1 ABSTRACT

2

Background: Many patients experience difficulties adhering to medication regimes. For 3 4 people who forget or get confused about medication, there are products to help them such as multi-compartment medication devices (MMDs). Some of these, known as 5 electronic MMDs (eMMDs), use audible and/or visual signals to prompt the patient when 6 7 to take medication, dispense medications, give instructions to the patient, and contact a 8 caregiver (mobile internet or text to a carer) as needed. Aim: To systematically review the literature on the use of eMMDs, to determine what 9 10 evidence for their effectiveness is available. Methods: A comprehensive literature search of 10 databases, plus an internet search 11 12 and hand searching was conducted, using the MeSH terms reminder systems/patient 13 compliance/medication adherence. There were no date restrictions. Inclusion criteria 14 were patients in any community setting, in any country and with no restrictions of age, 15 gender, ethnicity or medical condition, using an eMMD. Peer-reviewed quantitative or qualitative studies of any design were included. 16 17 Results: Of 805 abstracts identified and 99 full text papers retrieved, six met the inclusion criteria. Five of the studies reported adherence to medication regimes; one 18 19 reported design factors to improve adherence. Adherence varied by the context of the reminders, the target group and usability of the devices. The studies were small scale 20 and only one was a well conducted randomised controlled trial. 21 22 **Conclusion:** Overall methodological quality of the studies was poor. Although positive 23 effects on adherence were reported further, rigorously conducted, studies are needed to 24 inform the use of eMMDs. 25 26 Keywords: Medication device, patient adherence, reminder systems. 27 28 29 30 INTRODUCTION 31 32

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33	15 million UK adults ¹ are living with chronic disease, 30% of whom have multiple
34	morbidity requiring polypharmacy, and many have some level of cognitive impairment.
35	This number is estimated to double by 2030 ² . Medication adherence problems are
36	common and associated with poor disease control including hospitalisation and death ³⁻⁸ .
37	There are also other financial implications; it has been estimated that in the UK the cost
38	of medications unused and returned to pharmacists ⁹ is £100 million per annum.
39	
40	Non-adherence may be unintentional or intentional. Unintentional non-adherence is
41	usually due to practical problems such as poor instructions, poor memory or cognitive
42	defects, multiple medications to be taken or difficulty in opening packaging.
43	Intentional non-adherence is largely associated with poor motivation and negative beliefs
44	about medication. While both types of non-adherence can result in failure to take any of
45	the medicine, the most common form of non-adherence is doses missing because of
46	forgetfulness, changed medication schedules or busy lifestyles ¹¹⁰ .
47	
48	A review 124 of medication adherence identified four general categories to improve
49	adherence: patient education; improved dosing schedules; increased access to health
50	care; and improved communication between physicians and patients. Strategies to
51	improve dosing schedules were described, including the use of pillboxes to organize daily
52	doses, simplifying the regimen to daily dosing, and cues to remind patients to take
53	medications. Another review 132 which assessed current research on determinants of
54	patient adherence found that multifaceted interventions are most likely to improve

adherence. A recent Cochrane review¹⁴³ of interventions to improve adherence found 55

56 that while almost all of the effective interventions were complex these did not lead to large improvements in adherence and treatment outcomes. 57

58

A Kings Fund report on polypharmacy $^{1\underline{5}4}$ noted that adherence problems increase as 59 60 medicine regimens become more complex. It concluded that there is a need to develop systems that optimise medicines use for patients taking multiple medications, to 61

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62 maximise benefit, minimise risk and reduce harm and waste. Solutions proposed 63 included training programmes, improved electronic decision support for clinicians and/or patients, patient-friendly information systems, the use of monitored dose systems and 64 clinical audit. A report on the use of multi-compartment compliance aids¹⁶⁵ (MCAs) 65 66 concluded that MCAs may be of value for some patients who have been assessed as having practical problems in managing their medicines. The ease of use of MCAs has also 67 been investigated 126 as problems with accessing medication from its packaging in a MCA 68 had been reported by 54% of participants. This suggests that modifications need to be 69 70 made and it may be that electronic storage and dispensing methods with reminder 71 systems could be a useful addition if they are found to increase adherence. 72 73 There are now electronic Medicine Management Devices (eMMDs) that can prompt the 74 patient when to take a medicine using audible and/or visual signals, dispense medicines 75 at the appropriate times, give instructions to the patient, and contact a caregiver 76 (usually by mobile technology) if medicines are not removed or are not taken at the 77 right time. Reminders and alerts can be set up by health care professionals or carers. 78 Such devices are heavily promoted by manufacturers and described in government 79 policy documents¹⁸⁷. However, it is not known if these electronic devices provide any advantage over regular MMDs in terms of better adherence to a medication plan. 80 81 The aim of this systematic literature review was to determine: if there is evidence that 82 the use of eMMDs improves adherence; for which patient groups and for which condition types they are most likely to be successful in improving adherence and health outcomes; 83 how acceptable are they to users, carers and health care professionals and if there is 84 85 evidence of cost savings from their usage. 86

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87 METHODS

88 Inclusion criteria

Studies were included from all community settings and countries and no restrictions
were made in terms of patients' age, gender, ethnicity, medical condition or types of

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91	medication. Peer-reviewed qualitative and quantitative studies of all designs were
92	included.
93	Studies investigating multi-compartmental devices which met at least one of the
94	following criteria were included:
95	1. Prompted the patient when to take a medicine using audible and/or visual signals
96	and/or dispensed medicines at the appropriate times.
97	2. Gave instructions to the patient, and/or contacted a caregiver if medicines were
98	not removed or were taken at the wrong time.
99	Outcomes
100	Outcomes to be collected included adherence measures, clinical outcomes, usability, and
101	satisfaction with the intervention.
102	
103	Search methods for identification of studies
104	The MeSH terms for the database search were reminder systems/ patient compliance/
105	medication adherence. See Appendix 1 for detailed search terms.
106	
107	The databases of the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (Trials along with
108	EED and HTA) and the Database of Abstracts of Reviews of Effects (DARE), MEDLINE,
109	EMBASE, CINAHL, EBSCO, PsycINFO, Scopus, ASSIA and Web of Science were searched.
110	Current Controlled Trials was searched to identify trials in progress. The Internet was
111	searched using the Google academic search engine (<u>http://scholar.google.com</u>) looking
112	at the first 300 returns on the relevance ranking, electronic reminder system
113	manufacturers contacted, and abstracts from the Pharm-line database checked. Internet
114	search terms were based on the MeSH terms for drug administration and drug delivery
115	systems and reminder systems along with the specific trade names. Reference lists of
116	papers retrieved in full text for relevant studies were also searched. Hand searches of
117	journals and meetings abstracts were carried out. There were no language restrictions

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applied in the initial search, however full text versions of papers not published in Englishwere excluded as no translation service was available. There were no date restrictions.

120

121 Selection of studies

122 The search strategy (see Appendix 1) was implemented by MP on 26 March 2014 and

123 references imported to Endnote and duplicates removed. MP checked all the titles and

124 abstracts of potentially relevant studies and these were independently checked by at

125 least one other member of the research team. Full text copies of potentially relevant

126 studies were obtained and these were assessed by MP and one other member of the

127 team for their eligibility for inclusion against the criteria outlined above. Disagreements

- 128 were resolved by discussion.
- 129

130 Data extraction and management

131 The following data were extracted by two independent reviewers (MP and one other

- 132 member of the team) from the studies using a customised data extraction form in Excel:
- 133 Country and setting
- 134 Study design
- Participants (sample size, mean age, gender ratio)
- 136 Medical condition/medication
- 137 eMMD system
- 138 Adherence measure
- 139 Other reported outcomes including clinical outcomes, acceptability, barriers and
- 140 facilitators to the use of eMMDs, the experience and usability of the devices
- 141 Study tools e.g. questionnaire
- 142 Costings
- 143

144 Quality assessment and reporting biases in included studies

- 145 Studies were assessed for the risk of potential bias using the Critical Appraisal Skills
- 146 Programme (CASP)¹⁹⁹ questions as appropriate to the study design. For randomised

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147	controlled trials (RCT) this included allocation procedures, blinding, attrition, power of
148	study and whether positive results had been stressed over negative results. For a cohort
149	study this included: the population, subjective or objective measures, accuracy of
150	outcome measurement to minimise bias, and consideration of confounding factors if they
151	were identified. For a qualitative study this included the rigour of data collection, the
152	type of analysis and clarity of the statement of findings. <u>Using the answers to the</u>
153	questions as an indication of quality, an overall quality assessment for each study was
154	determined.
155	
156	Summary measures and synthesis of results
157	Where available, the difference in mean adherence was reported. Otherwise the studies
158	are reported narratively.
159	
160	RESULTS
161	Study selection
162	A total of 805 titles/abstracts was identified. After removal of duplicates 749 abstracts
163	were screened, of which 650 were excluded as they contained no explicit mention of
164	electronic reminders. Full text articles were obtained for the remaining 99. Three
165	articles, identified from citation lists or the grey literature were rejected because they
166	had not been peer reviewed. The PRISMA chart is shown in Figure 1.
167	
168	Study characteristics
169	Six articles met the full inclusion criteria and the main characteristics are summarised in
170	Table 1. The studies were conducted between 2008 and 2013, in countries in North
171	America, Europe and Asia. There was a range of study designs from observational
172	studies (3), a controlled longitudinal study (1) and RCTs (2). The studies used eMMDs
173	with different levels of sophistication of electronic reminders but all with alarms that
174	were triggered by different contextual factors or with the facility to contact users or
175	carers. Hayakawa et al. $\frac{2019}{100}$ interviewed 116 patients attending (as outpatients)

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176 cardiovascular or metabolic disease departments to inform the development of an eMMD, 177 followed by a feasibility study in which 10 patients used the device. Hayes et al. 219 used 178 adherence to vitamin pills to explore the effectiveness of a complex reminder 179 intervention in 10 elderly people where forgetfulness was an issue. Lo et al.^{22±} carried 180 out an ethnographic study observing the use of an eMMD followed by a satisfaction survey of 30 healthy volunteers to explore the desired properties and the barriers to use 181 182 of such a device. Schmidt et al.²³² conducted a controlled longitudinal study of 62 183 patients with high blood pressure and congestive heart failure (CHF) taking 184 antihypertensive medication to determine if an eMMD could improve adherence. Simoni et al.²⁴³ used an eMMD combined with cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) in a RCT with 185 186 40 HIV positive patients with depression taking anti-retroviral medication. Stip et al.254 187 tested an eMMD in a RCT of 47 people with schizophrenia taking anti-psychotic 188 medications. 189

190 Effects of the intervention on adherence rates

191 Hayakawa et al. tested the design and feasibility of a smartphone based reminder 192 system which linked wirelessly to a pillbox and included real-time medication monitoring. 193 According to the self-reports from 116 interviews 46 (41.1%) patients forgot to take their medication, or took their medication more than two hours behind schedule, more 194 than once a week. In the feasibility study of the pillbox with 10 patients, delay in taking 195 196 medicine within the scheduled time occurred 47 times out of 127 (37.0%) and in 17 of the 47 occasions (36.2%) patients took their medication upon being presented with only 197 one reminder. 198

199

Hayes et al. compared three types of reminder systems in older patients who lived alone and were considered to be poorly adherent. They reported that adherence rates varied with the situation in which prompts were administered. Context-aware prompting which only occurred when participants had forgotten to take their pills and were in a situation where they were likely to be able to take their pills, resulted in a mean adherence of

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92.3% (95% CI 84.7-97.0). Using time based reminders alone adherence was 73.5%
(95% CI 68.0-78.6), and with no prompting 68.1% (95% CI 57.5-80.5). Adherence was
tracked by the eMMD.

208

209 Schmidt et al. studied adherence when using an eMMD in patients with CHF taking antihypertensive medication who had self-reported or physician reported compliance 210 211 problems (n=32). Medication intake data was transferred by the eMMD to an electronic health record and was monitored by health care professionals. Compliance was 212 213 measured by the number of interventions needed to remind patients to take medication if they failed to take medication when the alarm went off. More than 50% of patients 214 215 made only 0-2 mistakes during the 2 month period although this varied greatly with one 216 patient needing 19 interventions.

217

218 Simoni et al. conducted a RCT to examine the efficacy of a CBT intervention for 219 depression used simultaneously with an eMMD (Medsignals®), compared to an identical 220 pillbox with the alert system deactivated and with no CBT, in patients with HIV receiving 221 antiretroviral therapy who were sub-optimally adherent. Adherence was monitored by 222 self-reports using a visual analogue scale²⁶⁵ and an embedded log in the pillbox that 223 recorded compartment openings and uploaded the data to a web based system. They reported that greater adherence was recorded by the intervention group using the eMMD 224 225 with an odds ratio of 3.78 (SE=1.31, 95% CI=1.62-7.26, p=0.001). Similar findings were reported for the self-reports (OR=3.34, SE=1.31, 95% CI=1.62-7.26, p=0.001). 226 227

Stip et al. conducted a RCT to test if an eMMD (DoPill®) with an alarm and real time
information improved adherence in schizophrenic patients taking anti-psychotic
medications compared with a control group using a Medication Events Monitoring System
(MEMS®) device which only recorded openings. The use of the eMMD showed a mean
antipsychotic adherence rate (AAR) (number of pills taken / number of pills prescribed X
100) of 67% which was comparable for both devices. The raw results indicated that

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234	more adherent patients at baseline evidenced greater improvement in adherence relative
235	to more non-adherent patients, with ARRs of 98-100% when using the eMMD. This
236	suggests there may be a limit to the benefit that electronic aids can have for increasing
237	adherence in those who are not simply forgetful. Adherence was also measured by the
238	Brief Adherence Rating Scale (BARS) ratio, a self-report and clinician assessment of
239	adherence which is used to assess medication adherence in schizophrenia and was
240	reported in the literature $^{2\underline{7}6}$ to show an AAR of about 49.5% in the general schizophrenic
241	population. The AAR measured by BARS in this study was found to be $86-99\%$
242	suggesting that BARS was not an accurate indicator of adherence in this group of
243	participants.
244	
245	Effects of the intervention on health outcomes
246	Simoni et al. reported improved biological markers of cell counts for HIV viral load for
247	patients taking antiretroviral drugs and psychological indicators of depressive symptoms
248	using the Beck Depressive Inventory-1A (BDI-IA) and the Montgomery-Åsberg
249	Depression Rating Scale (MADRS). The primary depressive symptoms outcomes were
250	assessed with a self-report on the BDI-IA and a semi-structured interview by an
251	independent rater blind to treatment condition using the MADRS. Intervention
252	participants demonstrated a greater drop in depressive scores in BDI-IA scores (OR = -
253	3.64, SE=1.78, 95% CI=-7.26 to 0.01, p = 0.05) and to a lesser extent MADRS scores
254	(OR=-5.14, $p=0.14$). Biological markers indicated some relative improvement for CD4
255	cell count (OR = 69.45, SE = 38.57, 95 % CI = -6.16 to 145.05, p = 0.07), but not for
256	viral load (OR=0.14, 95%CI=-0.75-1.03, p=0.75).
257	
258	Schmidt et al. compared the intervention group with a control group of CHF patients

259(n=30) who did not have adherence problems, did not use the eMMD and had better260mental and physical health at baseline. They found a significant improvement in mental261health in the intervention group based on self-reported health status in the 12-Item262Short Form Health Survey²⁷ (T= -3.09, p≤0.01) from baseline to the 2 month

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263 assessment. The mental health of the control group did not change significantly

264 (T=1.81, p=0.05) in this time.

265

266 Usability issues

267 Lo et al. found an eMMD could enhance adherence if it could be used flexibly in different 268 contexts, was not too large, the alarm was not so intrusive that it overcame privacy if used outside the home and interface complexity was reduced to simplify the operating 269 system. Older adults in the feasibility study of 30 patients (15 > 65 years, 15 < 65270 271 years) preferred a pillbox that integrated both pillbox and reminder functions rather than 272 using a separate mobile phone as the reminder. Hayakawa et al. found 51 out of 112 273 (45.5%) took their medications outside the home more than once a week, suggesting 274 that portable pillboxes may support medication self-management. Schmidt et al. found the features with the most potential for improvement were more flexible programme 275 276 timing and mobile solutions for the pillbox. Hayes et al. identified benefits for the elderly 277 in not being required to carry medication dispensers but rather having a system that 278 monitors their movements to determine when medication prompting should be carried 279 out. 280

281 Limitations of the studies

All the studies included in the review had methodological problems. They were limited by small numbers, inadequate control groups and often included complex interventions of which adherence technology was only a part. The limitations are summarised in Table 2. The CASP quality assessment tools were used to determine the quality but due to the mixed methods used by the studies a full comparison was not meaningful. A cost analysis was not reported in any of the included studies.

288

289 DISCUSSION

This review suggests eMMDs may improve adherence. However all the studies had
 methodological limitations, and larger, well conducted controlled trials, with longer term
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292	outcomes are required to confirm this. <u>SStudies using anof eMMDs as use the</u>
293	technology as both the intervention and the tool to measure adherence, the intervention
294	cannot separate the adherence measurement tool- which may introduces biasmaking it
295	difficult to assess the sole effect of the eMMD which may also partly explain the low
296	effect found. Most Furthermore most of the studies in this review were at the feasibility
297	stage and did not report in detail on clinical outcomes. The elderly with cognitive
298	problems and patients with conditions where timing and adherence to medication
299	regimes are critical were the groups most likely to benefit from these more sophisticated
300	reminder devices. The usability, mobility of the device and the flexibility of timing of
301	reminders were identified as issues that still need to be addressed.
302	
303	Previous reviews in this area have focused on electronic reminders but not particularly
304	on eMMDs. A review by Fenerty $^{2\mathfrak{D}}$ found no significant difference in adherence rate for
305	patient reported results compared to electronic monitoring systems. It was unclear
306	whether one type of reminder system had a significant impact on adherence. The review
307	concluded that the type of medication could influence the adherence rate and that
308	chronic and asymptomatic illnesses may be most resistant to adherence-enhancing
309	strategies. Similarly Vervolet 3029 reviewed studies using electronic reminders but only
310	one of the papers in this review concerned an eMMD and this was included in our review.
311	The review provided evidence for the short term effectiveness of electronic reminders
312	but the effects in the long term were unclear.
313	
314	This review showed that electronic reminders combined with MMDs may have the
315	potential to lead to improvements in patients' adherence to medication but the context,
316	usability and medical condition influence their usefulness. Further high quality studies in

- $\ensuremath{$ a range of contexts are required to establish if the use of eMMDs as a long term aid or
- 318 possibly as an interim tool to achieve adherence is effective and cost-effective.
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321	Review team
322	Brian McKinstry, Christine Bond, Moira Kinnear and Mary Paterson
323 324 325 326 327 328	Competing Financial Interest None in relation to this study Funding The study was supported by the Chief Scientist Office [grant number CZH/4/968].
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