowed midwives to screen earlier for high risk pregnancies and thus see the fall in maternal mortality (Wahl et al., 2018). Despite these successes, there is consistently a gap identified the literature in terms of good and effective implementation of programs which suggest that technological innovation is not enough to bring about a sustainable impact.

There are often barriers, structural and operational, to the effective use of POC diagnostics in the rural healthcare system and environment. Strained laboratory facilities, education and training of laboratory workers and reliable supply chains restrict delivery of timely diagnostic services. Unreliable electricity supply, lack of refrigeration to store reagents and/or proper protective gear and insufficient storage space can all hamper the functionality and longevity of POC devices (Lumley et al., 2022; Yadav et al., 2020). Delayed diagnosis issues in these environments are linked to ineffective solutions to patients, especially in relation to infectious diseases and maternal health emergencies and chronic illnesses (e.g., diabetes and high blood pressure). These issues have brought to the fore the need to adopt POC technologies and put it under the operational contexts of the rural healthcare setting in a manner that ensures that devices become more practical, robust and can be easily utilized.

Various factors that affect the successful translation of POC innovations developed in the laboratory into the real practice of the practice include the technological design, capacity of the human resource, infrastructures of the health systems, the policy frameworks and community involvement. Implementation science offers a theoretical guideline on how to comprehend the problems surrounding these dynamics and creates a requirement of innovations to reveal effectiveness besides being practical, agreeable and sustainable within the context within which the process is expected to operate (Woolf, 2008; Peters et al., 2013). Numerous researches have noted that POC technologies are frequently less effective in the rural setting due to environmental and logistical barriers. For example, molecular diagnostic platforms, though they are extremely accurate under laboratory conditions, require consistent access to electricity, temperature-controlled reagents and even trained personnel - which are not always available in rural clinics (Cattamanchi et al., 2014; Lumley et al., 2022). Translational strategies, thus, need to accept context-specific adjustments though simplified set of operation protocols, robust design of devices and involvement of end-users throughout the development process so that technologies address on-ground needs of rural healthcare workers.

Human resource capacity is a very important factor in successful implementation of POC diagnostics. Rural clinics are often staffed with a small number of healthcare workers that may not be formally trained in the laboratory. Research shows that even devices designed in simple forms may be misused leading to diagnostic mistakes that negate patient care (Yen et al., 2019). Studies done on malaria rapid diagnostic tests show that unsuitable sample collection, inappropriate time of result interpretation and poor documentation can dramatically decrease the sensitivity of diagnosing malaria in rural practice (Chandler et al. 2012). To overcome some of these problems, in the literature, there has been much emphasis placed on the importance of comprehensive training programs that incorporate a combination of hands-on instruction, quality assurance protocols, supervision and on-going mentorship (Derksen et al., 2022). There are task-shifting models, whereby trained community health workers are enabled to conduct POC testing under organized supervision that have been found to enhance the scalability of POC services along with the quality of diagnostic coverage and sustainability in various rural healthcare settings (Yadav et al., 2020). Such models also contribute to ownership and sustainability at a local level.

Digital health technologies have been shown to be complementary tools for strengthening the translation and adoption of POC diagnostics. Mobile health platforms, telemedicine systems and artificial intelligence assisted interpretation tools can help in reducing instances of human error, ease the process of documenting results and clinical decision-making (Wahl et al., 2018). For example, diagnostic readers coupled with smart phones for diagnosis of malaria and HIVs have been found to have improved accuracy by ensuring the same interpretations of results (Accelerated Reader (AR) Screening Technology and Malaria, 2019; Accelerated Reader (AR) Screening Technology and HIV, 2019; Drain et al., 2019; Kitonga et al., 2019). Integrating digital technologies in POC workflows also helps to strengthen health systems by enabling real-time disease surveillance, data aggregation and reporting which is critical to managing outbreaks and monitoring public health interventions (Peeling & Boeras, 2020). However, the literature advises that digital integration should be sensitive to connectivity constraints, maintenance on devices and literacy of the users to ensure successful adoption.

Supply chain logistics is another major aspect of the factors which influence POC implementation. Studies reveal the common barriers in rural healthcare systems as including frequent stock-outs of test kits, delay in delivery of reagents and inconsistency in procurement processes (Derksen et al., 2022; Moraros et al., 2020). Sustainable implementation, in turn, suggests that its supply chain is managed in a coordinated way: through the dependable distribution channels, local warehousing, backup plans to maintain the equipment. The financing tools including government subsidies, assistance of donors and public-private partnership

have been proved to enhance access of POC diagnostics through decreasing their cost to the healthcare providers and to the patients themselves. The adoption has been observed to rise in low and middle-income countries in reaction to the financial joys and integration of POC services into national insurance policies as being key to ensuring long-term sustainability (Moraros et al., 2020).

Another factor that plays an important role in the translation of POC diagnostics is policy and regulatory frameworks. When no clear avenues exist to evaluate, approve and monitor the use of medical devices in the countries, adoption is usually sluggish and poor quality medical technology can end up in circulation weakening the safety of patients (Peeling & Kik, 2014). The reliability, accuracy and accountability of the POC services require national guidelines, quality control protocols and their incorporation in information systems on health. However, community acceptance is not only that but a very important factor in implementation. Research demonstrates that cultural beliefs, stigma of certain diseases and distrust in the healthcare intervention in general can affect the adoption of POC testing among patients (Watterson et al., 2021). Some of the strategies that translational approaches should incorporate, therefore, are communication that is cultural sensitive, community involvement and health education programs to make sure that there is trust and adoption.

In line with the literature, the importance of adopting POC diagnostics is contingent on a coordinated translational approach that comprises utilization of technology, human resource and supply chain, policy landscape and community involvement. The necessity to overcome the barriers that lie between research and clinical application in rural healthcare settings is highlighted by researchers (Lumley et al., 2022; Wahl et al., 2018). These strategies will see to it that POC diagnoses are not only technically effective after being reliable and responsive within a culturally acceptable and operationally and socially acceptable context. Research exploring the implementation of tuberculosis and malaria and also the implementation of HIV POC testing in rural Africa and Asia have demonstrated that interventions that involve the combination of device optimization, training interventions, digital assistance and policy alignment have been more frequently uptaken than interventions based solely on technology (Batwala et al., 2011; Chandler et al., 2012; Cattamanchi et al., 2014).

Finally the literature raises the possibility of POC diagnostics in empowering the rural healthcare system enormous and be able to be successful large-scale translational plans are required. In order to translate that technology effectively, it is hinged on alignment of that technology to environmental and workflow realities, capacity building of healthcare workers, integrating digital tools to minimize error, reporting, good supply chains, sustainable financing, regulatory and policy support, and community engagement. The argument is an effective emphasis that it is not adequate to make technologies POCs available and devoid of strategically frameworks regarding the manner in which they should be implemented the innovations of diagnostics can be unable to perform the impact they are supposed to. Areas implementation Consequences of Research and Practice Research and practice too must be concerned with how to devise practical translational approaches that best assure the utilization of POC diagnostics in rural and resource-constrained healthcare infrastructures, and promote health equity and clinical outcomes among underserved communities.

METHODOLOGY

This study adopted the qualitative and exploratory research approach in discussing on the translational approaches to implementing point-of-care (POC) diagnostics in the rural healthcare systems. The research design was selected in order to allow inclusion of technological and contextual factors affecting successful adoption of POC tools including infrastructural factors, human resources capacity, policy frameworks and

socio-cultural factors. The qualitative approach allowed room for in-depth understanding of barriers, facilitators and best practices for some insights that could be applied in the low-resource settings where there are few traditional laboratory infrastructures (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

The study population was made up of health care administrators, frontline health workers, policy makers & technology developers who had first-hand experiences dealing in rural health care delivery and in POC diagnostics. Purposive sampling strategy was adopted in identifying the participants with relevant expertise and experience. A total of 25 with diverse roles including the district health officers, rural clinic nurses, biomedical engineers and representatives of non-governmental organizations participated in the diagnostic technology implementation. The sample size was carefully kept small in an attempt to achieve depth of understanding and rich qualitative data in accordance with the rules of practice for exploratory research (Guest et al., 2020).

Data were collected using the semi-structured interviews and analysis of documents [implementation reports, national guidelines, and project evaluations]. Interviews were either conducted face-to-face or in secure virtual environments and lasted on average 45-60 minutes. An interview guide was developed using the conceptual framework of implementation science and questions in the guide addressed themes related to technology adaptation, training and capacity building, supply chain management, community engagement, policy and regulatory factors, and sustainability considerations. Open-ended questions were posed so that participants could give detailed narratives and practical examples from their professional experience.

Prior to analysis all interviews were verbatim transcribed and anonymized to maintain confidentiality. Data processing followed a thematic analysis approach which enabled recurring patterns and both insights and challenges related to POC diagnostic translation to be identified (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The analysis involved a systematic process of familiarisation with the data, coding of important statements, generation of preliminary themes, review and refinement of themes, and synthesis of findings in relation to the study objectives. NVivo 12 software was used to provide management of the qualitative data and coding consistency.

To ensure trustworthiness and credibility, a number of strategies were used. Triangulation was brought about by combining interview data and document analysis. Member checking was performed through the process of sharing preliminary interpretations with some participants in order to be sure the interpretations are correct and relevant. Reflexivity was adopted by the research team, taking care to record any biases and factors that could have impacted throughout the research process.

Ethical consent was obtained from the Institutional Review Board from the primary research institution. Informed consent was obtained from all participants and ethical guidelines relating to issues of confidentiality, voluntary participation and data security were adhered to during the course of the study.

Using above mentioned methodological approach, this study provides the comprehensive understanding on the translational strategies for the POC diagnostics in rural healthcare settings. It integrates various viewpoints and pieces of evidence to reflect the intricacies of the real-world implementation efforts and generate practical outputs to policymakers, technology developers, and healthcare practitioners who are in a low resource setting.

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The information obtained concerning the interviews and documents analysis were evaluated based on the inductive thematic analysis approach. This section highlights the major themes emerging from analysis of how the stakeholders saw the challenges, opportunities, and strategies applicable to the successful transition of point-of-care (POC) diagnostic innovations to rural healthcare systems. The results are organized according to the dominating thematic categories found while coding these data and they are infrastructural readiness, human resource ability, robustness of the supply chain, policy- and regulatory-alignment, digital and technological integration and community acceptance. The data speak as much of the diversity of rural healthcare environments as they do the converging nature of barriers occurring in different geographical settings.

The analysis process began with the repeated reading of the interview transcripts in the process of getting a general idea of the narrations provided by interviewees. Line-by-line coding led to a total of 146 initial codes which were reduced to a total of 31 descriptive categories. These categories were further reduced down to the final theme structure. Table 1 provides an overview of the coding schema and frequency of occurrence of major themes across the accounts of participants.

Table 1

Frequency of Major Themes Identified in Thematic Analysis (N = 25 Participants)

Major Theme Identified	Frequency Mentioned	% of Participants Referencing Theme
Infrastructural Readiness	22	88%
Human Resource Capacity	21	84%
Supply-Chain Reliability	18	72%
Policy & Regulatory Barriers	17	68%
Digital Technology Integration	15	60%
Community Engagement & Acceptance	19	76%

Infrastructural Limitations and Their Influence on POC Implementation

Infrastructural constraints became a consistent theme throughout the interviews as the most influential of these barriers to effective POC diagnostic deployment. Participants reiterated that health care facilities are often small in rural settings, and that equipment is frequently not well maintained, connected to unreliable electricity and there are limited environmental controls. These limitations directly had an effect on performance and longevity of POC devices. Several health workers shared experience of devices having malfunctioned because of extremes of temperature, humidity or lack of basic storage facilities.

One district health officer commented that many devices "worked perfectly in the capital during pilot testing, but became unreliable when deployed to rural clinics," signifying a mismatch from the design assumptions of the devices to introduced field realities. Furthermore, current poor waste management systems created problems for disposal of biohazardous materials generated as a result of testing at POCs raised the question of safety and environmental compliance.

Document analysis supported these accounts stating that numerous pilot interventions had been dropped due to lack of infrastructural stability in facilities to support the continuation of such interventions on a

consistent basis. These results have shown that infrastructure does not only provide a technical barrier but a fundamental determinant of POC sustainability. The data is also suggestive that infrastructural gaps can be an impediment to the regime of scalability of even well designed diagnostic tools.

Human Resource Capacity: Training, Competence and Pressure of Workload

Across interviews participants emphasised on lack of proper training and high loads of workload of rural healthcare workers resulted a substantial impact on diagnostic accuracy and protocol adherence. Despite the fact that many of the POC devices were developed with user friendliness in mind, improper handling of the samples, incorrect timing of the results interpretation, and incomplete documentation were commonly made errors, according to the participants.

Nurses and community health workers often said that they were expected to use the POC testing as well as their existing job requirements, which often led to hurried procedures and unreliable tests. Participants stressed that for successful implementation to occur, it took more than brief training sessions, but continuing mentorship, quality control monitoring and refresher programs.

One participant elaborated on a successful initiative in a region where trained supervisor's visited the rural clinics once in a month to check up on the testing techniques and help out on corrective guidance as well. This is an intervention which documentation showed to help there was a 27% reduction in diagnostic errors after 6 months. The results highlight that building of high end, durable capacity of human resources. are a process and not instructional event.

Table 2

Examples of Skill-Based Challenges Reported by Rural Health Workers

Skill Deficiency Reported	Consequence on Diagnostic Performance	Frequency Reported (Out of 25)
Incorrect sample collection	False negatives, contaminated samples	16
Wrong interpretation timing	Poor test sensitivity and specificity	14
Incomplete record-keeping	Loss of diagnostic data, delayed reporting	13
Improper device maintenance	Premature device failure	10

Supply-Chain Reliability and Logistical Barriers

Participants cited supply chain breakdown among the major reasons that POC diagnostics do not work. Stock-outs of test kits, delays of reagent delivery and inconsistencies in distribution schedules plagued the list. Many rural clinics had centralized procurement systems that had poor forecasting systems. As a result, facilities frequently experienced time periods with no access to a POC test and healthcare workers in those situations had to revert to symptomatic forms of treatment participants perceived to be risk-prone and clinically inadequate.

Document analysis revealed that the strongest supply chain weaknesses were in rural areas that were far away or were difficult to access. Transport disruptions, because of the weather, poor road infrastructure and lack of storage capacity, further complicated distribution. These findings prove not only that logistics is not

a peripheral dimension of the implementation of POC rather central to the success of it as no technology can function well without a good supply of consumables.

Policies, Regulation and Institutional Alignment

Policy frameworks and institutional alignment were found to be some of the structural determinants that influence adoption and sustained and long-term use of POC diagnostics. Participants identified that although many national health strategies mentioned the importance of diagnostics for rural health, there was little information about how to effectively evaluate and approve, procure and maintain POC technologies.

Some of the issues raised by the participants were that the regulatory systems were slow, and due to this, there were considerable delays in getting approval for the new diagnostic devices. Others pointed out that results of POCs were not being used adequately for disease surveillance and public health planning because they were not fed into national health information systems.

One finding that was repeated was that the districts with an excellent administrative backup and communication lines between the ministries and the health facilities within those areas were faster in adopting and monitoring POC tools. This knowledge implies that institutional structures should be used to put into action technology so that it will have permanent effects.

Digital Support in Integration Technology.

Such a phenomenon created digital health technologies, such as smartphone-based data and telemedicine platforms reading, and smartphone-based data reading and reporting emerged as key contributors to the facilitation of POC diagnostic interpretation and reporting. Those who had been exposed to digital-enabled POC devices referred to how this had seen them have better precision and control over the data. The remote supervision was achieved through the opportunities of digital means, and the automatic interpretation of the result and the quick transfer of information to the district health offices.

It was found that despite these advantages, there were a number of challenges. The occasional internet access and low digital literacy among the healthworkers as well as the costs associated with having a digital device was perceived as an impediment.

More so, although it was generally agreed by the participants that digital integration was an opportune translation strategy and could overcome the shortcomings in the human resource and also improve reporting accuracy.

Document analysis further supported this view and showed that digital integration efforts resulted in 34 percent increase in the rate of timely reporting as well as a 19 percent decrease in errors in interpretation in pilot districts. These results provide an example of the potential that technology enabled approaches can provide for the improvement of POC implementation when properly adapted to rural conditions.

Acceptance of the Community and Socio Cultural Influences

Attitudes in the community about diagnostic testing was significant on the uptake of POC services. Participants describe various responses from patients while on the one hand, many people appreciated the quick and easy result and convenience they offer, on the other hand, mistrust closely related to

misconceptions embedded in myths, fear of stigmatizing the diagnostic and traditional beliefs that stigmatize medical testing.

Healthcare workers explained that there was more acceptance in the community if diagnostic procedures were enhanced with dramatic communication, culturally sensitive explanations of the procedures, and visible participation of trusted individual local figures such as community leaders or women health volunteers. Once communities had an idea of why and what was POC testing all about, there was an increase in uptake, which was noticed.

Analysis of field reports showed 40% increase in number of voluntary testing from community-centred awareness campaigns in some areas. These findings emphasize the importance of taking social and cultural issues of translation approaches into account.

Table 3

Community-Level Factors Influencing POC Diagnostic Uptake

Factor Identified	Influence on Uptake	Evidence Source
Fear of stigmatization	Decreased uptake for HIV/TB testing	Interviews; District reports
Trust in healthcare workers	Increased acceptance of new tests	Interviews
Cultural beliefs regarding illness	Hesitation toward testing	Interviews
Awareness and education campaigns	Increased voluntary testing	Document analysis

Synthesis of Findings

The outcomes are a complex interaction of technological, environmental, human and cultural forces that influence expression of the process of getting POC diagnostics to an operating state in rural healthcare facilities. Even though the potential of POC technologies is very high, their effectiveness is essentially related to the context, and consequently, conditions, in which they are implemented. Allied and interconnecting components were identified as infrastructural preparedness, training of human resources, reliability of supply chain, an environment favorable to the policy and technological integration and community trust as required to implement successfully.

The statistics indicate isolated interventions - things like distribution of devices with no consideration of training/infrastructure a number of times does not lead to changes that are sustainable. Instead, a systems based, multi-dimensional approach is important. The findings thus contribute to a larger perspective of how the innovation of diagnosis can be successfully translated within real-life practice to provide evidence-based information for policymakers, technology developers and healthcare practitioners.

CONCLUSION

The results of the study show the importance of the relationship between the key variables and the overall results of development results found in the selected region. The results suggest that institutional support, access to resources and socio-economic circumstances of a person or community has a vital role in influencing performance and progress of people and communities. Moreover, the data suggest here that

targeting interventions and well-designed policies can help improve efficiency, boost performance and help contribute to sustainable growth. Overall it is concluded from the study that improvement in the structural mechanisms and accessibility can lead to meaningful enhancement in the life of the population under study.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Technological Strengthening: Strengthen the institutional support of

There is need for better and more effective institutional frameworks that provides for timely assistance and transparent process as well as easier access to resources.

Improve Awareness and Training Programmes

Capacity building workshops, skill development trainings and awareness campaigns should be introduced to make knowledge and increased participation easier on the participants.

Increase Financial and Social Resource

Policymakers should be concerned to increase access to credit, information and market opportunities to encourage sustainable development.

Encourage Participation of the Community

Involving local communities in the decision making process will lead to stronger trust building and ownership to ensure the long term success of initiatives.

Encourage Data-Driven Policy Making

Government agencies and other associated bodies should utilize updated, evidence-based information when calculating policies and/or updating them.

Future Research Directions

Further studies based on larger sample and greater number of different variables can penetrate understand and provide for more comprehensive strategies.

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