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- Q1** The reference citation Pendleton (1983) has been changed to Pendleton (1984) as per the reference list. Kindly check.

Development and evaluation of a training program to foster the use of written drug information in community pharmacies—part 1—development

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Abstract

Providing written drug information to consumers fulfils an important societal need. However, simply providing written information without integration into overall medication counselling has limited impact on consumers' medication taking behaviour. Provision of information may be regarded as a pharmaceutical service whose delivery represents a practice change for many practitioners. This will require changes in behaviour, attitudes, beliefs and overcoming perceived and actual barriers. *Objective:* This paper describes the development and process evaluation of an educational program to foster the use of written information available in Australia in pharmacy practice.

Methods: Two models of behaviour, Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour and Green's predisposing, reinforcing and enabling causes in educational diagnosis and evaluation (PRECEDE) model, were used as the theoretical framework for the program. The educational program was pre-tested and process evaluated as part of the development process.

Results: The program consisted of a one-day, off-site educational workshop and a follow-up visit at the community pharmacy. An androgenic approach to education informed its delivery. The workshop consisted of didactic, group discussions and experiential modes of teaching. The process evaluation illustrated the feasibility of implementing the educational program.

Keywords: Educational program, pharmacists, theoretical models, written information

Introduction

Since as early as 1970s, there has been an apparent demand from consumers for drug information. Research has shown that consumers favour receiving written information (Lam & Krass, 1995, Livingstone, Pugh, Winn & Williamson, 1996, Sleath & Wurst, 2002) and consider an information leaflet about medicines useful (Mottram & Reed, 1997, Koo, Krass & Aslani, 2002). While some patients prefer to receive drug information from their physician (Hargie, Morrow & Woodman, 1992), others expect to receive both written and verbal medication information from pharmacists (Culbertson, Arthur, Rhodes & Rhodes, 1988, Livingstone et al., 1996). However, there are reports of limited interaction with health professionals when written information is provided (Koo et al., 2002). It has been reported that the general British public consider

availability of written information as a factor in selecting their pharmacy (Mottram & Reed, 1997). Leaflets, however, cannot substitute for verbal counselling, and are recommended to be accompanied by verbal advice (Dodds, 1993, Blom, Jonkers, Kok & Bakker, 1998). Pharmacists have expressed a preference for using both modes of information provision (Kimberlin & Berardo, 1987, Schommer & Wiederholt, 1994). The combination has been shown to increase drug knowledge recall (Morris & Halperin, 1979, Peura, Klaukka, Hannula & Eerikainen, 1993, Livingstone et al., 1996) and improve compliance (Gotsch & Liguori, 1982, Myers & Calvert, 1984, Espejo, Gutierrez & Herrera, 2003, Al-Saffar, Desmukh, Carter & Adib, 2005), over either intervention alone.

Thus, from the evidence seen in the literature, there is a need to encourage pharmacists not only to provide written drug information, but also to integrate the

117 information into their verbal counselling process, in
118 order to optimise their patient education activities.
119 One strategy to promote this behaviour is to provide
120 training programs for pharmacists.

121
122 *Educational programs for pharmacists*
123

124 Education for pharmacists has long been suggested as
125 a method of addressing barriers to the provision of
126 pharmaceutical services (Baker, 1979). The majority
127 of programmes available aim to increase pharmacists'
128 therapeutic knowledge, and consequently address the
129 cognitive barriers to providing a professional service
130 (Todd, 1993, Keene & Cervetto, 1995). However, in
131 recent years, more training programs have been
132 developed to address both cognitive and communi-
133 cation needs of pharmacists (Blom, 1996, Anderson
134 & Greene, 1997, Lee, Borham, Korman, Keeney &
135 Mock, 1998; de Almeida Neto, Benrimoj, Kavanah &
136 Boakes, 2000), and a number have been designed on
137 the basis of underlying theoretical frameworks (Blom,
138 1996, Sinclair, Bond, Lennox, Silcock & Winfield,
139 1998, Sinclair, Bond & Lennox, 1999, de Almeida
140 Neto et al., 2000). Some training programs have been
141 shown to be effective in changing pharmacists'
142 knowledge, attitudes and behaviour (Mackie,
143 Worthington & Hobson, 1992, Bentley, Mackie &
144 Fuller, 1993, Heslop et al., 1994, Barnette, Murphy
145 & Carter, 1996, Ghalamkari, Rees, Saltrese-Taylor &
146 Ramsden, 1997, Benrimoj, Berry, Collins, Lauchlan
147 & Stewart, 1997, Currie, Chrischilles, Kuehl & Buser,
148 1997). Several have been successful in improving
149 pharmacists' verbal counselling (Anderson, 1995,
150 Blom, 1996, Krass, 1996) and communication skills
151 (Berger et al., 1990). However, there have been few
152 programs aimed at promoting the provision and use of
153 written drug information by community pharmacists,
154 in particular underpinned by a theoretical framework
155 for behavioural change.

156
157 *Development of the educational program to promote the use*
158 *of written drug information*
159

160 *Format of the program.* The adult education literature
161 supports teaching approaches that encourage reflection
162 by the "learners", discussion of the topic, performance
163 of role plays, and are intellectually challenging
164 (Brookfield, 1990, Apps, 1991, Heimlich & Norland,
165 1994, Jarvis, 1995). Additionally, there has been a move
166 away from the traditional didactic teaching methods,
167 such as lectures, to techniques which involve group
168 collaboration (Jarvis, 1987, Bonk & Kim, 1998), for
169 example, workshops. Since individuals learn from
170 experience (Jarvis, 1987), it is therefore important to
171 incorporate observation and practice of the "new
172 behaviour" in the educational program.
173 Workshops have been identified as a new learning
174 forum (Bonk & Kim, 1998), which can provide the

desirable teaching environment and characteristics 175
described above. Furthermore, workshops can pro- 176
vide a learning community, which is social and allows 177
learning through interaction with others (Kahn, 1993, 178
Bonk & Kim, 1998). Thus, a workshop was selected as 179
the primary component of the educational program. 180

The workshop included group discussions and 181
participant role plays. Brief lecture sessions were also 182
included in the workshop for information trans- 183
mission and filling gaps in the participants' knowledge 184
of the issues discussed. 185
186

187 *Theoretical models of individual behaviour*
188

A number of theories and theoretical models have 189
been developed to understand and predict individual 190
behaviour. Two models, Ajzen's theory of planned 191
behaviour (Ajzen, 1985, Ajzen & Madden, 1986) and 192
Green's PRECEDE-PROCEED model (Green, 193
1984) (specifically the PRECEDE component) 194
provided the theoretical framework for the design of 195
the content of the educational program. Additionally, 196
many features for designing programs aimed at 197
changing behaviour (Egger, Spark & Lawson, 1990) 198
were also applied. 199
200

201 *Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour*
202

The theory of planned behaviour is an extension of the 203
theory of reasoned action (Ajzen, 1985). Both theories 204
place emphasis on a person's intention to perform a 205
behaviour as opposed to the person's attitude towards 206
the behaviour in question, such as in the health belief 207
model (HBM) and the social cognitive model (Egger 208
et al., 1990). 209

The theory of reasoned action states that for a 210
willing behaviour to occur there must first be an 211
intention to perform or achieve the behaviour in 212
question, which in turn is determined by attitude and 213
subjective norm. By changing beliefs, it is assumed 214
that attitudes and subjective norm will also be 215
changed, which will in turn influence behavioural 216
intention and therefore, ultimately alter behaviour. 217
The theory of planned behaviour includes a third 218
factor which directly influences the behavioural 219
intention and embraces an individual's perceived 220
control over the barriers to performing the new 221
behaviour. The more control a person believes to have 222
or the more confident they are in performing the 223
behaviour in question, the more likely they are to 224
achieve this behaviour. Therefore, the theory of 225
planned behaviour is a more robust theory. 226

The theory of reasoned action has been applied to 227
examining and predicting pharmacists' verbal patient 228
medication counselling behaviour (Kirking, 1984, 229
Mason, 1984), and in pharmacists' drug therapy 230
decision making (Campagna & Newlin, 1997). The 231
theory of planned behaviour has been previously used 232

Table I. Application of Green's model to the development of the educational program.

Phase	Goal (in reference to model)	Action taken
1*-(Epidemiological)	To study the population in question, that is NSW community pharmacists, and determine some of the issues and problems associated with achieving the behaviour in question	Literature review Population: NSW community pharmacists Behaviour: Provision of professional services to consumers with prescription medications
2*-(Social diagnosis)	To identify a specific problem	A mail survey of a sample of the population
3*-(Behavioural diagnosis)	To identify specific barriers to the use of CMI's	Qualitative and quantitative research on samples of the population
4	To identify three factors which influence the performance of a new behaviour or a behavioural change	Predisposing Enabling Reinforcing
5	To select the appropriate predisposing, enabling and reinforcing factors	Selecting factors which will be included and addressed as part of the educational program
6	To develop and implement the program	Development and implementation of educational program (written protocol, workshop, on-site training)
7-9 [†]	To process, impact and outcome evaluate the program	Quantitative and qualitative measures, in a randomised-controlled quasi-experimental, time series research design (not reported here)

*Phases 1-3 are conducted as part of the program needs assessment.

[†]The impact and outcome evaluation of the program are not described as they are outside the scope of this paper.

as a theoretical framework in developing educational programs for pharmacists and their staff (Blom, 1996).

Green's PRECEDE-PROCEED model

The predisposing, reinforcing and enabling causes in educational diagnosis and evaluation model (PRECEDE) was developed by Green (1984) as a framework for health educational interventions. The policy, regulatory and organisational constructs in educational and environmental development (PROCEED) model "provides additional steps for developing policy and initiating the implementation and evaluation process" (Green & Kreuter, 1991). The model has been described in-depth (Green & Kreuter, 1991) and Table I illustrates the application of the model in the development of the educational program. The PROCEED model was found to be applicable to the evaluation of the program, not the developmental phase and therefore not reported in this paper.

Rationale for an education program

Since 1993, Australian pharmaceutical manufacturers have been required to produce consumer medicine information (CMI) for prescription medications, with

all expected to have a CMI by 2003[†]. Although pharmacists are not legally obliged to provide CMI (Therapeutic Goods & Regulations, 1993), they have a duty of care to provide information, either verbally and/or in written format, to ensure that their customers understand how to use their medications appropriately.

A self-reported study of CMI use by 464 community pharmacists revealed limited provision and use of CMI's in verbal medication counselling (Aslani, 1999). Guidelines targeting health professionals in general (Commonwealth Department of Human Services & Health, 1995), and community (Pharmacy Guild of Australia, Pharmaceutical Society of Australia, Society of Hospital Pharmacists of Australia, 1996) and hospital pharmacists (Dowling, Duguid & Thronton, 1996) in particular, have been developed and published. However, these have their limitations (Aslani, 1999). This paper describes the development and process evaluation of a program to foster the integration and use of CMI in professional pharmacy practice.

Materials and methods

The development of the program consisted of a needs assessment phase, selection of appropriate theoretical

[†]CMI is a brand specific, written document about medicinal products and may be produced in one of three formats: electronic which is produced by the dispensary computer, package inserts found inside the medication box and loose leaflet or tear-off pads which are sent directly to community pharmacies by the manufacturer. The content of CMI conforms to Schedule 12 of the Therapeutic Goods Regulations, which requires CMI to be "in English, clearly legible, written in a language easily understood by consumers and consistent with the product information (within the meaning of section 32 of the Act) of the medicinal product" (Therapeutic Goods Regulations, 1993).

349 models of behaviour to underpin the program design,
350 selection of appropriate modes of teaching for adult
351 education, and process evaluation (including pilot
352 testing) of the educational program with practicing
353 community pharmacists. This paper does not describe
354 the evaluation of the impact of the educational
355 program on community pharmacists' behaviour in
356 using CMI (impact evaluation). This evaluation is
357 discussed in part 2 of the project.
358
359

360 *Needs assessment for the development of the program*

362 The first step in developing the educational program
363 was to determine the needs of community pharmacists
364 and factors which influenced the use of CMIs in their
365 practice. The needs or conditions which were assessed
366 were how, and how often, were CMIs provided and
367 used in counselling, who received CMIs, and the
368 barriers to the use of CMIs in practice. Each of the
369 four types of need (normative, expressed, comparative
370 and felt) (Hawe, Degeling & Hall, 1990) was assessed
371 to ensure that a complete picture of community
372 pharmacists' needs with respect to using CMIs in
373 practice was produced.

374 The needs assessment was conducted using
375 qualitative (in-depth interviews) and quantitative
376 mail surveys (Aslani, 1999) (Table II), following the
377 procedure recommended by Hawe et al. (1990). In-
378 depth interviews were conducted with a convenience
379 sample of 35 community pharmacists in NSW. The
380 interviews focussed on all of the needs or conditions
381 described above. A pilot ($n = 99$) and main ($n = 464$)
382 survey of a random sample of NSW community
383 pharmacists was conducted (using self-reported
384 structured questionnaires) to collect quantitative
385 data. Data were collected on how CMI was provided
386 to consumers, how CMI was used as part of the verbal
387 counselling practice of the community pharmacists,
388 the frequency of provision of CMI and its use in verbal
389 counselling, the types of CMI most frequently used by
390 pharmacists and pharmacists' attitudes to CMI (with
391 regard to pharmacists' professional role in using CMI,
392

393 Table II. Suggested information content of educational program.

394 CMI and its legislations;
395 Verbal patient counselling techniques;
396 Incorporation of CMI into the verbal medication counselling
397 process;
398 Barriers to the use of CMIs in community pharmacy (and strategies
399 to address the barriers);
400 Community pharmacists' actual experiences in using CMIs in their
401 practice;
402 Use of CMI as a counselling tool for specific disease states or drug
403 classes;
404 How to discuss the side effects section of the CMIs with consumers,
405 and how to address their anxiety about the side effects;
406 How to demonstrate the benefits of CMIs to consumers and
illustrate the positive impact of CMIs

pharmacists' confidence in using CMI economic 407
impact of supply, pharmacists' responsibility in 408
supplying CMI, and perceived impact of CMI on 409
consumers' medication taking behaviour). 410
411

412 *Normative need*

413
414 "Normative need has come to refer to what expert
415 opinion defines as need" (Hawe et al., 1990). In
416 the case of CMI use by community pharmacists, the
417 expert opinion refers to the guidelines available on the
418 use of CMI (Commonwealth Department of Human
419 Services & Health, 1995, Pharmacy Guild of Australia,
420 Pharmaceutical Society of Australia, Society of
421 Hospital Pharmacists of Australia, 1996). To deter-
422 mine a normative need, the data on the provision of
423 CMIs and their use as a verbal counselling tool from in-
424 depth interviews and mail surveys (Table III) were
425 compared to the content of the guidelines. The
426 normative needs were identified as the limited and
427 narrow modes of provision and use of CMIs.
428

429 *Expressed need*

430 Expressed need refers to the needs of the community
431 pharmacists which the researcher can infer from the
432 data obtained in the in-depth interviews and mail
433 surveys. The results of the expressed needs assessment
434 also revealed limited provision and use of CMIs in
435 verbal counselling and limited modes of CMI
436 provision and use in counselling. Additionally, it
437 revealed restricted groups of consumers receiving
438 CMIs. These groups included consumers on new
439 medications, consumers taking medications with
440 "serious" side effects, and consumers judged by the
441 pharmacist as requiring additional written
442 information.
443
444

445 Table III. Modes of CMI provision and use in verbal counselling.

446 Modes of CMI provision	447 Modes of CMI use 448 in verbal counselling
449 Routinely give out CMI 450 to all customers with 451 prescription medication(s)	449 Only draw the customers 450 attention to the presence 451 of the CMI
452 Assess each customer individually 453 to determine if they 454 need CMI and then 455 give out CMI	452 Draw the customers attention 453 to the presence of 454 the CMI and invite 455 the customer to return 456 to the pharmacy if 457 they have queries after 458 reading the CMI
459 Give out only if 460 requested by the customer	459 Draw the customers attention 460 to the presence of 461 the CMI and highlight 462 sections of the CMI 463 during counselling 464 Discuss some sections of 465 the CMI only if 466 requested by the customer

465 *Comparative need*

466 Comparative needs assessment involves determining
467 the needs of a population by comparing the behaviour
468 in question (such as CMI provision) between two
469 populations, where one population is used as the
470 standard. This was not relevant in the context of use of
471 CMI in community pharmacy.
472

473
474 *Felt need*

475 Felt need is defined as what the community
476 pharmacists in the in-depth interviews and mail
477 surveys have stated that they need or want in order
478 to provide CMIs more often and use CMIs more
479 effectively in their verbal counselling. The felt needs
480 assessment revealed several barriers to the use of
481 CMIs in practice, which if addressed, may lead to
482 increased CMI use. The barriers included both actual
483 barriers experienced by pharmacists who were
484 providing and using CMI in their practice as well as
485 perceived barriers reported by pharmacists who had
486 not commenced providing CMI. The barriers
487 identified were categorised into four groups: cognitive,
488 situational, financial and attitudinal barriers
489 (Table IV), and were found to be similar to barriers
490 to the provision of pharmaceutical services, including
491 written information, reported in the literature (Farris,
492 Ascione & Kirking, 1993, Sarriff, 1994, Bell,
493 McElnay, Hughes & Woods, 1998). In developing
494 the educational program, it was not possible to
495 address all barriers, as some were outside the scope of
496 a program.
497

498
499 *Content of the program*

501 The components of the educational program were a
502 one-day workshop, written protocol and follow-up on-
503 site training.

504 The new or modified behaviours targeted by this
505 program were an increased provision of CMIs and the

523 effective integration of CMIs in pharmacists' verbal
524 patient medication counselling. Thus, the content of
525 the workshop needed to influence participants to
526 perform the new behaviours. Additionally, the content
527 incorporated suggestions received from community
528 pharmacists from the needs assessment stage (Aslani,
529 1999) (Table II).

530 The structure of the program consisted of
531 three parts, based on the three factors in Green's
532 PRECEDE model. The attitude and subjective norm
533 factors of Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour were
534 combined with the predisposing factors of Green's
535 PRECEDE model, and the perceived control factors
536 combined with the enabling factors. Predisposing
537 factors are factors such as attitudes, beliefs, values,
538 knowledge and perceptions, which provide the
539 rationale and motivation for the behaviour to occur,
540 or which can also hinder the change in behaviour.
541 Enabling factors are those factors which act as a
542 barrier or enable a person to perform the behaviour.
543 Reinforcing factors (internal and external factors)
544 influence the behaviour maintenance, allowing the
545 individual to carry on performing the new behaviour
546 without relapse.

547 The factors that may predispose, enable and
548 reinforce community pharmacists to provide CMIs
549 to consumers and to effectively integrate CMIs in the
550 verbal medication counselling process were explored,
551 and arranged into learning outcomes for the edu-
552 cational workshop. Strategies were developed to
553 address the learning outcomes (Appendix). The
554 predisposing factors, such as positive and negative
555 attitudes to the use of CMI, were addressed by
556 sessions discussing the rationale, benefits and impact
557 of written drug information, including CMI.

558 The enabling factors were divided into two groups:
559 firstly, the ease of CMI provision (including CMI
560 availability); and secondly, the skills required to use
561 CMIs as part of the verbal counselling process. To
562 facilitate the use of CMI, a box of the top 50 most
563 commonly dispensed medications (identified by drug
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Table IV. Barriers identified from needs assessment.

Barrier Type	Barriers
Cognitive	Limited awareness and understanding of the CMI legislation (pertaining to availability and supply)*, Limited skills to use CMI as part of the dispensing and verbal medication counselling practices†, Lack of educational or training programs on the use of CMIs in community pharmacy*,
Situational	Limited availability of CMIs in community pharmacies, in particular loose leaflets, and inability to print electronic CMIs due to lack of appropriate software*, Limited storage space in pharmacies for loose leaflet CMIs†, Lack of printers (in particular, laser printers) to generate electronic CMIs†,
Financial	Increased dispensing and counselling times when using CMIs*, Increased cost, both in computer equipment and extra staff, when using CMIs; Lack of remuneration for the use of CMIs in community pharmacy;
Attitudinal	Pharmacists' perceived negative impact of CMIs on consumers' medication taking behaviour*, Pharmacists' perceived negative impact of CMIs on their relationship with general practitioners (if pharmacists were the main providers of CMIs)*, Dislike of the content and format of the CMI document by community pharmacists†

581 * Barriers which could be addressed within the scope of an educational program.

582 † Barriers which were not addressed within the scope of the educational program but for which strategies were recommended during the program.

names), which had electronic or loose leaflet CMI available, were provided to pharmacists prior to the educational program. Package insert CMI are already available in the medication box, and were therefore not included in the CMI box.

The skills required to use CMI in verbal counselling were separated into communication skills, verbal counselling and the ability to integrate written drug information into verbal counselling. Pharmacists, until recently, have not received extensive training in communication and counselling skills (Smith, Salkind & Jolly, 1990). A high standard of communication skills is required by pharmacists to counsel, educate and motivate consumers about their medications and to influence consumer satisfaction and adherence to therapy (Nagy & Wolfe, 1984). To provide pharmacists with the skills to use CMI, we included training on communication (Gardner, Boyce & Herrier, 1991, Pfizer, 1993, Tindall, Beardsley & Kimberlin, 1994, Rantucci, 1997) and verbal counselling skills (Ranelli, 1990, Gardner et al., 1991, Raynor, 1992, Pfizer, 1993, Tindall et al., 1994, Currie et al., 1997, Rantucci, 1997), as well as experiential learning. The encouragement of self-efficacy is an essential requirement of changing behaviour (Bandura, 1986).

The framework for the verbal counselling skills section of the workshop was based on the Indian Health Service interactive counselling model: "Pharmacist-Patient Consultation Program-Parts 1 and 2" (Gardner et al., 1991, Pfizer, 1993). Pharmacists trained on the Indian Health Service model (Part 1) have expressed greater confidence in counselling, felt more comfortable in interacting with patients and demonstrated improved counselling skills (Lee et al., 1998). Furthermore, they continued to use the Indian Health Service interactive technique in their practices after the training programme had finished.

An on-site training component was developed to reinforce the educational components of the workshop training and address the third set of factors (reinforcing factors) in Green's model (Green, 1984). A workshop combined with on-site training has been shown to be effective in changing community pharmacists' behaviour, and sustain the new behaviour for a period of at least 14-weeks (de Almeida Neto et al., 2000). The observer gave feedback soon after the behaviour had occurred (Bandura, 1986), following a method devised by Pendleton (1984).

Whilst the protocol included in the program incorporated the guidelines available on CMI use (Table III) (Commonwealth Department of Human Services & Health, 1995, Pharmacy Guild of Australia, Pharmaceutical Society of Australia, Society of Hospital Pharmacists of Australia, 1996), it was intended to be more comprehensive than both guidelines. Other sources which informed its development included results of earlier research (Aslani, 1999); and the Indian Health Service

Pharmacist-Patient Consultation Programs 1 and 2 (Gardner et al., 1991, Pfizer, 1993).

The protocol was presented in a 17 page A4-sized booklet, containing a summary flow-diagram of the protocol for the incorporation of CMI in the dispensing and counselling processes; detailed notes for the flow diagram (including background information about CMI), information on how to deal with problem situations when providing CMI, such as contradictory information, non-approved uses of the medication (not included in the CMI), third party collection of CMI, withholding CMI and non-English speaking customers; and copies of the legislations relating to the supply and content of CMI.

Pre-testing the educational program

Pre-testing the protocol, educational workshop and on-site training with a group of community pharmacists was needed to assess the acceptability and suitability of the protocol to the needs of the target population (Hawe et al., 1990). The pre-testing constituted the process evaluation of the educational program, an essential step in program development. The program was pre-tested to meet the following objectives:

1. assess the clarity and interpretation of the protocol;
2. evaluate community pharmacists' opinions on the components and information content of the program and
3. determine the feasibility and practicality of the protocol, the workshop content and on-site training process in community pharmacy practice.

The pre-testing was conducted in three stages.

Individual discussions

First, we conducted individual discussions with a convenience sample of nine community pharmacists. Draft copies of the written protocol were distributed to the pharmacists for review and comment. The pharmacists were asked to provide feedback on the information content of the protocol and its feasibility and practicality in community pharmacy practice, during individual discussions with the researcher. All discussions were tape recorded, transcribed verbatim and content analysed.

Group discussion

In the next stage, the amended protocol was mailed to a convenience sample of community pharmacists ($n = 5$), who had previously completed the mail survey in the needs assessment stage, prior to the focus group discussion. The pharmacists were asked to assess the protocol implementation in their practice

697 and provide feedback on the same issues as the
698 subjects who participated in the individual discus-
699 sions. Group discussions are ideal for generating new
700 ideas and therefore useful in the context of develop-
701 ment or refinement of a professional practice tool,
702 such as, guidelines in general practices (Fardy & Jeffs,
703 1994). Typed transcripts were prepared and content
704 analysed.

705 *Pilot testing of the educational program*

706 For the final stage, a convenience sample of nine
707 community pharmacists attended the one-day work-
708 shop at the University of Sydney. They were also
709 provided with follow-up training at the community
710 pharmacy. They were requested to comment on the
711 feasibility and practicality of the written protocol
712 (which was incorporated in the workshop) for
713 community pharmacy; provide their opinions on the
714 educational workshop and on-site training content
715 and procedure; and suggest any possible strategies to
716 improve the program. Furthermore, they completed
717 an anonymous written feedback based on the
718 questionnaire used by the Institute for Teaching and
719 Learning, at the University of Sydney, where they
720 reported on the components of the workshop which
721 they liked and disliked, what information they gained,
722 relevance to practice and how the workshop could be
723 improved. Individual telephone or face-to-face inter-
724 views were also conducted with each pharmacist to
725 discuss and gain further feedback and comments after
726 the workshop and when on-site training was provided.

727 **Results**

728 *Pre-testing of the educational program*

729 Minor changes were made to the protocol as a result of
730 the comments received from the individual and focus
731 group discussions.

732 The results from the final stage, the pilot-testing,
733 indicated that overall, the training was found to be
734 useful and participants reported that they were able to
735 incorporate the written protocol into their dispensing
736 and counselling processes. They found the content of
737 the protocol easy to read and understand, and of an
738 appropriate length and information content. All
739 participants found the flow diagram more useful
740 than the booklet, but felt that the booklet was essential
741 until they became completely familiar with the steps in
742 the flow diagram. No suggestions were made to
743 modify the content of the written protocol.

744 Respondents stated that the entire training program
745 was practical and could be implemented in their
746 practice and extended to other pharmacists. They felt
747 that it was possible to take day off from work at the
748 pharmacy to attend the workshop, but that it would
749 not be possible for all pharmacists from the same

750 pharmacy to attend the workshop on the same day
751 (for pharmacies which employed more than one
752 pharmacist) because of the need to find more than one
753 locum. Under these circumstances the respondents
754 suggested that several training sessions should be
755 offered. They believed that the on-site training was
756 very useful, not only in reinforcing new material learnt
757 from the workshop, but also in receiving direct
758 feedback about communication and verbal counsel-
759 ling skills, and the use of CMI, in practice.

760 The feedback received from the semi-structured
761 written questionnaire about the one-day workshop
762 included:

- 763 1. Provision of new information in the workshop.
764 Nearly all workshop participants stated that new
765 information had been provided. The most com-
766 mon responses were, information on the rationale
767 for CMI, different CMI distribution formats,
768 methods of verbal and non-verbal communication
769 with consumers, the use of open-ended questions
770 in verbal counselling, the modes of CMI use in
771 practice and possible ways of addressing barriers to
772 communication with consumers. Other responses
773 included, confirmation that pharmacists can high-
774 light sections of the CMI document during verbal
775 counselling, and suggested methods for verbal
776 counselling of consumers with repeat medications.

777 Interesting discussion with other pharmacists and
778 “ideas” on various aspects of communication
779 especially for difficult patients.

780 All about the different types of CMI. I did not know
781 there was more than one type. I also was not aware of
782 the lack of availability and the electronic CMI.

783 One participant stated that they had not gained any
784 new information from the workshop. However, he/she
785 found the workshop useful because it reinforced
786 some of the information about CMI, and communi-
787 cation and verbal counselling skills which he/she
788 already knew.

789 very good for reinforcing and hearing other people’s
790 opinions on certain subjects

791 Additionally, the workshop provided an opportunity
792 for the participants to become aware of other
793 pharmacists’ opinions about CMI and its use in
794 practice, as well as their opinions on communication
795 and verbal counselling skills. This may indicate the
796 importance of subjective norm (from Ajzen’s “theory
797 of reasoned action”) in influencing the use of CMI by
798 some community pharmacists.

- 799 2. Relevance to community practice. All workshop
800 participants agreed that the workshop had been
801 relevant to their practice. The majority stated that
802 the verbal counselling techniques and the com-
803 munication skills discussed, as well as the modes of
804

813 CMI use in verbal counselling, were the most
814 relevant parts of the workshop. They did not find
815 any part of the workshop irrelevant to their practice.

816 ...related to one of the most important professional
817 roles of the pharmacy...you need good
818 communication skills in order for you to be able to
819 use the CMI.
820

821 The discussion helped me work out in my own mind
822 how I will try to use CMI from now on.
823

824 3. Most liked component of the workshop. The most
825 common response provided by the pharmacists
826 was the ability to perform role plays, practice the
827 verbal medication counselling skills (gained in the
828 workshop), practice using CMIs in counselling,
829 and discussing and exchanging ideas about the
830 workshop issues with the other participants. A few
831 pharmacists also enjoyed observing the role-plays
832 on the counselling and communication videos.

833 Being able to talk to other pharmacists and get their
834 ideas on their procedures.
835

836 4. Least liked component of the workshop. Two
837 participants felt that the workshop was "too long",
838 while another pharmacist felt that "time was a
839 restriction" and more discussion of CMI use in
840 practice was required. Another pharmacist found
841 the introductory section on CMIs too long.

842 5. Improvements to workshop. Some of the
843 comments made under this question were: to
844 reduce the workshop time; to increase the
845 information content on communication skills,
846 barriers to communication and verbal counselling
847 of consumers; to perform more role plays, in
848 particular, on the implementation of the written
849 protocol in practice; and to discuss "real"
850 examples. One participant felt that more
851 workshops should be run so that all pharmacists
852 employed at his/her pharmacy could attend.
853

854 More focus on real life situations. More on actual
855 best practice models
856

857 Additionally, the pharmacists found the follow-up on-
858 site training useful, in particular, in reinforcing the
859 material covered in the workshop such as the use of
860 CMI as a verbal counselling tool.

861 The modifications made to the content of the
862 educational workshop and the on-site training
863 component as a result of this stage, included:
864

- 865 1. Summarising the section on the impact of written
866 drug information on consumers' behaviour;
- 867 2. Expanding the communication skills component
868 of the workshop and
- 869 3. Allocating more time for counselling role plays.
870

Discussion

871 The educational program was designed to change
872 individual behaviour. Therefore, theoretical models
873 were used which described behavioural change, rather
874 than models which placed emphasis on attitudes,
875 or attitudes towards behaviour. Furthermore, the
876 theories consider factors other than attitude which can
877 influence behaviour.
878

879 Fishbein and Ajzen have complemented and
880 improved on aspects of a HBM analysis of health
881 decision making by separating belief from attitude
882 and emphasising the paramount importance of the
883 influence of "significant other" on an individual's
884 intention to act (Tones, Tilford & Robinson, 1990).
885

886 Both models also consider the importance of
887 enabling factors or perceived control as a factor
888 influencing behaviour change. A person may have a
889 positive attitude, a strong intention and have the
890 appropriate social pressures to perform the new
891 behaviour, but be unable to do so because of internal
892 or external factors. If the person has control over these
893 factors, then she/he will be able to manage or regulate
894 these factors and accomplish the behaviour, specifi-
895 cally, behaviours under volitional control. Bandura's
896 (1986) theory of self-efficacy provides support for the
897 relationship between an individual's perceived control
898 over performing a behaviour and the actual perform-
899 ance of the behaviour. Thus, the two models of
900 behaviour: Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour and
901 Green's PRECEDE model were robust theories for
902 designing the educational program.
903

904 However, in changing individual's behaviour it is
905 important to consider how the individual's attitudes,
906 beliefs, intentions and behaviour fit into or are
907 opposed within the social or community structure.
908 An individual's attitudes, beliefs and intentions are
909 developed and changed within the social context
910 through interactions with other individuals (Douglas,
911 1971). Furthermore, peer support or pressure does
912 influence behavioural intention (Ajzen & Madden,
913 1986) and this was considered in designing the
914 educational program. For example, lack of employer
915 (Venkataraman, Madhavan & Bone, 1997) or peer
916 support may be a barrier to the provision of
917 pharmaceutical services such as CMI provision
918 and use as a counselling tool. The purpose of the
919 on-site training was to provide reinforcement for the
920 new behaviour and minimise relapse into the old
921 behaviour.

922 Lack of peer support can go beyond the community
923 pharmacy, to a local or national network of
924 pharmacists and colleagues, or to professional
925 pharmacy bodies who guide and set standards for
926 the practice of pharmacy. Developing programs to
927 change individual behaviour may be insufficient in
928 view of the issues of peer support and environment,

929 even though the majority of community pharmacists
930 appear to practise in isolation. Thus, one of the
931 weaknesses of using the above models of behaviour is
932 that they do not take account of pharmacy as a larger
933 organisation and the social networks linked with
934 community practice. If factors “outside” the commu-
935 nity pharmacy outweigh a person’s intention to
936 perform a behaviour, then it is possible that the
937 behaviour change will not occur, no matter how well
938 grounded the educational program, in models of
939 individual behaviour. Models such as the organis-
940 ational change and social networks theory would be
941 more appropriate, however, they in turn are limited as
942 they do not consider individual behaviour change. A
943 combination of several models, or development of a
944 model of behavioural change which incorporates
945 aspects of individual as well as organisational
946 behaviour change may be more appropriate for
947 underpinning educational programs targeted at chang-
948 ing pharmacists’ behaviour (Blom, 1996).

949 The evaluation of the educational program demon-
950 strated the feasibility of the program, and its ability to
951 be implemented in practice. Although, a sample of
952 nine community pharmacists were used, the sample
953 was adequate for process evaluation, and a valid result
954 in terms of feasibility of the program for future
955 implementation may be drawn.

957 Conclusion

959 This paper has described the development and process
960 evaluation of an educational program to foster the
961 provision of CMI, and its use as a verbal counselling
962 tool by community pharmacists. Two models of
963 behaviour change, namely Ajzen’s Theory of
964 Reasoned Action and Greens PRECEDE model,
965 provided the theoretical framework for the develop-
966 ment of the educational program. The components of
967 the program were carefully selected to incorporate the
968 issues identified in the needs assessment; to incorpo-
969 rate the guidelines on the provision and use of CMI
970 developed by government and professional pharmacy
971 bodies and to address the factors described in the
972 above theoretical models. The process evaluation of
973 the program with three groups of pharmacists resulted
974 in minor changes to the content of the protocol and
975 workshop, as well as to the format of workshop
976 delivery.

977 The educational program has been embraced by the
978 Pharmaceutical Society of Australia and over 25 one-
979 day workshops have been delivered to practicing
980 pharmacists.

981 While the educational program was well received by
982 the participants, it is important to evaluate its impact
983 on community pharmacists behaviour, with respect to
984 the rate of CMI provision and its use in verbal
985 counselling, in order to determine the success of the
986 program in changing behaviour and adoption of a new

pharmaceutical service. The impact of the program on
the provision of CMI and its integration in verbal
counselling has been evaluated in a quasi-experimen-
tal, randomised comparative study.

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Appendix

Predisposing factors.

Learning objectives/behavioural outcomes	Strategies used in educational program	
1. Explain the rationale for written patient drug information	1. Discussion and review of the literature	1247
2. Discuss the consumers' needs for drug information	2. As Above	1248
3. Identify positive and negative impacts of written patient drug information, including CMI	3. As Above	1249
4. Explain the history and legislation, and benefits of CMI to consumers	4. Information on CMI, history and legislation to be provided in workshop	1250

Enabling factors.

Learning objectives/behavioural outcomes	Strategies used in educational program	
1. Demonstrate the use of the Indian Health Service interactive counselling model which recommends:	1. Discussion of the verbal counselling model, and barriers to verbal counselling and strategies to overcome barriers	1251
• use of open-ended questions assessment of patient understanding	• Video examples of counselling model	1252
• filling in gaps in patient's drug knowledge	• Role plays	1253
• interactive counselling		1254
• patient verification/summary of information provided		1255
2. Be able to effectively incorporate CMI in the verbal medication counselling process	2. Discussion of the study written protocol	1256
	• Use of CMI box	1257
	• Problem solving	1258
	• Role plays	1259

1277		Reinforcing factors.	1335
1278			1336
1279	Learning objectives/behavioural outcomes	Strategies used in educational program	1337
1280	1. Incorporate CMI into practice	1. Researcher to observe the use of CMI in practice and provide feedback and/or suggestions for improvement, where applicable	1338
1281			1339
1282	2. Use CMI as part of the counselling process	2. Researcher to observe the use of CMI as a counselling tool, and the pharmacists' communication and counselling skills, and provide feedback	1340
1283			1341
1284			1342
1285			1343
1286	3. Overcome problems encountered when using CMI	3. Researcher to discuss the problems pharmacists have encountered and overcome, and suggest possible strategies for the future	1344
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