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# BMJ Open

## Effect of a health literacy intervention on knowledge about cardiovascular disease medications among Indigenous peoples in Australia, Canada, and New Zealand

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**Effect of a health literacy intervention on knowledge about cardiovascular disease medications among Indigenous peoples in Australia, Canada, and New Zealand**

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**ABSTRACT**

**OBJECTIVES:** To assess the effect of a customised, structured cardiovascular disease medication health literacy programme on medication knowledge among Indigenous people with, or at high risk, of cardiovascular disease.

Design: Intervention trial with pre and post measures at multiple time points. Trial ID ACTRN12612001309875

**SETTING:** Indigenous primary care services in Australia, Canada and New Zealand.

**PARTICIPANTS:** 171 Indigenous people aged  $\geq 20$  years of age who had at least one clinical diagnosis of a CVD event OR, in Canada and Australia, had a 5-year CVD risk  $\geq 15\%$ ; and were prescribed at least two of the following CVD medication classes: statin, aspirin, ACE inhibitors, beta blockers.

**INTERVENTION:** An education session delivered on three occasions over one month by registered nurses or health educators who had received training in health literacy and principles of adult education. An interactive tablet application was used during each session and an information booklet and pillcard provided to participants.

**PRIMARY OUTCOME MEASURES:** Knowledge about the CVD medications assessed before and after each session.

**RESULTS:** Knowledge at baseline (pre-session 1) was low with the mean percent correct answers highest for statins (34.0% correct answers), 29.4% for aspirin, 26.0% for beta blockers and 22.7% for ACE inhibitors. Adjusted analyses showed highly significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) increases in knowledge scores between pre and post assessments at all three time points for all medication classes. For the four medications, the absolute increases in adjusted percent correct items from pre-session one to post-session three assessments were statins 60.1%, aspirin 76.8%, ACE inhibitor 71.4%, and beta blocker 69.5%.

**CONCLUSIONS:** The intervention was highly effective in contextually diverse Indigenous primary health care services in Australia, Canada and New Zealand. The findings from this study have important implications for health services working with populations with low health literacy more generally.

**STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY**

- This is one of the first studies to examine the effect of a cardiovascular disease medication health literacy intervention.
- An early example of co-design of a health literacy intervention, informed by patients, whanau/families in their Indigenous communities
- Studies like the one presented here – a cross-country multi-site intervention trial with Indigenous communities that successfully incorporates Indigenous research principles, processes and practices - are rare.
- A control group has not been used because of sample size considerations and due to the risk of contamination in small communities.
- Does not assess effect of the intervention on clinical outcomes.

## INTRODUCTION

1 In recent decades, cardiovascular disease (CVD) mortality and morbidity inequities experienced by  
2 Indigenous populations have received increasing attention.[1-3] The prevalence of CVD risk factors  
3 and mortality and hospitalisation rates have been well documented for Aboriginal and Torres Strait  
4 Islander populations in Australia,[4] First Nations, Inuit and Metis populations in Canada,[5] and  
5 Māori populations in New Zealand (NZ).[6, 7] Prevention and management of CVD for Indigenous  
6 populations is of central importance given the described burden of CVD and inequities experienced by  
7 these populations. Evidence-based guidelines for primary and secondary prevention of CVD are  
8 widely available and emphasise ‘lifestyle’ and medications management.[8-10] However, CVDs are  
9 long term conditions and self-management by patients and their families is essential for good  
10 outcomes.[11, 12] Capacity to effectively self-manage long term conditions is influenced by an array  
11 of factors including, in the case of CVD, knowledge about risk factors and medications.[13] Available  
12 literature describing patient CVD knowledge primarily focuses on risk factors and risk assessment,  
13 with a lack of equivalent emphasis on medication knowledge.[14-19] Further investigation with  
14 regard to knowledge about medications is needed, as inadequate medication knowledge is associated  
15 with intermittent and non-adherence to medications.[20] Intermittent and non-adherence has been  
16 reported for Indigenous populations [21, 22] and is associated with poorer health outcomes including  
17 increased hospitalisations, morbidity, and mortality, and inadequate control of risk factors for  
18 disease.[23, 24] Inadequate knowledge about a broader group of medications has been found among  
19 an Indigenous prison population, however at present limited data exists to describe knowledge for  
20 CVD medications specifically.[25]

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35 Health literacy is defined as the ‘the degree to which individuals have the capacity to obtain, process,  
36 and understand basic health information and services needed to make appropriate health decisions.[26]  
37 Health literacy is integral to patient knowledge and self-management. Low levels of health literacy are  
38 associated with a range of adverse health outcomes.[26-32] More recently it has been recognised that  
39 the health system, healthcare organisations and health professionals are critical to reducing health  
40 literacy demands and developing the health literacy of patients.[33]

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46 In NZ a higher proportion of the Māori population has low levels of health literacy than the non-Māori  
47 population.[34] While rigorous population-based data for Indigenous populations in Australia and  
48 Canada are lacking, the needs of these populations are likely to be similar to those in NZ, given the  
49 similar inequities in health and education observed between Indigenous and non-Indigenous people in  
50 all these countries.

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56 A customised, structured CVD medication health literacy intervention was developed during a  
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development phase that included in-depth interviews with community members who were taking CVD prevention medications. Interview participants described their knowledge about their medications, what they would like to know about these medications, and how they would like to be provided with this information. The intervention was implemented in Indigenous primary health care services in Australia (one urban service), Canada (one service with two urban sites), and NZ (one urban and one rural service). Primary outcomes were patient's knowledge about CVD medications (statins, beta blockers ACE inhibitors and aspirin). Secondary outcomes examined changes in health literacy skills and practices. This paper reports the results of a combined (three country) analysis of the primary outcomes.

## METHODS

A detailed trial protocol has been published elsewhere [35]. In brief, the trial used a multi-site pre-post design with multiple measurement points. Ethics approvals were obtained from the Health and Disabilities Ethics Committees in NZ (MEC/10/061/EXP), the Human Research Ethics Committee at the University of Melbourne, Australia (HREC 1238349.1) and the Saint Michael's Hospital Research Ethics Board, Toronto, Canada (REB #: 10-324). The study was registered with the Australian and New Zealand Clinical Trials Register on 18 December 2012 (ACTRN12612001309875). Community engagement and research processes were consistent with guidelines for research with Indigenous communities.[36-39]

In NZ and Canada potential participants were identified from the health services' medical records. In Australia eligible participants were referred by their general practitioner, Aboriginal health worker, or pharmacist. Eligibility criteria were that participants were Indigenous people aged  $\geq 20$  years of age; had at least one clinical diagnosis of a CVD event (angina, myocardial infarction, ischaemic stroke or transient ischemic attack) OR, for Canada and Australia, had a 5 year CVD risk  $\geq 15\%$ ; were prescribed at least two of the following CVD medication classes: statin, aspirin, ACE inhibitors, beta blockers; and could provide informed consent to participate.

The intervention consisted of an education session delivered by registered nurses or health educators who had received training in health literacy and adult education principles to support the development of health literacy knowledge and skills. An interactive tablet application was used during each session. The application also produced a customised pill card for each participant. At the first session a booklet containing information about CVD, medication use, the four CVD medication classes, and treatment targets for lipid and blood pressure was given to all participants. Information in the tablet and booklet was standardised across all three countries; however, background graphic design features, images and Indigenous language words and phrases were country specific. The use of the application



ensured that the nurse/educator covered all the CVD medication information in a structured way and, in the context of a trial, standardised the provision of information across all five sites. The education session was delivered three times over four weeks. (Table 1) The programme was customised for each participant so they only received information about the medication classes they were taking.

### Data collection

Table 1 summarises data collection at each time point.

**Table 1 Summary of trial contacts and data collection**

Activity	Time point	Measurement
Enrolment visit	T0	Consent and enrolment in study. In Canada baseline demographic and clinical information was also collected at this visit.
Session one	T1 - Pre-session one	Baseline demographic and clinical information (NZ, Australia) Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
	T2 - Post-session one	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
Session two. Seven days after session one.	T3 - Pre-session two	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
	T4 - Post-session two	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
Session three. 28 days after session one.	T5 - Pre-session three	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
	T6 - Post-session three	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices

Baseline data was collected from participants and from the health service's medical records.

Outcome measures for statins, ACE inhibitors, aspirin and beta blockers assessed knowledge of the scientific and brand names of the medications, what the medication does, how to take it, important side effects, and lipid and blood pressure treatment targets. The number of items in the outcome questionnaire varied for each medication class. There were 9 items for statins, 11 for beta blockers, 12 for ACE inhibitors and 13 for aspirin (Table 2).

**Table 2 Items in outcome measures**

	ACE inhibitors	Beta Blockers	Statin	Aspirin
Name of medication (scientific or brand)	Eg of Scientific name Perindopril Eg of Brand name <i>Conversyl</i>	Eg of Scientific name Atenolol Eg of Brand name <i>Noten</i>	Eg of Scientific name Atorvastatin Eg of Brand name <i>Lipitor</i>	Eg of Scientific name Aspirin Eg of Brand name <i>Cardia</i>
Pronounced correctly	Yes / No	Yes / No	Yes / No	Yes / No
Name of medication (class)	ACE inhibitor	Beta Blocker	Statin	Aspirin
Pronounced correctly	Yes / No	Yes / No	Yes / No	Yes / No

Function/s	Lowers blood pressure	Lowers blood pressure	Lowers cholesterol	Stops you having blood clots
	Protects heart and kidneys	Protects heart		Take with food or after eating
Instruction/s	Start on low dose and increase	Take at the same time every day	Take with evening meal	Take indigestion medication 2hrs after taking Aspirin
	Blood tests every 6 months	Do not suddenly stop taking	Avoid grapefruit juice	
	Avoid food with too much Potassium			
Serious side effects	Tongue, lips, or face swell up	Dizzy or faint	Muscle pain, tenderness or weakness	Tongue, lips, or face swell up
	Dizzy or faint	Breathing problems or asthma		Dizzy or faint
				Itchy Rash
				Bad stomach pain
				Black or bloody poos
			Vomiting brown liquid	
Treatment targets	If no kidney disease SBP<130 and DBP <80mmHg If kidney disease SBP<125 and DBP <75mmHg	If no kidney disease SBP<130 and DBP <80mmHg If kidney disease SBP<125 and DBP <75mmHg	LDL < 3.4mmol/L	

Patient knowledge was assessed by first inviting the patient to tell the nurse/health educator about that medicine. When the participant had volunteered as much information as they could, the nurse/educator would then provide a prompt about information the participant had not mentioned e.g. ‘can you tell me about the serious side effects of...’.

Participants were recruited between 18/2/2013 and 29/11/2013.

### Statistical analysis

Continuous variables are reported using means and standard deviation. Categorical data are expressed as percentages and 95% confidence intervals (95%CI). All categorical data have been calculated using a binomial distribution. Histograms were used to determine whether continuous data were normally distributed. Medication knowledge scores were calculated as the percentage of questions answered correctly in each assessment. In descriptive analyses estimates were determined to vary significantly from each other if the 95%CI did not overlap.

Generalised estimating equations were used to investigate change in the proportion of questions answered correctly across the pre and post assessments for each session. The analysis was based on a linear scale response. It controlled for country and diabetes status. All analyses were performed using SPSS, version 22 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, Ill, USA).

## RESULTS

1 In total 171 participants were recruited and completed session one. Session two was completed by 166  
2 participants (97.1%) and 160 participants (93.6%) completed session three. Of the 11 participants who  
3 did not complete the intervention, one patient did not complete as they were admitted to an aged care  
4 residential facility; the remaining ten participants were lost to follow up.  
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9 Table 3 provides site specific and aggregated baseline data. Baseline characteristics did not vary by  
10 site with regards to gender, time with CVD, prevalence of gout, study medications at baseline, number  
11 of medication classes taken at baseline, medication allergy/side effects, blood pressure or lipids. There  
12 were significant site differences with regards to type of CVD, number of CVD diagnoses, the  
13 prevalence of diabetes, congestive heart failure (CHF) and COPD, as well as the number of co-  
14 morbidities (Table 3). Participants at the NZ rural site were older than other sites. Myocardial  
15 infarction was more common in the NZ urban site. Prevalence of stroke was significantly higher in  
16 the NZ rural site than Canada site B and Canada site A. All NZ participants had at least one CVD  
17 diagnosis while participants with high risk only were included in the other sites. Diabetes was a  
18 common comorbidity at all sites; however, the prevalence was significantly lower at one NZ site than  
19 the other sites. The prevalence of CHF was significantly higher at the two NZ sites than in the  
20 Australian site. The prevalence of COPD was significantly lower in the NZ rural site than in the four  
21 other sites. The proportion of participants who did not have a co-morbidity was significantly higher at  
22 the NZ rural site than Australia and Canada site B; while the proportion who had two co-morbidities  
23 was significantly lower at the NZ rural site than at the Australian site.  
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Table 3 Baseline characteristics of participants by site and total

	Australia	NZ rural	NZ urban	Canada A	Canada B	Total
<b>Number of participants</b>						
Session one, (n, [%])	29 [100.0]	55 [100]	40 [100]	26 [100]	21 [100]	171 [100]
Session two (n, [%])	24 [82.8]	55[100]	40 [100]	26 [100]	21 [100]	166 [97.1]
Session three (n, [%])	23 [79.3]	54 [98.2]	36 [90.0]	26 [100]	21 [100]	160 [93.6]
<b>Age, years</b> mean [SD]	59 [11]	68 [11]	61 [9]	59 [10]	58 [7]	62 [11]
<b>Male sex</b> n [% male, 95%CI]	18 [62.1, 44.4, 79.7]	21 [38.2, 25.3, 51.0]	17 [42.5, 27.2-57.8]	11 [42.3, 23.3-61.3]	11 [52.4, 31.0-73.7]	78 [45.6, 38.1-53.1]
<b>CVD diagnoses; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
Angina	11 [37.9, 20.3-55.6]	30 [54.5, 41.4-67.7]	27 [67.5, 53.0-82.0]	10[38.5, 19.8-57.2]	10[47.6, 26.3-69.0]	88 [51.5 , 44.0-59.0]
MI	14 [48.3, 30.1-66.5]	17 [30.9, 18.7-43.1]	33 [82.5, 70.7-94.3]	8 [30.8,13.0-48.5]	7 [33.3, 13.2-53.5]	79 [46.2 , 38.7-53.7]
Stroke	6 [20.7, 5.9-35.4]	17 [30.9, 18.7-43.1]	7 [17.5, 5.7-29.3]	1 [3.8, 0.0-11.2]	1 [4.8, 0.0-13.9]	32 [18.7 , 12.9-24.6]
TIA	2 [6.9, 0.0-16.1]	6 [10.9, 2.7-19.1]	4 [10.0, 0.7-19.3]	4 [15.4, 1.5-29.3]	4 [19.0, 2.3-35.8]	20 [11.7, 6.9-16.5]
<b>CVD risk or number of CVD diagnosis; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
High CVD risk only	8 [27.6, 11.3-43.9]	0	0	8 [30.8, 13.0-48.5]	6 [28.6, 9.2-47.9]	22 [12.9, 7.8-17.9]
One	13 [44.8, 26.7-62.9]	40 [72.7, 61.0-84.5]	14 [35.0, 20.2-49.8]	14 [53.8,34.7-73.0]	9 [42.9, 21.7-64.0]	90 [52.6, 45.1-60.1]
Two	5 [17.2, 3.5-31.0]	15 [27.3, 15.5-39.0]	22 [55.0, 39.6-70.4]	3 [11.5, 0.0-23.8]	5 [23.8, 5.6-42.0]	50 [29.2, 22.4-36.1]
Three or more	3 [10.3, 0.0-21.4]	0	4 [7.5, 0.0-15.7]	1 [3.8, 0.0-11.2]	1 [4.8, 0.0-13.9]	7 [4.1, 1.1-7.1]
<b>Time with CVD, years</b> Mean [95%CI]	7.2 [4.4-9.9]	7.5 [5.6-9.4]	7.7 [2.6-12.8]	10.4 [7.3-13.5]	7.9[5.3-10.6]	7.9 [6.6-9.2]
<b>Co-morbidity; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
Diabetes	18 [62.1, 44.4-79.7]	13 [23.6, 12.4-34.9]	22 [55.0, 39.6-70.4]	18 [69.2, 51.5-87.0]	18 [85.7, 70.7-100]	89 [52.0, 44.6-59.5]
CHF	0 [0]	11 [20, 9.4-30.6]	8 [20.0, 7.6-32.4]	1[3.8, 0.0-11.2]	2 [9.5, 0.0-22.1]	22 [12.9, 7.8-17.9]
COPD	14 [48.3, 30.1, 66.5]	5 [9.1, 1.5-16.7]	16 [40.0, 24.8-55.2]	14 [53.8, 34.7-73.0]	8 [38.1, 17.2-58.9]	57 [33.3, 26.3-40.4]
Gout	6 [20.7, 5.9, 35.4]	14 [25.5, 13.9-37.0]	14 [35.0, 20.2-49.8]	2 [7.7, 0.0, 17.9]	4 [19.0, 2.3-35.8]	40 [23.4, 17.0-29.7]
Peptic Ulcer	4 [13.8, 1.2, 26.3]	0 [0]	3 [7.5, 0.0-15.7]	4 [15.4, 1.5-29.3]	3 [14.3, 0.0-29.3]	14 [8.2, 4.1-12.3]
<b>Number of co-morbidities; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
None	3 [10.3, 0.0-21.4]	25 [45.5, 32.3-58.6]	8 [20.0, 7.6-32.4]	5 [19.2, 4.1-34.4]	2 [11.1, 0.0-25.6]	43 [25.6, 18.6-31.6]
One	11 [37.9, 20.3, 55.6]	20 [36.4, 23.7-49.1]	10 [25.0, 11.6-38.4]	8 [30.8, 13.0-48.5]	7 [38.9, 16.4-61.4]	56 [33.3, 26.2-40.5]
Two	14 [48.3, 30.1-66.5]	7 [12.7, 3.9-21.5]	13 [32.5, 18.0-47.0]	10 [38.5, 19.8-57.2]	6 [33.3, 11.6-55.1]	50 [29.8, 22.8-36.7]
Three	1 [3.4, 0.0-10.1]	3 [5.5, 0.0- 11.5]	9 [22.5, 9.6-35.4]	1 [3.8, 0.0- 11.2]	2 [11.1, 0.0-25.6]	16 [9.5, 5.1-14.0]
Four	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	2 [7.7, 0.0- 17.9]	1 [5.6, 0.0-16.1]	3 [1.8, 0.0-3.8]
<b>CVD medications at baseline; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
Statin	29 [100]	51 [92.7, 85.9-99.6]	37 [92.5, 84.3-100]	24 [92.3, 82.1-100]	19 [90.5, 77.9-100]	160 [93.6, 89.9-97.2]
ACE inhibitor	19 [65.5, 48.2-82.8]	31 [56.4, 43.3-69.5]	27 [67.5, 53.0-82.0]	17 [65.4, 47.1-83.7]	12 [57.1,36.0-78.3]	106 [62.0, 54.7-69.3]
BB	15 [51.7, 33.5-69.9]	40 [72.7, 61.0-84.5]	28 [70.0, 55.8-84.2]	12 [46.2, 27.0-65.3]	9 [42.9, 21.7-64.0]	104 [60.8, 53.5-68.1]

Aspirin	23 [79.3, 64.6-94.1]	46 [83.6 73.9-93.4]	36 [90.0, 80.7-99.3]	20 [76.9, 60.7-93.1]	15 [66.7, 46.5-86.8]	140 [81.9, 76.1-87.6]
<b>Number of CVD medications classes; n [% , 95% CI]</b>						
One	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]
Two	11 [37.9, 20.3-55.6]	15 [27.3, 15.5-39.0]	7 [17.5, 5.7-29.3]	10 [38.5, 19.8-57.2]	11 [52.4, 31.0-73.7]	54 [31.6, 24.6-38.5]
Three	8 [27.6, 11.3-43.9]	22 [40.0, 27.1-52.9]	18 [45.0, 29.6-60.4]	12 [46.2, 27.0-65.3]	7 [33.3, 13.2-53.5]	67 [39.2, 31.9-46.5]
Four	10 [34.5, 17.2-51.8]	18 [32.7, 20.3-45.1]	15 [37.5, 22.5-52.5]	4 [15.4, 1.5-29.3]	3 [14.3, 0.0-29.3]	50 [29.2, 22.4-36.1]
<b>Allergy / side effect; n [% , 95% CI]</b>						
Statin	0 [0]	1 [1.8, 0.0-5.3]	1 [2.5, 0.0-7.3]	1 [3.8, 0.0-11.2]	2 [9.5, 0.0-22.1]	5 [2.9, 0.4-5.4]
ACE inhibitor	0 [0]	2 [3.6, 0.0-8.6]	1 [2.5, 0.0-7.3]	0 [0]	1 [4.8, 0.0-13.9]	4 [2.3, 0.1-4.6]
BB	1, [3.4, 0.0-10.1]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	1 [0.6, 0.0-1.7]
Aspirin	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	1 [3.8, 0.0-11.2]	2 [0.0-22.1]	3 [1.8, 0.0-3.7]
<b>Systolic BP mmHg; mean, [95% CI]</b>	130.2[124.3-136.0]	131.5[127.8-135.2]	134.7[128.8-140.6]	131.4 [125.4-137.4]	129.5 [123.1-136.0]	131.6 [129.3-133.8]
Systolic BP (range)	87-154	97-161	111-172	111-173	103-166	87-173
<b>Diastolic BP; mean, [95% CI]</b>	82.0, [77.8-86.2]	79.0 [76.9-81.1]	81.7 [78.1-85.3]	77.0 [73.4-80.6]	74.2 [69.7-78.7]	79.0 [77.6-80.5]
Diastolic BP (range)	65-112	57-99	60-103	63-98	52-87	52-112
<b>Lipids mmol/L; mean, [95% CI]</b>						
LDL	2.32, [2.01-2.63]	2.82 [2.58-3.05]	2.31 [2.04-2.58]	2.34 [1.86-2.81]	2.40 [1.96-2.84]	2.50 [2.36-2.64]
LDL (range)	1.05-3.55	1.10-5.05	0.75-3.90	0.73-4.68	0.50-4.23	0.50-5.05
HDL	1.10, [1.01-1.20]	1.14 [1.07-1.20]	1.10 [1.00-1.20]	1.08 [0.96-1.20]	1.19 [1.05-1.33]	1.12 [1.08-1.16]
HDL (range)	0.60-1.65	0.80-1.85	0.78-1.94	0.50-1.66	1.97-1.19	0.50-1.97

Health literacy knowledge scores: Pre-session one knowledge of all four medications was low with mean percent correct highest for statins (34.0% correct answers), 29.4% for aspirin, 26.0% for beta blockers and 22.7% for ACE inhibitors. For all four medications, the knowledge scores increased significantly in the post-session one assessments. Knowledge scores fell slightly in the interval between the post-session one and pre-session two assessments and rose in the post-session two assessments. A similar pattern was observed in the assessments associated with session three. (Table 4)

**Table 4 Unadjusted mean percent correct items in knowledge questionnaire, by medication**

	n	Pre-session knowledge Mean [95%CI]	Post-session knowledge Mean [95%CI]	% Difference [95%CI]
<b>Statin</b>				
Session 1	160	34.0 [30.1-38.8]	90.6 [88.0-93.3]	56.7 [49.0-64.3]
Session 2	155	85.4 [81.9-88.8]	96.1 [94.1-98.1]	10.7 [5.8-15.5]
Session 3	151	92.3 [89.9-94.7]	98.2 [97.2-99.3]	6.0 [2.2-9.7]
<b>Aspirin</b>				
Session 1	140	29.4 [27.4-31.4]	92.9 [90.8-95.1]	63.5 [55.5-71.5]
Session 2	134	87.1 [83.7-90.5]	96.3 [94.6-98.0]	9.2 [4.3-14.1]
Session 3	129	91.5 [89.0-94.1]	98.6 [97.6-99.7]	7.1 [2.6-11.6]
<b>ACE inhibitor</b>				
Session 1	106	22.7 [19.7-25.8]	87.0 [83.6-90.5]	64.3 [55.2-73.4]
Session 2	102	83.0 [78.8-87.3]	94.3 [91.9-96.6]	11.3 [5.1-17.4]
Session 3	95	90.2 [87.1-93.3]	96.5 [94.5-98.5]	6.3 [1.4-11.2]
<b>Beta blocker</b>				
Session 1	104	26.0 [21.9-30.2]	88.8 [85.7-92.0]	62.8 [53.5-72.1]
Session 2	101	85.8 [81.6-90.0]	96.1 [94.3-98.0]	10.4 [4.4-16.3]
Session 3	97	89.2 [86.0-92.5]	97.7 [96.2-99.1]	8.4 [2.9-14.0]

Adjusted analyses showed highly significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) increases in knowledge scores between pre-session and post-session assessments at all three time points for all medication classes. (Table 3) For the four medications, the absolute increases in items answered correctly from pre-session one to post-session three assessments were statins 60.1%, aspirin 76.8%, ACE inhibitor 71.4%, and beta blocker 69.5%. (Table 5)

**Table 5 Multivariable analysis for CVD medications change in % items correct in knowledge questionnaire\***

	n	Pre-knowledge score Mean [95%CI]	Post-knowledge score Mean [95%CI]	B [95%CI]	p value
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<b>Statin</b>					
Session 1	160	37.4 [34.3-40.9]	87.8 [84.9-90.9]	3.50 [3.06-3.01]	<0.001
Session 2	155	84.0 [80.5-87.7]	94.9 [92.1-97.8]	1.14 [1.09-1.19]	<0.001
Session 3	151	91.2 [88.8-93.7]	97.5 [96.1-98.9]	1.07 [1.04-1.10]	<0.001
<b>Aspirin</b>					
Session 1	140	30.7 [28.9-32.6]	92.4 [89.9-94.9]	3.01 [2.83-3.20]	<0.001
Session 2	134	86.5 [83.1-90.0]	96.0 [93.9-98.1]	1.11 [1.07-1.15]	<0.001
Session 3	129	91.3 [88.8,93.9]	98.5 [ 96.8-100]	1.08 [1.05-1.11]	<0.001
<b>ACE inhibitor</b>					
Session 1	106	24.5[21.7-27.7]	84.7 [80.6-89.0]	3.50 [3.06- 3.91]	<0.001
Session 2	102	81.6 [77.4-86.1]	93.2[90.3-96.2]	1.14 [ 1.09-1.19]	<0.001
Session 3	95	89.5 [86.6-92.4]	95.9 [94.2-97.8]	1.07 [1.04-1.10]	<0.001
<b>Beta blocker</b>					
Session 1	104	27.9 [24.3-32.0]	84.0 [79.5-88.9]	3.01 [2.60-3.49]	<0.001
Session 2	101	84.6 [80.0-89.4]	94.4 [91.4-97.5]	1.12 [ 1.07-1.16]	<0.001
Session 3	97	88.8 [85.7-92.1]	97.4 [95.4-99.5]	1.10 [1.06-1.13]	<0.001

\*Model included site and diabetes comorbidity

## DISCUSSION

According to the Ottawa Charter, enabling people to have increased control over their health leads to improved health.[40] Health literacy was initially viewed as a patient factor that could be used as a risk factor or a marker for poor outcomes. In recent years discussions regarding health literacy have broadened to include the role that health systems, services and health professionals play in determining the level of health literacy required to successfully navigate health services, and supporting patients to build their health literacy skills and capabilities so they are better equipped to meet their health needs.[32, 41][42] The intervention used in this trial systematically incorporated several approaches to achieve this including health professional training and interactive resources (electronic tablet application, pill card and booklet). Furthermore, the session was repeated to reinforce and further develop participants' knowledge and skill acquisition. This intervention sought to build health literacy skills such as knowledge and the ability to both access and use health information.

The findings in regards to medication knowledge were observed in all four medication classes. At baseline, knowledge of all four medication classes was low. The intervention resulted in significant increases in knowledge that were largest in the first session but were also observed in subsequent sessions, and were sustained between sessions, suggesting that participants were retaining and spontaneously recalling information.

1 Kripalani et al (2011) demonstrated that training increased physicians' confidence to counsel patients  
2 with low health literacy about medication use.[42] In this study we provided training to the Indigenous  
3 health practitioners who delivered the intervention.  
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6 There are clear benefits to culturally appropriate and community specific interventions. Culturally  
7 appropriate interventions have previously demonstrated an association with improved health  
8 knowledge about diabetes and CVD.[43, 44] Counselling that incorporates successful adult education  
9 techniques such as reinforcement and feedback, teachback, assessing and confirming patients  
10 understandings and patient tailored information all build health literacy.[42, 45] Research involving  
11 pill cards for health literacy has tended to focused on pill cards as a management tool for low health  
12 literate populations as opposed to assessing how they build health literacy skills and capabilities.  
13 These studies have demonstrated effectiveness in improving adherence amongst low health literacy  
14 populations when used as a stand alone tool [46] and when used in combination with counselling by a  
15 health professional trained in adult education techniques.[47]  
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23 Inadequate knowledge about medications is associated with intermittent or non-adherence to  
24 medications which, in turn, is associated with worse outcomes including poorer control of risk factors,  
25 increased hospitalisations, morbidity and mortality.[20, 23, 48] This study showed that baseline  
26 knowledge about cardiovascular medicines was low among Indigenous people in Australia, Canada  
27 and New Zealand. This low baseline knowledge is consistent with published information about health  
28 literacy levels in Indigenous populations.[34] However, this finding is unlikely to be unique to these  
29 populations as poor health literacy also is seen in significant proportions of the non-Indigenous  
30 populations.[34] The reported low baseline medication knowledge in this study is also congruent with  
31 studies for non-Indigenous populations where low medication knowledge has been reported.[48, 49]  
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40 This study has several strengths including very good retention rates across the intervention period.  
41 Intervention trials located within Indigenous communities are rare. Brega et al (2013) found that the  
42 'Honouring the Gift of Heart Health' intervention increased knowledge about CVD, symptoms  
43 associated with MI and CVA and CVD risk factor control, in both high and low health literacy groups  
44 of American Indian and Alaska Native peoples.[43] The current study and that of Brega et al (2013)  
45 demonstrate that appropriately designed interventions can be successfully implemented in Indigenous  
46 communities. This study is imbued with Indigenous research principles and practices including  
47 Indigenous leadership, partnership with Indigenous health services, incorporation of local Indigenous  
48 design features in the intervention, embedding of culturally appropriate processes and protocols within  
49 the design and conduct of the trial, and the development of the Indigenous health professionals' and  
50 services' capacity to undertake research and to respond to health literacy needs within their  
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communities.[36-38, 50-52] While Indigenous led, participatory research is increasing, there a few existing examples involving a complex multi-site intervention trial.

Much of the current health literacy literature is descriptive. The intervention described here offers solutions to improving Indigenous health and experiences with the health system. Although CVD is common, this study is one of the first to examine the effect of an intervention to improve CVD medication health literacy in any population group. Many measures of health literacy e.g. the Test of Functional Health Literacy in Adults and the Rapid Estimate of Adult Literacy in Medicine are based on generic language and numeracy skills. However, knowledge has been shown to provide a strong indication of health literacy for specific conditions.[31] This study measured health literacy in terms of knowledge about CVD medication and health literacy practices such as using health resources.

There are three potential limitations to this study. First, we have not used a control group. There was a high risk of contamination between intervention and control groups because the small, close-knit nature of the communities meant it would be difficult to prevent sharing of information and project resources. Contamination was also possible if the nurses/educators inadvertently used skills/information acquired during training when providing usual care to the control group. Furthermore, to obtain an appropriate sample size, all eligible participants in the health services had to receive the intervention. Ascertaining whether the observed effects were due to the intervention or to other unmeasured factors is challenging given the lack of a control group. The pattern of change within sessions supports an intervention effect, as does the relatively short time (one month) from sessions one to three. The intervention was delivered at five sites in three countries and the results are remarkably consistent across all sites, providing further support for intervention effect rather than unmeasured factors which are unlikely to be the same in all three countries. Although the findings were similar across all sites in the three countries and between an urban and rural site in NZ, further studies could assess whether the intervention is as effective in Indigenous populations who receive care from non-Indigenous health services and on the effect of the intervention with non-Indigenous population groups. Secondly, follow up data assessing changes in knowledge beyond the immediate duration of the programme has not been collected. The purpose of the project was to assess the effectiveness of a customised, structured medication education programme that incorporated strategies based on adult education principles to support the development of participant's health literacy. Accurate retention of information requires regular reinforcement of knowledge. Future implementation of the programme should occur within long term CVD management in primary care services where patients are seen regularly, providing on-going opportunities for reassessment, reinforcement of existing knowledge and, where indicated, the provision of new information. Thus, the immediate effect of the programme is of more interest than longer-term follow-up for a 'one off'

programme. Finally, we have not assessed the effect of improved knowledge on clinical outcomes.

Assessment of these outcomes requires a much larger sample size and longer time frame than that used in this study. Furthermore, literature discussing the impact of health literacy interventions on adherence suggests that, although increasing health literacy skills and knowledge contributes to improvements in adherence,[46, 53] other factors such as self-efficacy also play an important role.[54-56] Future research that addresses a wider range of these factors could investigate the effects of health literacy interventions like this on clinical outcomes for patients.

Health professionals and healthcare organisations play a central role in ensuring that the needs of patients with low health literacy are being met. By adapting current systems of care for patients with low health literacy health professionals and healthcare organisations can support the development of Indigenous patients' CVD medication knowledge and health literacy practices. The evidence presented here suggests that systematic approaches operating at the interface of health professional and patient are likely to improve the health literacy of Indigenous people and in turn improve health equity. The findings from this study have important implications for populations with low health literacy more generally.

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#### **AUTHOR STATEMENT**

SC led the design of the project and the international and NZ research, contributed to data analysis and wrote the manuscript. JL collected data, undertook data analysis, and contributed to writing the manuscript. ML participated in study design, was responsible for international and NZ coordination of the study, contributed to data analysis and collaborated in drafting the manuscript. SR contributed to study design and implementation and collaborated in drafting manuscript. JH, JS contributed to study design, coordinated study at study sites and collaborated in drafting the manuscript. JS led the Canadian research team. MK participated in design, led the Australian research, undertook data analysis and collaborated in drafting the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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**DATA SHARING STATEMENT:**

The data are owned and under the control of the Indigenous health services and communities from which it was obtained. Requests to access the data will need to go through the approval processes required by these groups. For further information, please contact the corresponding author.

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# BMJ Open

## Effect of a health literacy intervention (pre – post, multiple time points) on knowledge about cardiovascular disease medications among Indigenous peoples in Australia, Canada, and New Zealand

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**Effect of a health literacy intervention (pre – post, multiple time points) on knowledge about cardiovascular disease medications among Indigenous peoples in Australia, Canada, and New Zealand**

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**ABSTRACT**

**OBJECTIVES:** To assess the effect of a customised, structured cardiovascular disease medication health literacy programme on medication knowledge among Indigenous people with, or at high risk, of cardiovascular disease.

Design: Intervention trial with pre and post measures at multiple time points. Trial ID ACTRN12612001309875

**SETTING:** Indigenous primary care services in Australia, Canada and New Zealand.

**PARTICIPANTS:** 171 Indigenous people aged  $\geq 20$  years of age who had at least one clinical diagnosis of a CVD event OR, in Canada and Australia, had a 5-year CVD risk  $\geq 15\%$ ; and were prescribed at least two of the following CVD medication classes: statin, aspirin, ACE inhibitors, beta blockers.

**INTERVENTION:** An education session delivered on three occasions over one month by registered nurses or health educators who had received training in health literacy and principles of adult education. An interactive tablet application was used during each session and an information booklet and pillcard provided to participants.

**PRIMARY OUTCOME MEASURES:** Knowledge about the CVD medications assessed before and after each session.

**RESULTS:** Knowledge at baseline (pre-session 1) was low with the mean percent correct answers highest for statins (34.0% correct answers), 29.4% for aspirin, 26.0% for beta blockers and 22.7% for ACE inhibitors. Adjusted analyses showed highly significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) increases in knowledge scores between pre and post assessments at all three time points for all medication classes. For the four medications, the absolute increases in adjusted percent correct items from pre-session one to post-session three assessments were statins 60.1%, aspirin 76.8%, ACE inhibitor 71.4%, and beta blocker 69.5%.

**CONCLUSIONS:** The intervention was highly effective in contextually diverse Indigenous primary health care services in Australia, Canada and New Zealand. The findings from this study have important implications for health services working with populations with low health literacy more generally.

**STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY**

- Well designed, cross-country multi-site pre-post intervention trial
- cross-country multi-site intervention trials with Indigenous communities that successfully incorporates Indigenous research principles, processes and practices - are rare.
- High retention rates.
- Measures health literacy in terms of medication knowledge only.
- A control group has not been used because of sample size considerations and due to the risk of contamination in small communities.
- Does not assess effect of the intervention on clinical outcomes/medication adherence.

For peer review only

## INTRODUCTION

1 Although Māori (New Zealand), Aboriginal (Australia) and First Nations (Canada) peoples are distinct  
2 Indigenous populations, their shared history of colonisation, historically and in its contemporary  
3 expressions, has resulted in similar patterns of inequity in health and social outcomes, relative to the  
4 non-Indigenous populations in each country. [1, 2] In recent decades, cardiovascular disease (CVD)  
5 mortality and morbidity inequities experienced by Indigenous populations have received increasing  
6 attention.[3-5] The prevalence of CVD risk factors and mortality and hospitalisation rates have been  
7 well documented for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander populations in Australia,[6] First Nations,  
8 Inuit and Metis populations in Canada,[7] and Māori populations in New Zealand (NZ).[8, 9]  
9 Prevention and management of CVD for Indigenous populations is of central importance given the  
10 described burden of CVD and inequities experienced by these populations. Evidence-based guidelines  
11 for primary and secondary prevention of CVD are widely available and emphasise ‘lifestyle’ and  
12 medications management.[10-12] However, CVDs are long term conditions and self-management by  
13 patients and their families is essential for good outcomes.[13, 14] Capacity to effectively self-manage  
14 long term conditions is influenced by an array of factors including, in the case of CVD, knowledge  
15 about risk factors and medications.[15] Available literature describing patient CVD knowledge  
16 primarily focuses on risk factors and risk assessment, with a lack of equivalent emphasis on  
17 medication knowledge.[16-21] Further investigation with regard to knowledge about medications is  
18 needed, as inadequate medication knowledge is associated with intermittent and non-adherence to  
19 medications.[22] Intermittent and non-adherence has been reported for Indigenous populations [23,  
20 24] and is associated with poorer health outcomes including increased hospitalisations, morbidity, and  
21 mortality, and inadequate control of risk factors for disease.[25, 26] Inadequate knowledge about a  
22 broader group of medications has been found among an Indigenous prison population, however at  
23 present limited data exists to describe knowledge for CVD medications specifically.[27]

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40 Health literacy is defined as the ‘the degree to which individuals have the capacity to obtain, process,  
41 and understand basic health information and services needed to make appropriate health decisions.[28]  
42 Health literacy is integral to patient knowledge and self-management. Low levels of health literacy are  
43 associated with a range of adverse health outcomes.[28-34] More recently it has been recognised that  
44 the health system, healthcare organisations and health professionals are critical to reducing health  
45 literacy demands and developing the health literacy of patients.[35]

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51 In NZ a higher proportion of the Māori population has low levels of health literacy than the non-Māori  
52 population.[36] While rigorous population-based data for Indigenous populations in Australia and  
53 Canada are lacking, the needs of these populations are likely to be similar to those in NZ, given the  
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1 similar inequities in health and education observed between Indigenous and non-Indigenous people in  
2 all these countries.  
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4 A customised, structured CVD medication health literacy intervention was developed during a  
5 development phase that included in-depth interviews with community members who were taking CVD  
6 prevention medications. Interview participants described their knowledge about their medications,  
7 what they would like to know about these medications, and how they would like to be provided with  
8 this information. Participant's responses in relation to these topics were similar in all three countries.  
9 While content was the same across all three countries, all resources were customised for use with the  
10 three different Indigenous groups. This included graphics, images, and Indigenous words and phrases  
11 used throughout the resources.  
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18 The objective of this study was to assess the effect of a customised, structured cardiovascular disease  
19 medication health literacy programme on medication knowledge among Indigenous people with, or at  
20 high risk, of cardiovascular disease.  
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## 24 **METHODS**

25 A detailed trial protocol has been published elsewhere [37]. In brief, the trial used a multi-site pre-  
26 post design with multiple measurement points. Ethics approvals were obtained from the Health and  
27 Disabilities Ethics Committees in NZ (MEC/10/061/EXP), the Human Research Ethics Committee at  
28 the University of Melbourne, Australia (HREC 1238349.1) and the Saint Michael's Hospital Research  
29 Ethics Board, Toronto, Canada (REB #: 10-324). The study was registered with the Australian and  
30 New Zealand Clinical Trials Register on 18 December 2012 (ACTRN12612001309875). Community  
31 engagement and research processes were consistent with guidelines for research with Indigenous  
32 communities.[38-41]  
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41 The intervention was implemented in Indigenous primary health care services in Australia (one urban  
42 service), Canada (one service with two urban sites), and NZ (one urban and one rural service). Primary  
43 outcomes were patient's knowledge about CVD medications (statins, beta blockers ACE inhibitors and  
44 aspirin). Secondary outcomes examined changes in health literacy skills and practices. This paper  
45 reports the results of a combined (three country) analysis of the primary outcomes (medication  
46 knowledge).  
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52 In NZ and Canada potential participants were identified from the health services' medical records. In  
53 Australia eligible participants were referred by their general practitioner, Aboriginal health worker, or  
54 pharmacist. Eligibility criteria were that participants were Indigenous people aged  $\geq 20$  years of age;  
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had at least one clinical diagnosis of a CVD event (angina, myocardial infarction, ischaemic stroke or transient ischemic attack) OR, for Canada and Australia, had a 5 year CVD risk  $\geq 15\%$ ; were prescribed at least two of the following CVD medication classes: statin, aspirin, ACE inhibitors, beta blockers; and could provide informed consent to participate.

The intervention consisted of an education session delivered by registered nurses or health educators who had received training in health literacy and adult education principles to support the development of health literacy knowledge and skills. An interactive tablet application was used during each session. The application also produced a customised pill card for each participant. At the first session a booklet containing information about CVD, medication use, the four CVD medication classes, and treatment targets for lipid and blood pressure was given to all participants. Information in the tablet and booklet was standardised across all three countries; however, background graphic design features, images and Indigenous language words and phrases were country specific. The use of the application ensured that the nurse/educator covered all the CVD medication information in a structured way and, in the context of a trial, standardised the provision of information across all five sites. The education session was delivered three times over four weeks. (Table 1) The programme was customised for each participant so they only received information about the medication classes they were taking.

### Data collection

Table 1 summarises data collection at each time point.

**Table 1 Summary of trial contacts and data collection**

Activity	Time point	Measurement
Enrolment visit	T0	Consent and enrolment in study. In Canada baseline demographic and clinical information was also collected at this visit.
Session one	T1 - Pre-session one	Baseline demographic and clinical information (NZ, Australia) Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
	T2 - Post-session one	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
Session two.	T3 - Pre-session two	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
Seven days after session one.	T4 - Post-session two	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
Session three.	T5 - Pre-session three	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
28 days after session one.	T6 - Post-session three	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices

Baseline data was collected from participants and from the health service's medical records.

Outcome measures for statins, ACE inhibitors, aspirin and beta blockers assessed knowledge of the scientific and brand names of the medications, what the medication does, how to take it, important side effects, and lipid and blood pressure treatment targets. The number of items in the outcome questionnaire varied for each medication class. There were 9 items for statins, 11 for beta blockers, 12 for ACE inhibitors and 13 for aspirin (Table 2).

**Table 2 Items in outcome measures**

	<b>ACE inhibitors</b>	<b>Beta Blockers</b>	<b>Statin</b>	<b>Aspirin</b>
Name of medication (scientific or brand)	Eg of Scientific name Perindopril Eg of Brand name <i>Conversyl</i>	Eg of Scientific name Atenolol Eg of Brand name <i>Noten</i>	Eg of Scientific name Atorvastatin Eg of Brand name <i>Lipitor</i>	Eg of Scientific name Aspirin Eg of Brand name <i>Cardia</i>
Pronounced correctly	Yes / No	Yes / No	Yes / No	Yes / No
Name of medication (class)	ACE inhibitor	Beta Blocker	Statin	Aspirin
Pronounced correctly	Yes / No	Yes / No	Yes / No	Yes / No
Function/s	Lowers blood pressure	Lowers blood pressure	Lowers cholesterol	Stops you having blood clots
	Protects heart and kidneys	Protects heart		Take with food or after eating
Instruction/s	Start on low dose and increase	Take at the same time every day	Take with evening meal	Take indigestion medication 2hrs after taking Aspirin
	Blood tests every 6 months	Do not suddenly stop taking	Avoid grapefruit juice	
	Avoid food with too much Potassium			
Serious side effects	Tongue, lips, or face swell up	Dizzy or faint	Muscle pain, tenderness or weakness	Tongue, lips, or face swell up
	Dizzy or faint	Breathing problems or asthma		Dizzy or faint
				Itchy Rash
				Bad stomach pain
				Black or bloody poos
				Vomiting brown liquid
Treatment targets	If no kidney disease SBP<130 and DBP <80mmHg If kidney disease SBP<125 and DBP <75mmHg	If no kidney disease SBP<130 and DBP <80mmHg If kidney disease SBP<125 and DBP <75mmHg	LDL < 3.4mmol/L	

Patient knowledge was assessed by first inviting the patient to tell the nurse/health educator about that medicine. When the participant had volunteered as much information as they could, the nurse/educator would then provide a prompt about information the participant had not mentioned e.g. ‘can you tell me about the serious side effects of...’.

Participants were recruited between 18/2/2013 and 29/11/2013.

## Statistical analysis

Continuous variables are reported using means and standard deviation. Categorical data are expressed as percentages and 95% confidence intervals (95%CI). All categorical data analyses have been calculated using a binomial distribution. Histograms were used to determine whether continuous data were normally distributed. Medication knowledge scores were calculated as the percentage of questions answered correctly in each assessment. In descriptive analyses estimates were determined to vary significantly from each other if the 95%CI did not overlap.

Generalised estimating equations were used to investigate change in the proportion of questions answered correctly across the pre and post assessments for each session. The analysis was based on a linear scale response. It controlled for site and diabetes comorbidity. All analyses were performed using SPSS, version 22 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, Ill, USA).

## RESULTS

In total 171 participants were recruited and completed session one. Session two was completed by 166 participants (97.1%) and 160 participants (93.6%) completed session three. Of the 11 participants who did not complete the intervention, one patient did not complete as they were admitted to an aged care residential facility; the remaining ten participants were lost to follow up.

Table 3 provides site specific and aggregated baseline data. Baseline characteristics did not vary by site with regards to age, sex, time with CVD, prevalence of gout, study medications at baseline, number of medication classes taken at baseline, medication allergy/side effects, blood pressure or lipids. There were significant site differences with regards to type of CVD, number of CVD diagnoses, the prevalence of diabetes, congestive heart failure (CHF) and COPD, as well as the number of co-morbidities (Table 3). Participants at the NZ rural site were older than other sites. Myocardial infarction was more common in the NZ urban site. Prevalence of stroke was significantly higher in the NZ rural site than Canada site B and Canada site A. All NZ participants had at least one CVD diagnosis while participants with high risk only were included in the other sites. Diabetes was a common comorbidity at all sites; however, the prevalence was significantly lower at one NZ site than the other sites. The prevalence of CHF was significantly higher at the two NZ sites than in the Australian site. The prevalence of COPD was significantly lower in the NZ rural site than in the four other sites. The proportion of participants who did not have a co-morbidity was significantly higher at the NZ rural site than Australia and Canada site B; while the proportion who had two co-morbidities was significantly lower at the NZ rural site than at the Australian site.

Table 3 Baseline characteristics of participants by site and total

	Australia	NZ rural	NZ urban	Canada A	Canada B	Total
<b>Number of participants</b>						
Session one, (n, [%])	29 [100.0]	55 [100]	40 [100]	26 [100]	21 [100]	171 [100]
Session two (n, [%])	24 [82.8]	55[100]	40 [100]	26 [100]	21 [100]	166 [97.1]
Session three (n, [%])	23 [79.3]	54 [98.2]	36 [90.0]	26 [100]	21 [100]	160 [93.6]
<b>Age, years</b> mean [SD]	59 [11]	68 [11]	61 [9]	59 [10]	58 [7]	62 [11]
<b>Male sex</b> n [% male, 95%CI]	18 [62.1, 44.4, 79.7]	21 [38.2, 25.3, 51.0]	17 [42.5, 27.2-57.8]	11 [42.3, 23.3-61.3]	11 [52.4, 31.0-73.7]	78 [45.6, 38.1-53.1]
<b>CVD diagnoses; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
Angina	11 [37.9, 20.3-55.6]	30 [54.5, 41.4-67.7]	27 [67.5, 53.0-82.0]	10[38.5, 19.8-57.2]	10[47.6, 26.3-69.0]	88 [51.5 , 44.0-59.0]
MI	14 [48.3, 30.1-66.5]	17 [30.9, 18.7-43.1]	33 [82.5, 70.7-94.3]	8 [30.8,13.0-48.5]	7 [33.3, 13.2-53.5]	79 [46.2 , 38.7-53.7]
Stroke	6 [20.7, 5.9-35.4]	17 [30.9, 18.7-43.1]	7 [17.5, 5.7-29.3]	1 [3.8, 0.0-11.2]	1 [4.8, 0.0-13.9]	32 [18.7 , 12.9-24.6]
TIA	2 [6.9, 0.0-16.1]	6 [10.9, 2.7-19.1]	4 [10.0, 0.7-19.3]	4 [15.4, 1.5-29.3]	4 [19.0, 2.3-35.8]	20 [11.7, 6.9-16.5]
<b>CVD risk or number of CVD diagnosis; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
High CVD risk only	8 [27.6, 11.3-43.9]	0	0	8 [30.8, 13.0-48.5]	6 [28.6, 9.2-47.9]	22 [12.9, 7.8-17.9]
One	13 [44.8, 26.7-62.9]	40 [72.7, 61.0-84.5]	14 [35.0, 20.2-49.8]	14 [53.8,34.7-73.0]	9 [42.9, 21.7-64.0]	90 [52.6, 45.1-60.1]
Two	5 [17.2, 3.5-31.0]	15 [27.3, 15.5-39.0]	22 [55.0, 39.6-70.4]	3 [11.5, 0.0-23.8]	5 [23.8, 5.6-42.0]	50 [29.2, 22.4-36.1]
Three or more	3 [10.3, 0.0-21.4]	0	4 [7.5, 0.0-15.7]	1 [3.8, 0.0-11.2]	1 [4.8, 0.0-13.9]	7 [4.1, 1.1-7.1]
<b>Time with CVD, years</b> Mean [95%CI]	7.2 [4.4-9.9]	7.5 [5.6-9.4]	7.7 [2.6-12.8]	10.4 [7.3-13.5]	7.9[5.3-10.6]	7.9 [6.6-9.2]
<b>Co-morbidity; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
Diabetes	18 [62.1, 44.4-79.7]	13 [23.6, 12.4-34.9]	22 [55.0, 39.6-70.4]	18 [69.2, 51.5-87.0]	18 [85.7, 70.7-100]	89 [52.0, 44.6-59.5]
CHF	0 [0]	11 [20, 9.4-30.6]	8 [20.0, 7.6-32.4]	1[3.8, 0.0-11.2]	2 [9.5, 0.0-22.1]	22 [12.9, 7.8-17.9]
COPD	14 [48.3, 30.1, 66.5]	5 [9.1, 1.5-16.7]	16 [40.0, 24.8-55.2]	14 [53.8, 34.7-73.0]	8 [38.1, 17.2-58.9]	57 [33.3, 26.3-40.4]
Gout	6 [20.7, 5.9, 35.4]	14 [25.5, 13.9-37.0]	14 [35.0, 20.2-49.8]	2 [7.7, 0.0, 17.9]	4 [19.0, 2.3-35.8]	40 [23.4, 17.0-29.7]
Peptic Ulcer	4 [13.8, 1.2, 26.3]	0 [0]	3 [7.5, 0.0-15.7]	4 [15.4, 1.5-29.3]	3 [14.3, 0.0-29.3]	14 [8.2, 4.1-12.3]
<b>Number of co-morbidities; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
None	3 [10.3, 0.0-21.4]	25 [45.5, 32.3-58.6]	8 [20.0, 7.6-32.4]	5 [19.2, 4.1-34.4]	2 [11.1, 0.0-25.6]	43 [25.6, 18.6-31.6]
One	11 [37.9, 20.3, 55.6]	20 [36.4, 23.7-49.1]	10 [25.0, 11.6-38.4]	8 [30.8, 13.0-48.5]	7 [38.9, 16.4-61.4]	56 [33.3, 26.2-40.5]
Two	14 [48.3, 30.1-66.5]	7 [12.7, 3.9-21.5]	13 [32.5, 18.0-47.0]	10 [38.5, 19.8-57.2]	6 [33.3, 11.6-55.1]	50 [29.8, 22.8-36.7]
Three	1 [3.4, 0.0-10.1]	3 [5.5, 0.0- 11.5]	9 [22.5, 9.6-35.4]	1 [3.8, 0.0- 11.2]	2 [11.1, 0.0-25.6]	16 [9.5, 5.1-14.0]
Four	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	2 [7.7, 0.0- 17.9]	1 [5.6, 0.0-16.1]	3 [1.8, 0.0-3.8]
<b>CVD medications at baseline; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
Statin	29 [100]	51 [92.7, 85.9-99.6]	37 [92.5, 84.3-100]	24 [92.3, 82.1-100]	19 [90.5, 77.9-100]	160 [93.6, 89.9-97.2]
ACE inhibitor	19 [65.5, 48.2-82.8]	31 [56.4, 43.3-69.5]	27 [67.5, 53.0-82.0]	17 [65.4, 47.1-83.7]	12 [57.1,36.0-78.3]	106 [62.0, 54.7-69.3]
BB	15 [51.7, 33.5-69.9]	40 [72.7, 61.0-84.5]	28 [70.0, 55.8-84.2]	12 [46.2, 27.0-65.3]	9 [42.9, 21.7-64.0]	104 [60.8, 53.5-68.1]



Aspirin	23 [79.3, 64.6-94.1]	46 [83.6 73.9-93.4]	36 [90.0, 80.7-99.3]	20 [76.9, 60.7-93.1]	15 [66.7, 46.5-86.8]	140 [81.9, 76.1-87.6]
<b>Number of CVD medications classes; n [% , 95% CI]</b>						
One	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]
Two	11 [37.9, 20.3-55.6]	15 [27.3, 15.5-39.0]	7 [17.5, 5.7-29.3]	10 [38.5, 19.8-57.2]	11 [52.4, 31.0-73.7]	54 [31.6, 24.6-38.5]
Three	8 [27.6, 11.3-43.9]	22 [40.0, 27.1-52.9]	18 [45.0, 29.6-60.4]	12 [46.2, 27.0-65.3]	7 [33.3, 13.2-53.5]	67 [39.2, 31.9-46.5]
Four	10 [34.5, 17.2-51.8]	18 [32.7, 20.3-45.1]	15 [37.5, 22.5-52.5]	4 [15.4, 1.5-29.3]	3 [14.3, 0.0-29.3]	50 [29.2, 22.4-36.1]
<b>Allergy / side effect; n [% , 95% CI]</b>						
Statin	0 [0]	1 [1.8, 0.0-5.3]	1 [2.5, 0.0-7.3]	1 [3.8, 0.0-11.2]	2 [9.5, 0.0-22.1]	5 [2.9, 0.4-5.4]
ACE inhibitor	0 [0]	2 [3.6, 0.0-8.6]	1 [2.5, 0.0-7.3]	0 [0]	1 [4.8, 0.0-13.9]	4 [2.3, 0.1-4.6]
BB	1, [3.4, 0.0-10.1]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	1 [0.6, 0.0-1.7]
Aspirin	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	1 [3.8, 0.0-11.2]	2 [0.0-22.1]	3 [1.8, 0.0-3.7]
<b>Systolic BP mmHg; mean, [95% CI]</b>	130.2[124.3-136.0]	131.5[127.8-135.2]	134.7[128.8-140.6]	131.4 [125.4-137.4]	129.5 [123.1-136.0]	131.6 [129.3-133.8]
Systolic BP (range)	87-154	97-161	111-172	111-173	103-166	87-173
<b>Diastolic BP; mean, [95% CI]</b>	82.0, [77.8-86.2]	79.0 [76.9-81.1]	81.7 [78.1-85.3]	77.0 [73.4-80.6]	74.2 [69.7-78.7]	79.0 [77.6-80.5]
Diastolic BP (range)	65-112	57-99	60-103	63-98	52-87	52-112
<b>Lipids mmol/L; mean, [95% CI]</b>						
LDL	2.32, [2.01-2.63]	2.82 [2.58-3.05]	2.31 [2.04-2.58]	2.34 [1.86-2.81]	2.40 [1.96-2.84]	2.50 [2.36-2.64]
LDL (range)	1.05-3.55	1.10-5.05	0.75-3.90	0.73-4.68	0.50-4.23	0.50-5.05
HDL	1.10, [1.01-1.20]	1.14 [1.07-1.20]	1.10 [1.00-1.20]	1.08 [0.96-1.20]	1.19 [1.05-1.33]	1.12 [1.08-1.16]
HDL (range)	0.60-1.65	0.80-1.85	0.78-1.94	0.50-1.66	1.97-1.19	0.50-1.97

Health literacy knowledge scores: Pre-session one knowledge of all four medications was low with mean percent correct highest for statins (34.0% correct answers), 29.4% for aspirin, 26.0% for beta blockers and 22.7% for ACE inhibitors. For all four medications, the knowledge scores increased significantly in the post-session one assessments. Knowledge scores fell slightly in the interval between the post-session one and pre-session two assessments and rose in the post-session two assessments. A similar pattern was observed in the assessments associated with session three. (Table 4)

**Table 4 Unadjusted mean percent correct items in knowledge questionnaire, by medication**

	n	Pre-session knowledge Mean [95%CI]	Post-session knowledge Mean [95%CI]	% Difference [95%CI]
<b>Statin</b>				
Session 1	160	34.0 [30.1-38.8]	90.6 [88.0-93.3]	56.7 [49.0-64.3]
Session 2	155	85.4 [81.9-88.8]	96.1 [94.1-98.1]	10.7 [5.8-15.5]
Session 3	151	92.3 [89.9-94.7]	98.2 [97.2-99.3]	6.0 [2.2-9.7]
<b>Aspirin</b>				
Session 1	140	29.4 [27.4-31.4]	92.9 [90.8-95.1]	63.5 [55.5-71.5]
Session 2	134	87.1 [83.7-90.5]	96.3 [94.6-98.0]	9.2 [4.3-14.1]
Session 3	129	91.5 [89.0-94.1]	98.6 [97.6-99.7]	7.1 [2.6-11.6]
<b>ACE inhibitor</b>				
Session 1	106	22.7 [19.7-25.8]	87.0 [83.6-90.5]	64.3 [55.2-73.4]
Session 2	102	83.0 [78.8-87.3]	94.3 [91.9-96.6]	11.3 [5.1-17.4]
Session 3	95	90.2 [87.1-93.3]	96.5 [94.5-98.5]	6.3 [1.4-11.2]
<b>Beta blocker</b>				
Session 1	104	26.0 [21.9-30.2]	88.8 [85.7-92.0]	62.8 [53.5-72.1]
Session 2	101	85.8 [81.6-90.0]	96.1 [94.3-98.0]	10.4 [4.4-16.3]
Session 3	97	89.2 [86.0-92.5]	97.7 [96.2-99.1]	8.4 [2.9-14.0]

Adjusted analyses showed highly significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) increases in knowledge scores between pre-session and post-session assessments at all three time points for all medication classes. (Table 5) For the four medications, the absolute increases in items answered correctly from pre-session one to post-session three assessments were statins 60.1%, aspirin 76.8%, ACE inhibitor 71.4%, and beta blocker 69.5%. (Table 5)

**Table 5 Multivariable analysis for CVD medications change in % items correct in knowledge questionnaire\***

	n	Pre-knowledge score Mean [95%CI]	Post-knowledge score Mean [95%CI]	B [95%CI]	p value
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<b>Statin</b>					
Session 1	160	37.4 [34.3-40.9]	87.8 [84.9-90.9]	3.50 [3.06-3.01]	<0.001
Session 2	155	84.0 [80.5-87.7]	94.9 [92.1-97.8]	1.14 [1.09-1.19]	<0.001
Session 3	151	91.2 [88.8-93.7]	97.5 [96.1-98.9]	1.07 [1.04-1.10]	<0.001
<b>Aspirin</b>					
Session 1	140	30.7 [28.9-32.6]	92.4 [89.9-94.9]	3.01 [2.83-3.20]	<0.001
Session 2	134	86.5 [83.1-90.0]	96.0 [93.9-98.1]	1.11 [1.07-1.15]	<0.001
Session 3	129	91.3 [88.8-93.9]	98.5 [96.8-100]	1.08 [1.05-1.11]	<0.001
<b>ACE inhibitor</b>					
Session 1	106	24.5 [21.7-27.7]	84.7 [80.6-89.0]	3.50 [3.06-3.91]	<0.001
Session 2	102	81.6 [77.4-86.1]	93.2 [90.3-96.2]	1.14 [1.09-1.19]	<0.001
Session 3	95	89.5 [86.6-92.4]	95.9 [94.2-97.8]	1.07 [1.04-1.10]	<0.001
<b>Beta blocker</b>					
Session 1	104	27.9 [24.3-32.0]	84.0 [79.5-88.9]	3.01 [2.60-3.49]	<0.001
Session 2	101	84.6 [80.0-89.4]	94.4 [91.4-97.5]	1.12 [1.07-1.16]	<0.001
Session 3	97	88.8 [85.7-92.1]	97.4 [95.4-99.5]	1.10 [1.06-1.13]	<0.001

\*Model included site and diabetes comorbidity

## DISCUSSION

According to the Ottawa Charter, enabling people to have increased control over their health leads to improved health.[42] Health literacy was initially viewed as a patient factor that could be used as a risk factor or a marker for poor outcomes. In recent years discussions regarding health literacy have broadened to include the role that health systems, services and health professionals play in determining the level of health literacy required to successfully navigate health services, and supporting patients to build their health literacy skills and capabilities so they are better equipped to meet their health needs.[34, 43][44] The intervention used in this trial systematically incorporated several approaches to achieve this including health professional training and interactive resources (electronic tablet application, pill card and booklet). Furthermore, the session was repeated to reinforce and further develop participants' knowledge and skill acquisition. This intervention sought to build health literacy skills such as knowledge and the ability to both access and use health information; however, only data about the primary outcome (medication knowledge) are presented in this paper.

The findings in regards to medication knowledge were observed in all four medication classes. At baseline, knowledge of all four medication classes was low. The intervention resulted in significant increases in knowledge that were largest in the first session but were also observed in subsequent sessions, and were sustained between sessions, suggesting that participants were retaining and spontaneously recalling information. Our findings are consistent with previous research which has

1 demonstrated that there are clear benefits to culturally appropriate and community specific  
2 interventions. Culturally appropriate interventions have previously demonstrated an association with  
3 improved health knowledge about diabetes and CVD.[45, 46] Counselling that incorporates successful  
4 adult education techniques such as reinforcement and feedback, teachback, assessing and confirming  
5 patients understandings and patient tailored information all build health literacy.[44, 47] Research  
6 involving pill cards for health literacy has tended to focused on pill cards as a management tool for  
7 low health literate populations as opposed to assessing how they build health literacy skills and  
8 capabilities. These studies have demonstrated effectiveness in improving adherence amongst low  
9 health literacy populations when used as a stand alone tool [48] and when used in combination with  
10 counselling by a health professional trained in adult education techniques.[49]  
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17 Kripalani et al (2011) demonstrated that training increased physicians' confidence to counsel patients  
18 with low health literacy about medication use.[44] In this study we provided training to the Indigenous  
19 health practitioners who delivered the intervention.  
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24 Inadequate knowledge about medications is associated with intermittent or non-adherence to  
25 medications which, in turn, is associated with worse outcomes including poorer control of risk factors,  
26 increased hospitalisations, morbidity and mortality.[22, 25, 50] This study showed that baseline  
27 knowledge about cardiovascular medicines was low among Indigenous people in Australia, Canada  
28 and New Zealand. This low baseline knowledge is consistent with published information about health  
29 literacy levels in Indigenous populations.[36] However, this finding is unlikely to be unique to these  
30 populations as poor health literacy also is seen in significant proportions of the non-Indigenous  
31 populations.[36] The reported low baseline medication knowledge in this study is also congruent with  
32 studies for non-Indigenous populations where low medication knowledge has been reported.[50, 51]  
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40 This study has several strengths including very good retention rates across the intervention period.  
41 Intervention trials located within Indigenous communities are rare. Brega et al (2013) found that the  
42 'Honouring the Gift of Heart Health' intervention increased knowledge about CVD, symptoms  
43 associated with MI and CVA and CVD risk factor control, in both high and low health literacy groups  
44 of American Indian and Alaska Native peoples.[45] The current study and that of Brega et al (2013)  
45 demonstrate that appropriately designed interventions can be successfully implemented in Indigenous  
46 communities. This study is imbued with Indigenous research principles and practices including  
47 Indigenous leadership, partnership with Indigenous health services, incorporation of local Indigenous  
48 design features in the intervention, embedding of culturally appropriate processes and protocols within  
49 the design and conduct of the trial, and the development of the Indigenous health professionals' and  
50 services' capacity to undertake research and to respond to health literacy needs within their  
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1 communities.[38-40, 52-54] While Indigenous led, participatory research is increasing, there a few  
2 existing examples involving a complex multi-site intervention trial. Furthermore, there has been a  
3 strong shift in Indigenous-led research towards strength based approaches rather than focusing on  
4 disparities and deprivation experienced by Indigenous people, accordingly the latter are not a focus of  
5 the research presented here. Communities in each country were engaged throughout the research  
6 process and their experiences, culture and values incorporated in the design of the  
7 intervention. Heterogeneity between the communities was accounted for by enabling communities to  
8 design an approach that was tailored to them.  
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14 Much of the current health literacy literature is descriptive. The intervention described here offers  
15 solutions to improving Indigenous health and experiences with the health system. Although CVD is  
16 common, this study is one of the first to examine the effect of an intervention to improve CVD  
17 medication health literacy in any population group. Many measures of health literacy e.g. the Test of  
18 Functional Health Literacy in Adults and the Rapid Estimate of Adult Literacy in Medicine are based  
19 on generic language and numeracy skills. However, knowledge has been shown to provide a strong  
20 indication of health literacy for specific conditions.[33] This study measured health literacy in terms  
21 of knowledge about CVD medication. Other measures of health literacy, e.g. use of different types of  
22 health information resources, were collected but are not reported in this paper.  
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30 There are three other potential limitations to this study. First, we have not used a control group. There  
31 was a high risk of contamination between intervention and control groups because the small, close-knit  
32 nature of the communities meant it would be difficult to prevent sharing of information and project  
33 resources. Contamination was also possible if the nurses/educators inadvertently used  
34 skills/information acquired during training when providing usual care to the control group.  
35 Furthermore, to obtain an appropriate sample size, all eligible participants in the health services had to  
36 receive the intervention. Ascertaining whether the observed effects were due to the intervention or to  
37 other unmeasured factors is challenging given the lack of a control group. The pattern of change  
38 within sessions supports an intervention effect, as does the relatively short time (one month) from  
39 sessions one to three. The intervention was delivered at five sites in three countries and the results are  
40 remarkably consistent across all sites, providing further support for intervention effect rather than  
41 unmeasured factors which are unlikely to be the same in all three countries. Although the findings  
42 were similar across all sites in the three countries and between an urban and rural site in NZ, further  
43 studies could assess whether the intervention is as effective in Indigenous populations who receive  
44 care from non-Indigenous health services and on the effect of the intervention with non-Indigenous  
45 population groups. Secondly, follow up data assessing changes in knowledge beyond the immediate  
46 duration of the programme has not been collected. The purpose of the project was to assess the  
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effectiveness of a customised, structured medication education programme that incorporated strategies based on adult education principles to support the development of participant's health literacy. Accurate retention of information requires regular reinforcement of knowledge. Future implementation of the programme should occur within long term CVD management in primary care services where patients are seen regularly, providing on-going opportunities for reassessment, reinforcement of existing knowledge and, where indicated, the provision of new information. Thus, the immediate effect of the programme is of more interest than longer-term follow-up for a 'one off' programme. Finally, we have not assessed the effect of improved knowledge on clinical outcomes or behavioural measures such as medication adherence. Assessment of these outcomes requires a much larger sample size and/or longer time frame than that used in this study. Furthermore, literature discussing the impact of health literacy interventions on adherence suggests that, although increasing health literacy skills and knowledge contributes to improvements in adherence,[48, 55] other factors such as self-efficacy also play an important role.[56-58] Future research that addresses a wider range of these factors could investigate the effects of health literacy interventions like this on clinical outcomes for patients.

Health professionals and healthcare organisations play a central role in ensuring that the needs of patients with low health literacy are being met. By adapting current systems of care for patients with low health literacy health professionals and healthcare organisations can support the development of Indigenous patients' CVD medication knowledge and health literacy practices. The evidence presented here suggests that systematic approaches operating at the interface of health professional and patient are likely to improve the health literacy of Indigenous people and in turn improve health equity. The findings from this study have important implications for populations with low health literacy more generally.

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#### **AUTHOR STATEMENT**

SC led the design of the project and the international and NZ research, contributed to data analysis and wrote the manuscript. JL collected data, undertook data analysis, and contributed to writing the manuscript. ML participated in study design, was responsible for international and NZ coordination of the study, contributed to data analysis and collaborated in drafting the manuscript. SR contributed to study design and implementation and collaborated in drafting manuscript. JH, JS contributed to study design, coordinated study at study sites and collaborated in drafting the manuscript. JS led the

Canadian research team. MK participated in design, led the Australian research, undertook data analysis and collaborated in drafting the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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#### **DATA SHARING STATEMENT:**

The data are owned and under the control of the Indigenous health services and communities from which it was obtained. Requests to access the data will need to go through the approval processes required by these groups. For further information, please contact the corresponding author.

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# BMJ Open

## Effect of a health literacy intervention trial on knowledge about cardiovascular disease medications among Indigenous peoples in Australia, Canada, and New Zealand

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**Effect of a health literacy intervention trial on knowledge about cardiovascular disease medications among Indigenous peoples in Australia, Canada, and New Zealand**

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**ABSTRACT**

**OBJECTIVES:** To assess the effect of a customised, structured cardiovascular disease medication health literacy programme on medication knowledge among Indigenous people with, or at high risk, of cardiovascular disease.

Design: Intervention trial with pre and post measures at multiple time points. Trial ID ACTRN12612001309875

**SETTING:** Indigenous primary care services in Australia, Canada and New Zealand.

**PARTICIPANTS:** 171 Indigenous people aged  $\geq 20$  years of age who had at least one clinical diagnosis of a CVD event OR, in Canada and Australia, had a 5-year CVD risk  $\geq 15\%$ ; and were prescribed at least two of the following CVD medication classes: statin, aspirin, ACE inhibitors, beta blockers.

**INTERVENTION:** An education session delivered on three occasions over one month by registered nurses or health educators who had received training in health literacy and principles of adult education. An interactive tablet application was used during each session and an information booklet and pillcard provided to participants.

**PRIMARY OUTCOME MEASURES:** Knowledge about the CVD medications assessed before and after each session.

**RESULTS:** Knowledge at baseline (pre-session 1) was low with the mean percent correct answers highest for statins (34.0% correct answers), 29.4% for aspirin, 26.0% for beta blockers and 22.7% for ACE inhibitors. Adjusted analyses showed highly significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) increases in knowledge scores between pre and post assessments at all three time points for all medication classes. For the four medications, the absolute increases in adjusted percent correct items from pre-session one to post-session three assessments were statins 60.1%, aspirin 76.8%, ACE inhibitor 71.4%, and beta blocker 69.5%.

**CONCLUSIONS:** The intervention was highly effective in contextually diverse Indigenous primary health care services in Australia, Canada and New Zealand. The findings from this study have important implications for health services working with populations with low health literacy more generally.

**STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY**

- Well designed, cross-country multi-site pre-post intervention trial
- cross-country multi-site intervention trials with Indigenous communities that successfully incorporates Indigenous research principles, processes and practices - are rare.
- High retention rates.
- Measures health literacy in terms of medication knowledge only.
- A control group has not been used because of sample size considerations and due to the risk of contamination in small communities.
- Does not assess effect of the intervention on clinical outcomes/medication adherence.

For peer review only

## INTRODUCTION

1 Although Māori (New Zealand), Aboriginal (Australia) and First Nations (Canada) peoples are distinct  
2 Indigenous populations, their shared history of colonisation, historically and in its contemporary  
3 expressions, has resulted in similar patterns of inequity in health and social outcomes, relative to the  
4 non-Indigenous populations in each country. [1, 2] In recent decades, cardiovascular disease (CVD)  
5 mortality and morbidity inequities experienced by Indigenous populations have received increasing  
6 attention.[3-5] The prevalence of CVD risk factors and mortality and hospitalisation rates have been  
7 well documented for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander populations in Australia,[6] First Nations,  
8 Inuit and Metis populations in Canada,[7] and Māori populations in New Zealand (NZ).[8, 9]  
9 Prevention and management of CVD for Indigenous populations is of central importance given the  
10 described burden of CVD and inequities experienced by these populations. Evidence-based guidelines  
11 for primary and secondary prevention of CVD are widely available and emphasise ‘lifestyle’ and  
12 medications management.[10-12] However, CVDs are long term conditions and self-management by  
13 patients and their families is essential for good outcomes.[13, 14] Capacity to effectively self-manage  
14 long term conditions is influenced by an array of factors including, in the case of CVD, knowledge  
15 about risk factors and medications.[15] Available literature describing patient CVD knowledge  
16 primarily focuses on risk factors and risk assessment, with a lack of equivalent emphasis on  
17 medication knowledge.[16-21] Further investigation with regard to knowledge about medications is  
18 needed, as inadequate medication knowledge is associated with intermittent and non-adherence to  
19 medications.[22] Intermittent and non-adherence has been reported for Indigenous populations [23,  
20 24] and is associated with poorer health outcomes including increased hospitalisations, morbidity, and  
21 mortality, and inadequate control of risk factors for disease.[25, 26] Inadequate knowledge about a  
22 broader group of medications has been found among an Indigenous prison population, however at  
23 present limited data exists to describe knowledge for CVD medications specifically.[27]

24 Health literacy is defined as the ‘the degree to which individuals have the capacity to obtain, process,  
25 and understand basic health information and services needed to make appropriate health decisions.[28]  
26 Health literacy is integral to patient knowledge and self-management. Low levels of health literacy are  
27 associated with a range of adverse health outcomes.[28-34] More recently it has been recognised that  
28 the health system, healthcare organisations and health professionals are critical to reducing health  
29 literacy demands and developing the health literacy of patients.[35]

30 In NZ a higher proportion of the Māori population has low levels of health literacy than the non-Māori  
31 population.[36] While rigorous population-based data for Indigenous populations in Australia and  
32 Canada are lacking, the needs of these populations are likely to be similar to those in NZ, given the

1 similar inequities in health and education observed between Indigenous and non-Indigenous people in  
2 all these countries.  
3

4 A customised, structured CVD medication health literacy intervention was developed during a  
5 development phase that included in-depth interviews with community members who were taking CVD  
6 prevention medications. Interview participants described their knowledge about their medications,  
7 what they would like to know about these medications, and how they would like to be provided with  
8 this information. Participant's responses in relation to these topics were similar in all three countries.  
9 While content was the same across all three countries, all resources were customised for use with the  
10 three different Indigenous groups. This included graphics, images, and Indigenous words and phrases  
11 used throughout the resources.  
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18 The objective of this study was to assess the effect of a customised, structured cardiovascular disease  
19 medication health literacy programme on medication knowledge among Indigenous people with, or at  
20 high risk, of cardiovascular disease.  
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## 24 **METHODS**

25 A detailed trial protocol has been published elsewhere [37]. In brief, the trial used a multi-site pre-  
26 post design with multiple measurement points. Ethics approvals were obtained from the Health and  
27 Disabilities Ethics Committees in NZ (MEC/10/061/EXP), the Human Research Ethics Committee at  
28 the University of Melbourne, Australia (HREC 1238349.1) and the Saint Michael's Hospital Research  
29 Ethics Board, Toronto, Canada (REB #: 10-324). The study was registered with the Australian and  
30 New Zealand Clinical Trials Register on 18 December 2012 (ACTRN12612001309875). Community  
31 engagement and research processes were consistent with guidelines for research with Indigenous  
32 communities.[38-41]  
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41 The intervention was implemented in Indigenous primary health care services in Australia (one urban  
42 service), Canada (one service with two urban sites), and NZ (one urban and one rural service). Primary  
43 outcomes were patient's knowledge about CVD medications (statins, beta blockers ACE inhibitors and  
44 aspirin). Secondary outcomes examined changes in health literacy skills and practices. This paper  
45 reports the results of a combined (three country) analysis of the primary outcomes (medication  
46 knowledge).  
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52 In NZ and Canada potential participants were identified from the health services' medical records. In  
53 Australia eligible participants were referred by their general practitioner, Aboriginal health worker, or  
54 pharmacist. Eligibility criteria were that participants were Indigenous people aged  $\geq 20$  years of age;  
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had at least one clinical diagnosis of a CVD event (angina, myocardial infarction, ischaemic stroke or transient ischemic attack) OR, for Canada and Australia, had a 5 year CVD risk  $\geq 15\%$ ; were prescribed at least two of the following CVD medication classes: statin, aspirin, ACE inhibitors, beta blockers; and could provide informed consent to participate.

The intervention consisted of an education session delivered by registered nurses or health educators who had received training in health literacy and adult education principles to support the development of health literacy knowledge and skills. An interactive tablet application was used during each session. The application also produced a customised pill card for each participant. At the first session a booklet containing information about CVD, medication use, the four CVD medication classes, and treatment targets for lipid and blood pressure was given to all participants. Information in the tablet and booklet was standardised across all three countries; however, background graphic design features, images and Indigenous language words and phrases were country specific. The use of the application ensured that the nurse/educator covered all the CVD medication information in a structured way and, in the context of a trial, standardised the provision of information across all five sites. The education session was delivered three times over four weeks. (Table 1) The programme was customised for each participant so they only received information about the medication classes they were taking.

### Data collection

Table 1 summarises data collection at each time point.

**Table 1 Summary of trial contacts and data collection**

Activity	Time point	Measurement
Enrolment visit	T0	Consent and enrolment in study. In Canada baseline demographic and clinical information was also collected at this visit.
Session one	T1 - Pre-session one	Baseline demographic and clinical information (NZ, Australia) Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
	T2 - Post-session one	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
Session two.	T3 - Pre-session two	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
Seven days after session one.	T4 - Post-session two	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
Session three.	T5 - Pre-session three	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices
28 days after session one.	T6 - Post-session three	Medication knowledge and health literacy practices

Baseline data was collected from participants and from the health service's medical records.

Outcome measures for statins, ACE inhibitors, aspirin and beta blockers assessed knowledge of the scientific and brand names of the medications, what the medication does, how to take it, important side effects, and lipid and blood pressure treatment targets. The number of items in the outcome questionnaire varied for each medication class. There were 9 items for statins, 11 for beta blockers, 12 for ACE inhibitors and 13 for aspirin (Table 2).

**Table 2 Items in outcome measures**

	ACE inhibitors	Beta Blockers	Statin	Aspirin
Name of medication (scientific or brand)	Eg of Scientific name Perindopril Eg of Brand name <i>Conversyl</i>	Eg of Scientific name Atenolol Eg of Brand name <i>Noten</i>	Eg of Scientific name Atorvastatin Eg of Brand name <i>Lipitor</i>	Eg of Scientific name Aspirin Eg of Brand name <i>Cardia</i>
Pronounced correctly	Yes / No	Yes / No	Yes / No	Yes / No
Name of medication (class)	ACE inhibitor	Beta Blocker	Statin	Aspirin
Pronounced correctly	Yes / No	Yes / No	Yes / No	Yes / No
Function/s	Lowers blood pressure	Lowers blood pressure	Lowers cholesterol	Stops you having blood clots
	Protects heart and kidneys	Protects heart		Take with food or after eating
Instruction/s	Start on low dose and increase	Take at the same time every day	Take with evening meal	Take indigestion medication 2hrs after taking Aspirin
	Blood tests every 6 months	Do not suddenly stop taking	Avoid grapefruit juice	
	Avoid food with too much Potassium			
Serious side effects	Tongue, lips, or face swell up	Dizzy or faint	Muscle pain, tenderness or weakness	Tongue, lips, or face swell up
	Dizzy or faint	Breathing problems or asthma		Dizzy or faint
				Itchy Rash
				Bad stomach pain
				Black or bloody poos
			Vomiting brown liquid	
Treatment targets	If no kidney disease SBP<130 and DBP <80mmHg If kidney disease SBP<125 and DBP <75mmHg	If no kidney disease SBP<130 and DBP <80mmHg If kidney disease SBP<125 and DBP <75mmHg	LDL < 3.4mmol/L	

Patient knowledge was assessed by first inviting the patient to tell the nurse/health educator about that medicine. When the participant had volunteered as much information as they could, the nurse/educator would then provide a prompt about information the participant had not mentioned e.g. 'can you tell me about the serious side effects of...?'

Participants were recruited between 18/2/2013 and 29/11/2013.

## Statistical analysis

Continuous variables are reported using means and standard deviation. Categorical data are expressed as percentages and 95% confidence intervals (95%CI). All categorical data analyses have been calculated using a binomial distribution. Histograms were used to determine whether continuous data were normally distributed. Medication knowledge scores were calculated as the percentage of questions answered correctly in each assessment. In descriptive analyses estimates were determined to vary significantly from each other if the 95%CI did not overlap.

Generalised estimating equations were used to investigate change in the proportion of questions answered correctly across the pre and post assessments for each session. The analysis was based on a linear scale response. It controlled for site and diabetes comorbidity. All analyses were performed using SPSS, version 22 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, Ill, USA).

## RESULTS

In total 171 participants were recruited and completed session one. Session two was completed by 166 participants (97.1%) and 160 participants (93.6%) completed session three. Of the 11 participants who did not complete the intervention, one patient did not complete as they were admitted to an aged care residential facility; the remaining ten participants were lost to follow up.

Table 3 provides site specific and aggregated baseline data. Baseline characteristics did not vary significantly by site with regards to age, sex, time with CVD, prevalence of gout, study medications at baseline, number of medication classes taken at baseline, medication allergy/side effects, blood pressure or lipids. There were significant site differences with regards to type of CVD, number of CVD diagnoses, the prevalence of diabetes, congestive heart failure (CHF) and COPD, as well as the number of co-morbidities (Table 3). Myocardial infarction was more common in the NZ urban site. Prevalence of stroke was significantly higher in the NZ rural site than Canada site B and Canada site A. All NZ participants had at least one CVD diagnosis while participants with high risk only were included in the other sites. Diabetes was a common comorbidity at all sites; however, the prevalence was significantly lower at one NZ site than the other sites. The prevalence of CHF was significantly higher at the two NZ sites than in the Australian site. The prevalence of COPD was significantly lower in the NZ rural site than in the four other sites. The proportion of participants who did not have a co-morbidity was significantly higher at the NZ rural site than Australia and Canada site B; while the proportion who had two co-morbidities was significantly lower at the NZ rural site than at the Australian site.

Table 3 Baseline characteristics of participants by site and total

	Australia	NZ rural	NZ urban	Canada A	Canada B	Total
<b>Number of participants</b>						
Session one, (n, [%])	29 [100.0]	55 [100]	40 [100]	26 [100]	21 [100]	171 [100]
Session two (n, [%])	24 [82.8]	55[100]	40 [100]	26 [100]	21 [100]	166 [97.1]
Session three (n, [%])	23 [79.3]	54 [98.2]	36 [90.0]	26 [100]	21 [100]	160 [93.6]
<b>Age, years</b> mean [SD]	59 [11]	68 [11]	61 [9]	59 [10]	58 [7]	62 [11]
<b>Male sex</b> n [% male, 95%CI]	18 [62.1, 44.4, 79.7]	21 [38.2, 25.3, 51.0]	17 [42.5, 27.2-57.8]	11 [42.3, 23.3-61.3]	11 [52.4, 31.0-73.7]	78 [45.6, 38.1-53.1]
<b>CVD diagnoses; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
Angina	11 [37.9, 20.3-55.6]	30 [54.5, 41.4-67.7]	27 [67.5, 53.0-82.0]	10[38.5, 19.8-57.2]	10[47.6, 26.3-69.0]	88 [51.5 , 44.0-59.0]
MI	14 [48.3, 30.1-66.5]	17 [30.9, 18.7-43.1]	33 [82.5, 70.7-94.3]	8 [30.8,13.0-48.5]	7 [33.3, 13.2-53.5]	79 [46.2 , 38.7-53.7]
Stroke	6 [20.7, 5.9-35.4]	17 [30.9, 18.7-43.1]	7 [17.5, 5.7-29.3]	1 [3.8, 0.0-11.2]	1 [4.8, 0.0-13.9]	32 [18.7 , 12.9-24.6]
TIA	2 [6.9, 0.0-16.1]	6 [10.9, 2.7-19.1]	4 [10.0, 0.7-19.3]	4 [15.4, 1.5-29.3]	4 [19.0, 2.3-35.8]	20 [11.7, 6.9-16.5]
<b>CVD risk or number of CVD diagnosis; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
High CVD risk only	8 [27.6, 11.3-43.9]	0	0	8 [30.8, 13.0-48.5]	6 [28.6, 9.2-47.9]	22 [12.9, 7.8-17.9]
One	13 [44.8, 26.7-62.9]	40 [72.7, 61.0-84.5]	14 [35.0, 20.2-49.8]	14 [53.8,34.7-73.0]	9 [42.9, 21.7-64.0]	90 [52.6, 45.1-60.1]
Two	5 [17.2, 3.5-31.0]	15 [27.3, 15.5-39.0]	22 [55.0, 39.6-70.4]	3 [11.5, 0.0-23.8]	5 [23.8, 5.6-42.0]	50 [29.2, 22.4-36.1]
Three or more	3 [10.3, 0.0-21.4]	0	4 [7.5, 0.0-15.7]	1 [3.8, 0.0-11.2]	1 [4.8, 0.0-13.9]	7 [4.1, 1.1-7.1]
<b>Time with CVD, years</b> Mean [95%CI]	7.2 [4.4-9.9]	7.5 [5.6-9.4]	7.7 [2.6-12.8]	10.4 [7.3-13.5]	7.9[5.3-10.6]	7.9 [6.6-9.2]
<b>Co-morbidity; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
Diabetes	18 [62.1, 44.4-79.7]	13 [23.6, 12.4-34.9]	22 [55.0, 39.6-70.4]	18 [69.2, 51.5-87.0]	18 [85.7, 70.7-100]	89 [52.0, 44.6-59.5]
CHF	0 [0]	11 [20, 9.4-30.6]	8 [20.0, 7.6-32.4]	1[3.8, 0.0-11.2]	2 [9.5, 0.0-22.1]	22 [12.9, 7.8-17.9]
COPD	14 [48.3, 30.1, 66.5]	5 [9.1, 1.5-16.7]	16 [40.0, 24.8-55.2]	14 [53.8, 34.7-73.0]	8 [38.1, 17.2-58.9]	57 [33.3, 26.3-40.4]
Gout	6 [20.7, 5.9, 35.4]	14 [25.5, 13.9-37.0]	14 [35.0, 20.2-49.8]	2 [7.7, 0.0, 17.9]	4 [19.0, 2.3-35.8]	40 [23.4, 17.0-29.7]
Peptic Ulcer	4 [13.8, 1.2, 26.3]	0 [0]	3 [7.5, 0.0-15.7]	4 [15.4, 1.5-29.3]	3 [14.3, 0.0-29.3]	14 [8.2, 4.1-12.3]
<b>Number of co-morbidities; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
None	3 [10.3, 0.0-21.4]	25 [45.5, 32.3-58.6]	8 [20.0, 7.6-32.4]	5 [19.2, 4.1-34.4]	2 [11.1, 0.0-25.6]	43 [25.6, 18.6-31.6]
One	11 [37.9, 20.3, 55.6]	20 [36.4, 23.7-49.1]	10 [25.0, 11.6-38.4]	8 [30.8, 13.0-48.5]	7 [38.9, 16.4-61.4]	56 [33.3, 26.2-40.5]
Two	14 [48.3, 30.1-66.5]	7 [12.7, 3.9-21.5]	13 [32.5, 18.0-47.0]	10 [38.5, 19.8-57.2]	6 [33.3, 11.6-55.1]	50 [29.8, 22.8-36.7]
Three	1 [3.4, 0.0-10.1]	3 [5.5, 0.0- 11.5]	9 [22.5, 9.6-35.4]	1 [3.8, 0.0- 11.2]	2 [11.1, 0.0-25.6]	16 [9.5, 5.1-14.0]
Four	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	2 [7.7, 0.0- 17.9]	1 [5.6, 0.0-16.1]	3 [1.8, 0.0-3.8]
<b>CVD medications at baseline; n [%, 95% CI]</b>						
Statin	29 [100]	51 [92.7, 85.9-99.6]	37 [92.5, 84.3-100]	24 [92.3, 82.1-100]	19 [90.5, 77.9-100]	160 [93.6, 89.9-97.2]
ACE inhibitor	19 [65.5, 48.2-82.8]	31 [56.4, 43.3-69.5]	27 [67.5, 53.0-82.0]	17 [65.4, 47.1-83.7]	12 [57.1,36.0-78.3]	106 [62.0, 54.7-69.3]
BB	15 [51.7, 33.5-69.9]	40 [72.7, 61.0-84.5]	28 [70.0, 55.8-84.2]	12 [46.2, 27.0-65.3]	9 [42.9, 21.7-64.0]	104 [60.8, 53.5-68.1]

Aspirin	23 [79.3, 64.6-94.1]	46 [83.6 73.9-93.4]	36 [90.0, 80.7-99.3]	20 [76.9, 60.7-93.1]	15 [66.7, 46.5-86.8]	140 [81.9, 76.1-87.6]
<b>Number of CVD medications classes; n [% , 95% CI]</b>						
One	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]
Two	11 [37.9, 20.3-55.6]	15 [27.3, 15.5-39.0]	7 [17.5, 5.7-29.3]	10 [38.5, 19.8-57.2]	11 [52.4, 31.0-73.7]	54 [31.6, 24.6-38.5]
Three	8 [27.6, 11.3-43.9]	22 [40.0, 27.1-52.9]	18 [45.0, 29.6-60.4]	12 [46.2, 27.0-65.3]	7 [33.3, 13.2-53.5]	67 [39.2, 31.9-46.5]
Four	10 [34.5, 17.2-51.8]	18 [32.7, 20.3-45.1]	15 [37.5, 22.5-52.5]	4 [15.4, 1.5-29.3]	3 [14.3, 0.0-29.3]	50 [29.2, 22.4-36.1]
<b>Allergy / side effect; n [% , 95% CI]</b>						
Statin	0 [0]	1 [1.8, 0.0-5.3]	1 [2.5, 0.0-7.3]	1 [3.8, 0.0-11.2]	2 [9.5, 0.0-22.1]	5 [2.9, 0.4-5.4]
ACE inhibitor	0 [0]	2 [3.6, 0.0-8.6]	1 [2.5, 0.0-7.3]	0 [0]	1 [4.8, 0.0-13.9]	4 [2.3, 0.1-4.6]
BB	1, [3.4, 0.0-10.1]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	1 [0.6, 0.0-1.7]
Aspirin	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	1 [3.8, 0.0-11.2]	2 [0.0-22.1]	3 [1.8, 0.0-3.7]
<b>Systolic BP mmHg; mean, [95% CI]</b>	130.2[124.3-136.0]	131.5[127.8-135.2]	134.7[128.8-140.6]	131.4 [125.4-137.4]	129.5 [123.1-136.0]	131.6 [129.3-133.8]
Systolic BP (range)	87-154	97-161	111-172	111-173	103-166	87-173
<b>Diastolic BP; mean, [95% CI]</b>	82.0, [77.8-86.2]	79.0 [76.9-81.1]	81.7 [78.1-85.3]	77.0 [73.4-80.6]	74.2 [69.7-78.7]	79.0 [77.6-80.5]
Diastolic BP (range)	65-112	57-99	60-103	63-98	52-87	52-112
<b>Lipids mmol/L; mean, [95% CI]</b>						
LDL	2.32, [2.01-2.63]	2.82 [2.58-3.05]	2.31 [2.04-2.58]	2.34 [1.86-2.81]	2.40 [1.96-2.84]	2.50 [2.36-2.64]
LDL (range)	1.05-3.55	1.10-5.05	0.75-3.90	0.73-4.68	0.50-4.23	0.50-5.05
HDL	1.10, [1.01-1.20]	1.14 [1.07-1.20]	1.10 [1.00-1.20]	1.08 [0.96-1.20]	1.19 [1.05-1.33]	1.12 [1.08-1.16]
HDL (range)	0.60-1.65	0.80-1.85	0.78-1.94	0.50-1.66	1.97-1.19	0.50-1.97

Health literacy knowledge scores: Pre-session one knowledge of all four medications was low with mean percent correct highest for statins (34.0% correct answers), 29.4% for aspirin, 26.0% for beta blockers and 22.7% for ACE inhibitors. For all four medications, the knowledge scores increased significantly in the post-session one assessments. Knowledge scores fell slightly in the interval between the post-session one and pre-session two assessments and rose in the post-session two assessments. A similar pattern was observed in the assessments associated with session three. (Table 4)

**Table 4 Unadjusted mean percent correct items in knowledge questionnaire, by medication**

	n	Pre-session knowledge Mean [95%CI]	Post-session knowledge Mean [95%CI]	% Difference [95%CI]
<b>Statin</b>				
Session 1	160	34.0 [30.1-38.8]	90.6 [88.0-93.3]	56.7 [49.0-64.3]
Session 2	155	85.4 [81.9-88.8]	96.1 [94.1-98.1]	10.7 [5.8-15.5]
Session 3	151	92.3 [89.9-94.7]	98.2 [97.2-99.3]	6.0 [2.2-9.7]
<b>Aspirin</b>				
Session 1	140	29.4 [27.4-31.4]	92.9 [90.8-95.1]	63.5 [55.5-71.5]
Session 2	134	87.1 [83.7-90.5]	96.3 [94.6-98.0]	9.2 [4.3-14.1]
Session 3	129	91.5 [89.0-94.1]	98.6 [97.6-99.7]	7.1 [2.6-11.6]
<b>ACE inhibitor</b>				
Session 1	106	22.7 [19.7-25.8]	87.0 [83.6-90.5]	64.3 [55.2-73.4]
Session 2	102	83.0 [78.8-87.3]	94.3 [91.9-96.6]	11.3 [5.1-17.4]
Session 3	95	90.2 [87.1-93.3]	96.5 [94.5-98.5]	6.3 [1.4-11.2]
<b>Beta blocker</b>				
Session 1	104	26.0 [21.9-30.2]	88.8 [85.7-92.0]	62.8 [53.5-72.1]
Session 2	101	85.8 [81.6-90.0]	96.1 [94.3-98.0]	10.4 [4.4-16.3]
Session 3	97	89.2 [86.0-92.5]	97.7 [96.2-99.1]	8.4 [2.9-14.0]

Adjusted analyses showed highly significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) increases in knowledge scores between pre-session and post-session assessments at all three time points for all medication classes. (Table 5) For the four medications, the absolute increases in items answered correctly from pre-session one to post-session three assessments were statins 60.1%, aspirin 76.8%, ACE inhibitor 71.4%, and beta blocker 69.5%. (Table 5)

**Table 5 Multivariable analysis for CVD medications change in % items correct in knowledge questionnaire\***

	n	Pre-knowledge score Mean [95%CI]	Post-knowledge score Mean [95%CI]	B [95%CI]	p value
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<b>Statin</b>					
Session 1	160	37.4 [34.3-40.9]	87.8 [84.9-90.9]	3.50 [3.06-3.01]	<0.001
Session 2	155	84.0 [80.5-87.7]	94.9 [92.1-97.8]	1.14 [1.09-1.19]	<0.001
Session 3	151	91.2 [88.8-93.7]	97.5 [96.1-98.9]	1.07 [1.04-1.10]	<0.001
<b>Aspirin</b>					
Session 1	140	30.7 [28.9-32.6]	92.4 [89.9-94.9]	3.01 [2.83-3.20]	<0.001
Session 2	134	86.5 [83.1-90.0]	96.0 [93.9-98.1]	1.11 [1.07-1.15]	<0.001
Session 3	129	91.3 [88.8-93.9]	98.5 [96.8-100]	1.08 [1.05-1.11]	<0.001
<b>ACE inhibitor</b>					
Session 1	106	24.5 [21.7-27.7]	84.7 [80.6-89.0]	3.50 [3.06-3.91]	<0.001
Session 2	102	81.6 [77.4-86.1]	93.2 [90.3-96.2]	1.14 [1.09-1.19]	<0.001
Session 3	95	89.5 [86.6-92.4]	95.9 [94.2-97.8]	1.07 [1.04-1.10]	<0.001
<b>Beta blocker</b>					
Session 1	104	27.9 [24.3-32.0]	84.0 [79.5-88.9]	3.01 [2.60-3.49]	<0.001
Session 2	101	84.6 [80.0-89.4]	94.4 [91.4-97.5]	1.12 [1.07-1.16]	<0.001
Session 3	97	88.8 [85.7-92.1]	97.4 [95.4-99.5]	1.10 [1.06-1.13]	<0.001

\*Model included site and diabetes comorbidity

## DISCUSSION

According to the Ottawa Charter, enabling people to have increased control over their health leads to improved health.[42] Health literacy was initially viewed as a patient factor that could be used as a risk factor or a marker for poor outcomes. In recent years discussions regarding health literacy have broadened to include the role that health systems, services and health professionals play in determining the level of health literacy required to successfully navigate health services, and supporting patients to build their health literacy skills and capabilities so they are better equipped to meet their health needs.[34, 43][44] The intervention used in this trial systematically incorporated several approaches to achieve this including health professional training and interactive resources (electronic tablet application, pill card and booklet). Furthermore, the session was repeated to reinforce and further develop participants' knowledge and skill acquisition. This intervention sought to build health literacy skills such as knowledge and the ability to both access and use health information; however, only data about the primary outcome (medication knowledge) are presented in this paper.

The findings in regards to medication knowledge were observed in all four medication classes. At baseline, knowledge of all four medication classes was low. The intervention resulted in significant increases in knowledge that were largest in the first session but were also observed in subsequent sessions, and were sustained between sessions, suggesting that participants were retaining and spontaneously recalling information. Our findings are consistent with previous research which has

1 demonstrated that there are clear benefits to culturally appropriate and community specific  
2 interventions. Culturally appropriate interventions have previously demonstrated an association with  
3 improved health knowledge about diabetes and CVD.[45, 46] Counselling that incorporates successful  
4 adult education techniques such as reinforcement and feedback, teachback, assessing and confirming  
5 patients understandings and patient tailored information all build health literacy.[44, 47] Research  
6 involving pill cards for health literacy has tended to focused on pill cards as a management tool for  
7 low health literate populations as opposed to assessing how they build health literacy skills and  
8 capabilities. These studies have demonstrated effectiveness in improving adherence amongst low  
9 health literacy populations when used as a stand alone tool [48] and when used in combination with  
10 counselling by a health professional trained in adult education techniques.[49]  
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17 Kripalani et al (2011) demonstrated that training increased physicians' confidence to counsel patients  
18 with low health literacy about medication use.[44] In this study we provided training to the Indigenous  
19 health practitioners who delivered the intervention.  
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24 Inadequate knowledge about medications is associated with intermittent or non-adherence to  
25 medications which, in turn, is associated with worse outcomes including poorer control of risk factors,  
26 increased hospitalisations, morbidity and mortality.[22, 25, 50] This study showed that baseline  
27 knowledge about cardiovascular medicines was low among Indigenous people in Australia, Canada  
28 and New Zealand. This low baseline knowledge is consistent with published information about health  
29 literacy levels in Indigenous populations.[36] However, this finding is unlikely to be unique to these  
30 populations as poor health literacy also is seen in significant proportions of the non-Indigenous  
31 populations.[36] The reported low baseline medication knowledge in this study is also congruent with  
32 studies for non-Indigenous populations where low medication knowledge has been reported.[50, 51]  
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40 This study has several strengths including very good retention rates across the intervention period.  
41 Intervention trials located within Indigenous communities are rare. Brega et al (2013) found that the  
42 'Honouring the Gift of Heart Health' intervention increased knowledge about CVD, symptoms  
43 associated with MI and CVA and CVD risk factor control, in both high and low health literacy groups  
44 of American Indian and Alaska Native peoples.[45] The current study and that of Brega et al (2013)  
45 demonstrate that appropriately designed interventions can be successfully implemented in Indigenous  
46 communities. This study is imbued with Indigenous research principles and practices including  
47 Indigenous leadership, partnership with Indigenous health services, incorporation of local Indigenous  
48 design features in the intervention, embedding of culturally appropriate processes and protocols within  
49 the design and conduct of the trial, and the development of the Indigenous health professionals' and  
50 services' capacity to undertake research and to respond to health literacy needs within their  
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1 communities.[38-40, 52-54] While Indigenous led, participatory research is increasing, there a few  
2 existing examples involving a complex multi-site intervention trial. Furthermore, there has been a  
3 strong shift in Indigenous-led research towards strength based approaches rather than focusing on  
4 disparities and deprivation experienced by Indigenous people, accordingly the latter are not a focus of  
5 the research presented here. Communities in each country were engaged throughout the research  
6 process and their experiences, culture and values incorporated in the design of the  
7 intervention. Heterogeneity between the communities was accounted for by enabling communities to  
8 design an approach that was tailored to them.  
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14 Much of the current health literacy literature is descriptive. The intervention described here offers  
15 solutions to improving Indigenous health and experiences with the health system. Although CVD is  
16 common, this study is one of the first to examine the effect of an intervention to improve CVD  
17 medication health literacy in any population group. Many measures of health literacy e.g. the Test of  
18 Functional Health Literacy in Adults and the Rapid Estimate of Adult Literacy in Medicine are based  
19 on generic language and numeracy skills. However, knowledge has been shown to provide a strong  
20 indication of health literacy for specific conditions.[33] This study measured health literacy in terms  
21 of knowledge about CVD medication. Other measures of health literacy, e.g. use of different types of  
22 health information resources, were collected but are not reported in this paper.  
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30 There are three other potential limitations to this study. First, we have not used a control group. There  
31 was a high risk of contamination between intervention and control groups because the small, close-knit  
32 nature of the communities meant it would be difficult to prevent sharing of information and project  
33 resources. Contamination was also possible if the nurses/educators inadvertently used  
34 skills/information acquired during training when providing usual care to the control group.  
35 Furthermore, to obtain an appropriate sample size, all eligible participants in the health services had to  
36 receive the intervention. Ascertaining whether the observed effects were due to the intervention or to  
37 other unmeasured factors is challenging given the lack of a control group. The pattern of change  
38 within sessions supports an intervention effect, as does the relatively short time (one month) from  
39 sessions one to three. The intervention was delivered at five sites in three countries and the results are  
40 remarkably consistent across all sites, providing further support for intervention effect rather than  
41 unmeasured factors which are unlikely to be the same in all three countries. Although the findings  
42 were similar across all sites in the three countries and between an urban and rural site in NZ, further  
43 studies could assess whether the intervention is as effective in Indigenous populations who receive  
44 care from non-Indigenous health services and on the effect of the intervention with non-Indigenous  
45 population groups. Secondly, follow up data assessing changes in knowledge beyond the immediate  
46 duration of the programme has not been collected. The purpose of the project was to assess the  
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effectiveness of a customised, structured medication education programme that incorporated strategies based on adult education principles to support the development of participant's health literacy. Accurate retention of information requires regular reinforcement of knowledge. Future implementation of the programme should occur within long term CVD management in primary care services where patients are seen regularly, providing on-going opportunities for reassessment, reinforcement of existing knowledge and, where indicated, the provision of new information. Thus, the immediate effect of the programme is of more interest than longer-term follow-up for a 'one off' programme. Finally, we have not assessed the effect of improved knowledge on clinical outcomes or behavioural measures such as medication adherence. Assessment of these outcomes requires a much larger sample size and/or longer time frame than that used in this study. Furthermore, literature discussing the impact of health literacy interventions on adherence suggests that, although increasing health literacy skills and knowledge contributes to improvements in adherence,[48, 55] other factors such as self-efficacy also play an important role.[56-58] Future research that addresses a wider range of these factors could investigate the effects of health literacy interventions like this on clinical outcomes for patients.

Health professionals and healthcare organisations play a central role in ensuring that the needs of patients with low health literacy are being met. By adapting current systems of care for patients with low health literacy health professionals and healthcare organisations can support the development of Indigenous patients' CVD medication knowledge and health literacy practices. The evidence presented here suggests that systematic approaches operating at the interface of health professional and patient are likely to improve the health literacy of Indigenous people and in turn improve health equity. The findings from this study have important implications for populations with low health literacy more generally.

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#### **AUTHOR STATEMENT**

SC led the design of the project and the international and NZ research, contributed to data analysis and wrote the manuscript. JL collected data, undertook data analysis, and contributed to writing the manuscript. ML participated in study design, was responsible for international and NZ coordination of the study, contributed to data analysis and collaborated in drafting the manuscript. SR contributed to study design and implementation and collaborated in drafting manuscript. JH, JS contributed to study design, coordinated study at study sites and collaborated in drafting the manuscript. JS led the

Canadian research team. MK participated in design, led the Australian research, undertook data analysis and collaborated in drafting the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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#### **DATA SHARING STATEMENT:**

The data are owned and under the control of the Indigenous health services and communities from which it was obtained. Requests to access the data will need to go through the approval processes required by these groups. For further information, please contact the corresponding author.

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