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Abstract: Background

Studies have shown patient attitudes to be an important predictor for health related behaviours including medication adherence. It is less clear whether patient attitudes also predict medication adherence among patients with psychoses.

Method

We conducted a systematic review and meta analysis of the data of studies that tested the association of attitude measures with medication adherence among patients with psychoses.

14 studies conducted between 1980 and 2010 were included.

Results

Results show a small to moderate mean weighted effect size ($r = .25$ and $.26$ for Pearson and Spearman correlations, respectively).

Conclusions

Theory based interventions that target potentially modifiable attitude components are needed to assess the relationship between positive patient attitudes and adherence behaviours among patients with psychoses.

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Do attitudes towards medication adherence predict medication adherence behaviours among patients with psychosis? a systematic review and meta analysis

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Abstract

Background

Studies have shown patient attitudes to be an important predictor for health related behaviours including medication adherence. It is less clear whether patient attitudes also predict medication adherence among patients with psychoses.

Method

We conducted a systematic review and meta analysis of the data of studies that tested the association of attitude measures with medication adherence among patients with psychoses. 14 studies conducted between 1980 and 2010 were included.

Results

Results show a small to moderate mean weighted effect size ($r^+ = .25$ and $.26$ for Pearson and Spearman correlations, respectively).

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Key words: medication adherence, attitudes, psychoses,

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9 10 **1. Introduction**

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15 Failure to adhere to medication is an important issue among all disease groups, with
16 costly implications both for the patient and health service providers. Among patients with
17 psychoses, non-adherence rates are particularly high, with reports ranging from 20% to 89%
18 [1]. It has been proposed that patients with psychoses lack insight into their illness, and that
19 this influences adherence to medication regimes [2]. Non-adherence to antipsychotic
20 medication may not only enhance distressing symptoms, and the likelihood of relapse but
21 negatively influence the patients' quality of life and long-term prognosis [3]. Moreover,
22 failure to adhere to prescribed regimens may result in longer and more frequent periods of
23 inpatient care, leading to increases in the overall cost of care [4].
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37 Accumulating evidence suggests that more positive patient attitudes towards
38 medication adherence lead to better adherence behaviours among various populations
39 including patients with psychoses [5]. This observation coincides with increasing emphasis
40 that is placed on patient-reported outcomes (PROs) among patients with psychoses [6]
41 suggesting that a focus on individual's cognitive representations may-be relevant to clinical
42 treatment outcomes among this patient population. This perspective coincides with various
43 social cognitive models (SCMs) such as the health belief model [7] and theory of planned
44 behaviour [8] that assess various cognitive representations or beliefs about health
45 behaviours. While relatively few studies have utilised social cognitive theories among
46 patients with psychoses [see 9,10 for exceptions] they have been applied successfully to
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1 numerous health behaviours including adherence to medication regimes among patients with
2 urinary tract infections [11], diabetes [12], HIV or AIDS [13] and travellers in malarial
3 regions [14].
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7 Among psychiatric populations, the self reported drug attitude inventory [DAI; 15],
8 and the observer rating of medication influence [ROMI; 16] have been predominately
9 utilised to assess patient attitudes towards adherence. Like attitude constructs in the HBM
10 [17] and the TPB [8] these measures assess beliefs about medication adherence including
11 perceived benefits, costs, and relapse prevention. Additionally, the ROMI includes aspects
12 of therapeutic alliance, normative beliefs, and barriers to treatment.
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21 Patient attitudes towards medication adherence may provide a potentially important
22 target for intervention as they are proposed to be potentially modifiable [8]. However,
23 before the relevance of attitudes for adherence among patients with psychoses can be
24 established, research synthesis is needed to examine i) the size of the association between
25 attitudes and medication adherence behaviours and ii) the generalisability of the findings
26 across the relevant studies.
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36 In this review we aim to assess the extent to which available evidence supports the
37 development of behaviour change interventions that target patient attitudes by accumulating
38 quantitatively the available evidence on the association between attitudes and medication
39 adherence behaviours among patients with psychoses. Specifically, systematic search and
40 meta-analytic techniques were employed to test the hypotheses that positive patient attitudes
41 towards medication will be positively correlated with adherence behaviours among patients
42 with psychoses. Additionally, study quality will be explored as a moderator of the
43 attitude/adherence association.
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2. Method

2.1 Searches and inclusion criteria

A three-stage systematic search was undertaken to locate primary research papers relevant to the review. Initial search terms contained adjectives or derivatives of the following 4 terms: “medication” (e.g., neuroleptic or antipsychotic), “compliance” (e.g., adherence), “attitudes” (e.g., subjective response or health beliefs) and “psychosis” (e.g., schizophrenia or schizo or psychosis) that were combined using a series of Boolean and/or operators and wildcards. These combinations were used to search Medline, Psychinfo, and Psych-articles databases between 1980 and 2010. Only English language journals were considered.

Potentially relevant articles were exported into a reference citation manager where titles and abstracts were screened for relevance. At stage 2, studies were included only if a) at least 70% of the sample were diagnosed as having a psychotic disorder (including schizophrenia, schizo-affective disorder, and psychoses), b) an established measure of attitude was included c) attitude was linked bivariately to at least one measure of medication adherence. The effect size r was used as it represents both the direction and strength of associations. Where data was missing, authors were contacted. Papers from which data were extracted are marked with an asterisk in the reference section.

2.2 Data coding

The following data was coded from each primary article where present a) reference details; b) country; c) sample size and patient diagnoses; d) attitude measure(s); e) study design and length of time to outcome; f) adherence measure(s); g) effect size estimate in r ; h) internal reliability of the attitude measure(s); i) internal reliability of the adherence measure(s). Following previous research [18] Pearson and Spearman correlations were

1 analysed independently; the study details of which, are presented in tables 1 and 2,
 2 respectively.
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4 Note that we included the constructs from the HBM as these refer to individuals'
 5 cognitive representations or behavioural beliefs such as threat perception and evaluation of
 6 the costs and benefits of enacting the behaviour that may underpin more direct attitude
 7 assessments [14]. In order to minimise bias resulting from statistically dependent findings
 8 [18] global composite scores were coded wherever available and no more than two
 9 associations were extracted from a single study. Where there were more data available, the
 10 later outcome i.e., that measured most distant to the attitude measure was extracted. When
 11 different values other than r were reported, the following effect size types were converted
 12 into r : t , F , X^2 .
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27 *2.3 Quality criteria*

28 Due to the problems of multiple testing, a global index of study quality was
 29 developed. The following criteria and coding were used to assess for each association the
 30 quality of the study reporting it: the sample size ($<30 = 0$, ≥ 30 and $<100 = 1$, $\geq 100 = 2$),
 31 study design (cross sectional = 0 and prospective = 1), the conceptual validity of the
 32 instrument used to measure attitude (confounded attitude measure = 0, 'pure' attitude
 33 assessment = 1), validity of the adherence measure (no established scale = 0, established
 34 scale = 1), reliability of adherence measure (self reported, by patient or observer = 0,
 35 combination of patient and observer self reports = 1, combination of objective and self
 36 reported measures = 2, objective measure = 3), internal reliability of attitude and adherence
 37 measures (internal consistency $<.70$ or non reported reliability = 0, internal reliability $>.70$
 38 = 1). When adherence was measured objectively rather than self reported internal reliability
 39 was assumed to be adequate. Scores were summed across each item to create an overall
 40 quality score, ranging from 0 to 9 with higher scores indicating better study quality. Studies
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1 were then allocated to one of three groups, i.e., low (0–3), medium (4–6) and high quality
2 (7–9), a distinction used in other reviews [19].
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5 2.4 *Inter-rater reliability* 6 7

8 All articles were coded by two independent researchers. An initial agreement rate of
9 89% across all judgments was obtained and all disagreements were resolved through
10 discussion.
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14 2.5 *Analytic Strategy* 15 16

17 Hypotheses were examined in three analytic steps. First meta-analytic findings for
18 the overall attitude effects were calculated. Second, publication bias was assessed using
19 Duval and Tweedie’s trim and fill procedure [20]. Third, study quality was explored as a
20 moderator of the attitude/adherence association.
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27 Consistent with accumulating evidence, heterogeneity in effect sizes was expected
28 [21]. Thus, observed correlations were pooled and corrected for sampling error using a
29 random effects model. The mean observed (r^+) correlation and corresponding confidence
30 intervals were also calculated. Heterogeneity between scores was assessed using I^2 and Q
31 statistics. The Q statistic reflects the total amount of variance in the meta analysis while the
32 I^2 value indexes the proportion of variance that is due to between-study differences and
33 unlike the Q statistic, it is not sensitive to the number of studies considered. I^2 values range
34 from 0 to 100% and it has been suggested that values of 25%, 50%, and 75% indicate
35 low, moderate and higher heterogeneity, respectively [22].
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49 Publication of statistically significant results is more probable [23] which increase
50 the likelihood of type 1 errors (and an over estimation of the mean effect size) in meta
51 analysis. To examine this potential bias, we applied Duval & Tweedie’s [20] “trim-and-fill”
52 procedure which estimates the number of studies that may be missing due to publication
53 bias, and then imputes these missing studies prior to re-calculating the attenuated effect size.
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1 Plots of effect size against inverse standard errors around the mean effect size estimate were
2 used in this analyses. For the moderation analyses, sub-group analysis was performed by
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4 grouping the associations by study quality and assessing heterogeneity between groups using
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6 the $Q_{between}$ statistic within a random effects model.
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9 Comprehensive Meta analysis, version 2.0 (Biostat; Englewood, New Jersey, USA)
10 was used for all analyses
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14 15 16 17 **3. Results** 18 19 20

21 At stage one the search strategy yielded a total of 641 papers. After scanning
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23 abstracts and titles using the specified inclusion criteria 111 papers were identified as
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25 relevant and read in detail. The substantial exclusions at this stage were due to a large
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27 number of studies that had not assessed both attitudes towards medication and adherence
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29 behaviours. 14 papers [9, 10, 24-35] of the 111 potentially relevant papers were found to
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31 meet all inclusion criteria and included in the review. The search process is summarized in
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33 Figure 1.
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38 The reported studies were conducted in Hong Kong, Spain, Denmark, the
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40 Netherlands, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The percentage of patients with
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42 psychosis varied between 71% and 100%.
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46 47 48 49 *3.1 Data Description* 50

51 A total of 19 independent correlations were analyzed. Of these 13 (N =1911) were
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53 Pearson correlations (r) while 6 were Spearman Rank-order coefficients (rs) (N = 780). Of
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55 the Pearson correlations, 8 were coded as poor in quality (N=1034) and 5 as moderate in
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57 quality (N=877). There were no associations coded as good in quality. Of the Spearman
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1 correlations, 3 associations were coded as poor in quality (N =519), 2 as moderate in quality
2 (N =203) and 1 as good in quality (N =58).
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4 Figures 2 and 3 present the meta-analytic results for the Pearson and Spearman
5 correlations, respectively and include the study details, sample size (N), each study r , the
6 mean weighted (r^+) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs),
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11 *3.2 Overall Attitude effect for Pearson's correlations*

12 The averaged corrected correlation between attitude and medication was $r^+ = 0.25$,
13 (CIs = 0.18, to 0.32), $Q(12) 29.95, p <.05$. This represents a small-to-medium effect size
14 and as the confidence intervals did not include zero, the null hypothesis was rejected. All of
15 the effects were positive in valence. The Q statistic, and an I^2 statistic of 51.90% showed a
16 moderate degree of heterogeneity in the effect size across the studies, which indicated the
17 likelihood of moderators [36].
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32 *3.3 Overall Attitude effect for Spearman's correlations*

33 The averaged corrected correlation between attitude and medication was $r^+ = 0.26$,
34 (CIs =0.12, to 0.38], $Q(5) 15.35, p = .01$. This represents a small-to-medium effect size
35 (Cohen, 1987) and as the confidence intervals did not include zero, the null hypothesis was
36 rejected. All of the effects were positive in valence. The Q statistic, and an I^2 statistic of
37 67.43.% showed a substantial degree of heterogeneity in the effect size across the studies,
38 which indicated the likelihood of moderators [36].
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52 *3.4 Publication Bias*

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1 For the overall analyses we found no evidence of publication bias. A single missing
2 effect was identified for the Spearman correlations. However, adjusting for the missing
3 study, did not significantly alter the mean effect size ($r^+ = .23$, CIs = 0.09, to 0.36)
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9 *3.5 Moderator analysis*

10 For the Pearson correlations, sub-group analysis indicated that the between study
11 heterogeneity was not due to study quality, $Q_{\text{between}} = 1.11$ (1), $p = .26$ (for studies coded as
12 medium $r^+ = .29$, CIs = .19 to .38; for studies coded as poor, $r^+ = .22$, CIs = .13 to .30) There
13 were not enough studies using Spearman correlations to explore study quality as a
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4. Discussion

We systematically reviewed and meta analysed the empirical evidence on attitudes
towards medication adherence and medication adherence behaviours among patients with
psychoses. A positive relationship of a small to moderate magnitude was observed. Study
quality as a moderator did not account for the significant heterogeneity between studies.
The review has various limitations. Because of the small number of studies we were unable
to conduct univariate moderator analysis which may have explained some of the
heterogeneity between studies. Nonetheless, a global index of study quality did not
moderate the attitude/adherence combination across the relevant studies suggesting that
theoretical moderators may-be operating. For example, side-effect profiles may moderate
the attitude/adherence association with more noxious medications reducing adherence. It is
also important to consider stage of illness (recent onset versus chronic), patient's psychotic

1 state (active versus remission) in addition to a number of individual characteristics such as
2 length of illness, substance abuse, gender, ethnicity, and social economic status.
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5 The remaining limitations reflect the methodological shortcomings of the included
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7 studies, only one of which met the defined criteria for a high quality study. Crucially, some
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9 of the measures designed to assess patient attitudes are poorly conceptualised making it
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11 difficult to establish the 'pure' association between attitudes and adherence behaviour. For
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13 example, the ROMI designed to assess patient attitudes, includes aspects of therapeutic
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15 alliance and self efficacy which although relevant, may be distinctive concepts to patient
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17 attitudes. Relatedly, internal reliability coefficients were reported in 4 studies for attitudes
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19 and a single study for adherence. Additionally, only one study included an objective
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21 measure of adherence, with the majority relying on self reports from either the patient or
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23 persons providing care.
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29 The finding that attitudes are small to moderately positively related to adherence
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31 behaviour among patients with psychoses is consistent with the findings in other domains
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33 and populations, both in direction and size [14] indicating that the patient decision making
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35 process is relevant to clinical outcomes among patients with severe mental illness. Thus,
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37 despite the specific illness characteristics typically associated with psychoses (e.g., lack of
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39 insight) the relationship between attitudes and medication adherence is comparable to other
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41 populations without any mental illness. This finding substantiates recent qualitative reviews
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43 [5] and adds to these by providing mean effect size estimates and indexes of heterogeneity.
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47 Importantly, this result is consistent with the growing body of evidence indicating that
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49 subjective patient reports are predictive of important clinical outcomes among patients with
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51 psychoses [6]. Moreover, in contrast to correlates traditionally associated with adherence
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53 behaviours among patients with psychoses, (i.e., demographic and clinical characteristics)
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55 attitudes are potentially modifiable and therefore provide a promising target for intervention.
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1 The finding that patient attitudes towards medication adherence are positively related
2 to behavioural adherence is consistent with SCMs such as the TPB. The TPB proposes that
3 attitudes predict behavioural intentions which reflect an individual's motivation to engage in
4 the behaviour. Following this, patient motivation is the presumed mechanism that accounts
5 for adherence behaviours among patients with psychoses. Nonetheless, the TPB also
6 acknowledges that positive intentions to engage in a behaviour is not always enough and self
7 regulatory factors influence the capacity to translate intentions into action. Thus, self
8 regulatory skills such as setting specific plans to implement goals may be needed
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19 Theoretical models are rarely tested in research on medication adherence among
20 psychiatric populations. This is limiting as theoretical models like the TPB not only specify
21 the causal mechanism of behaviour change but facilitate the conceptualisation of distinct but
22 closely related constructs [37]. For example, the TPB identifies normative beliefs, and
23 perceptions of control as distinct antecedents of behavioural intention. The current findings
24 indicate that SCMs such as the TPB may be relevant to patients with psychoses although the
25 measures may need to be adapted. Models such as the TPB are often an attractive for
26 researchers as additional constructs can be added when they explain variation over and
27 above those already specified in the model. Thus other constructs (e.g., therapeutic alliance)
28 if found to be relevant could be included.
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43 This review indicates that interventions targeting patient attitudes could be
44 developed. An example is the leaflet-like intervention [38] that included persuasive
45 communication targeting the formation of positive attitudes by highlighting the advantages
46 of drinking within daily limits (e.g., fewer headaches and hangovers and lower risk of liver
47 disease). Similar interventions could be developed and evaluated in the context of
48 medication adherence and could have direct implications for healthcare policy and clinical
49 practice. The development of interventions is important, because, unlike correlation studies,
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1 where only associations are tested, causal statements about the direction of the association
2 can be made in addition to assessments of clinical relevance. A recently developed
3 taxonomy of behaviour change techniques [37] could facilitate the selection of appropriate
4 technique(s) for targeting attitude change and subsequent medication adherence.
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9 This review underlines the need for methodologically more rigorous research and
10 points to at least three requirements for future research in the area. First, attitude and
11 adherence should be assessed with accurate instruments that have been shown to be valid
12 measures among patients with psychosis. Second, research should consider the role of
13 attitudes after consideration of other relevant constructs (e.g., therapeutic relationship), in
14 addition to potential mediating and moderating factors using a theoretical framework such as
15 the TPB. Third, interventions designed to target and improve patient attitudes towards
16 medication adherence should be developed and evaluated.
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29 Medication adherence is a complex issue particularly among patients with psychoses.
30 The evidence reviewed here identifies patient attitudes as central to adherence. Specifically,
31 among patients with psychoses, subjective evaluations of medication adherence were shown
32 to be positively related to adherence behaviours. Rational decision making models such as
33 the TPB could therefore be tested empirically among patients with psychoses.
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Table 1.
Study Details for the Pearson Correlations

Author(s) and year	Country	Sample size and % with psychosis	Attitude Measure(s)	Study design (CR= cross sectional, PRO=prospective) and length of time to outcome	Adherence measure(s)	Effect size estimate r and N	Reliability of attitude measure(s)	Reliability of adherence measure(s)
Agarwal et al., 1998	UK	78 (100%)	DAI	CR	Combination of patient and observer rated compliance based on Lin et al., 1979.	r = .23, n=76	Not reported	Not reported
Donohoe et al., 2001	UK	32 (100%)	DAI	CR	Observer rated using a structured clinical interview (Adams and Howe, 1993).	r=.62, n=32	Not reported	Not reported
Haan et al., 2007	Netherlands	119 (100%)	ROMI , global scale	PRO 5 years	Observer rated compliance, developed by authors.	r=.13, n=97	Not reported	Not reported
Kamali et al., 2001	UK	87 (100%)	DAI	CR	Observer rated using a structured clinical interview (Adam and Howe, 1993)	r=.18, n=66	Not reported	Not reported
Kapelowics et al., 2007.	America (Mexican-American population)	155 (100%)	TPB, Attitude construct	CR	Treatment compliance interview (TCI; Weiden et al., 1995) (Patient, relative and treatment provider versions used).	r = .37, n=155	$\alpha=.91$	Not reported
Kelly et al., 1987	USA	107 (72%)	HBM, Barriers construct	CR	Self reported compliance (9 items) developed by authors.	r=.32 ^r , n=107	$\alpha=.98$	$\alpha=.90$
			HBM, Benefits construct			r=.20, n=107		
Mutsatsa et al., 2003	UK	101 (100%)	ROMI, compliance items.	PRO Maximum 3 weeks.	Observer rated compliance, using the compliance rating scale (CRS; Hayward et al., 1995)	r = .04, n=101	Not reported	Not reported
			ROMI, non-compliance items			r = .29 ^r , n=101		
Tsang et al., 2009.	Hong Kong	86 (100%)	ROMI, compliance items.	CR	Observer rated compliance using the Kemp Compliance scale (KCS; Kemp et al., 1996).	r=.30, n=86	Not reported	Single item
			ROMI, non-compliance items.			r =.33 ^r , n=86		
Quach et al. 2009.	Denmark	432 (100%)	ROMI, compliance items.	PRO 2 years	Observer rated, based on structured interview with clients, information from primary care-givers as well as examination of patient's medical records.	r=.29 ^c , n=432	Not reported	Not reported
			ROMI, non-compliance items.			r=.13 ^c , n=432		

Note: DAI=drugs attitude inventory, TPB=theory of planned behaviour, HMB=health belief model, ROMI=rating of medication influence, ^r = reversed scored, ^c= converted into r.

Table 2.
Study Details for the Spearman Correlations

Author(s) and year	Country	Sample size and % with psychosis	Attitude Measure(s)	Study design (CR= cross sectional, PRO=prospective) and length of time to outcome	Adherence measure(s)	Effect size estimate r and N	Reliability of attitude measure(s)	Reliability of adherence measure(s)
Cabeza et al., 2000.	Spain	60 (100%)	DAI	CR	Observer rated based on deviation from prescribed medication taking and unjustified missed appointments.	r=.46, n=60	Not reported	Not reported
Dolder et al., 2004.	USA	58 (100%)	DAI	CR	Refill compliance	r=.07, n=58	Not reported	Not reported
Failko et al., 2008.	UK	277 (100%)	MARS, Attitude subscale	CR	Observer rated compliance using the compliance item of the Engagement Measure (Hall et al., 2001)	r=.10, n=277	α =.44	Single item
Hayward et al., 1995.	UK	21 (71%)	AMQ	PRO (variable, one–two months after discharge).	Observer rated by doctors responsible for the patients care.	r=.58, n=21	Not reported	Not reported
Kennedy et al., 2003.	UK	182 (100%)	TPB, Attitude construct	CR	The Kemp adherence scale, (KCS; Kemp et al., 1996) Observer rated (key worker)	r=.20, n=182	α =.7	Single item
					Drug behaviour scale (DBS; Kennedy et al., 2003). self reported.	r=.32r, n=182	α =.7	Not reported

DAI=drugs attitude inventory, TPB=theory of planned behaviour, , AMQ= attitudes to medication questionnaire, DBS=Drug behaviour scale, MARS=medication attitude rating scale, ^r= reversed scored, ^c= converted into r.

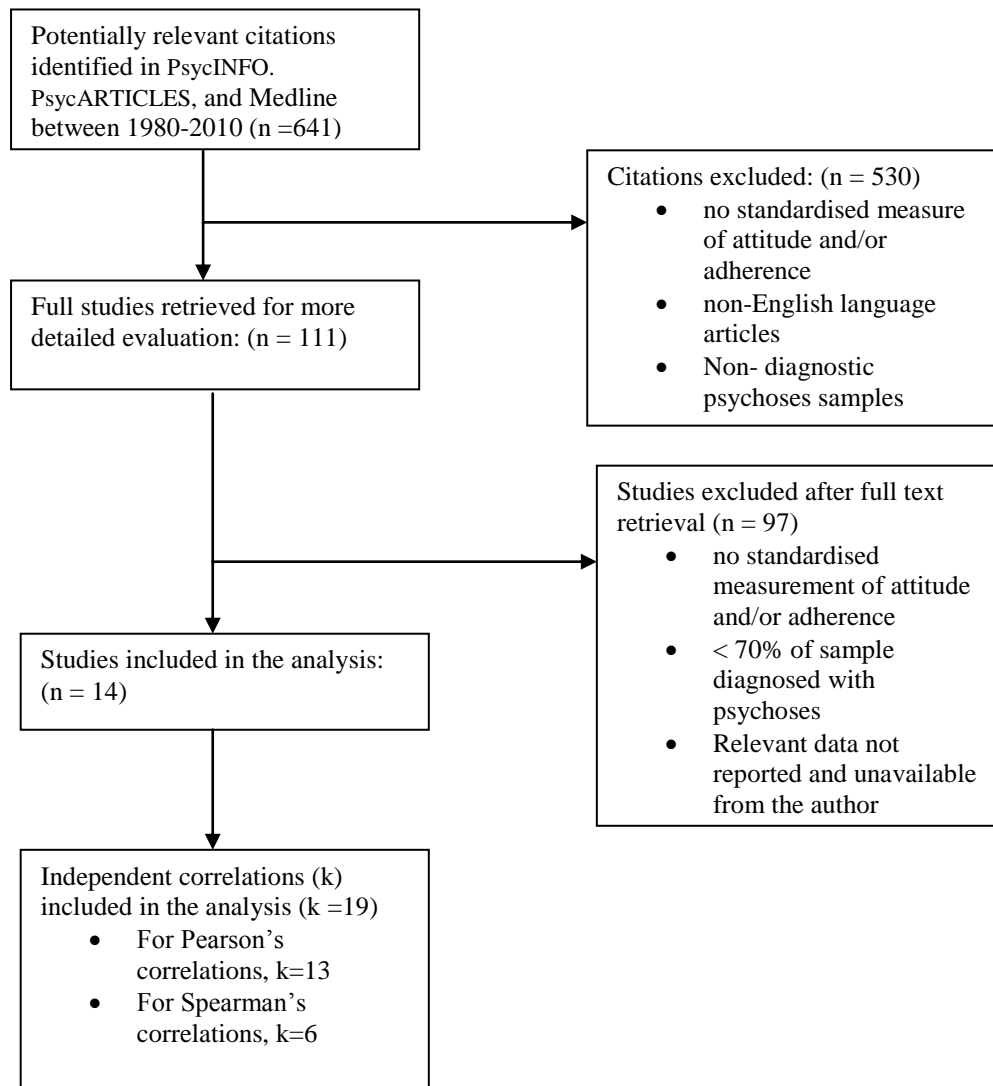
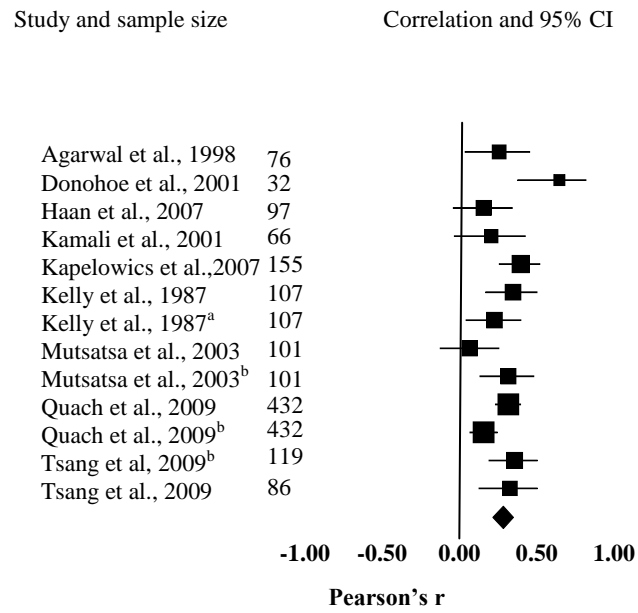
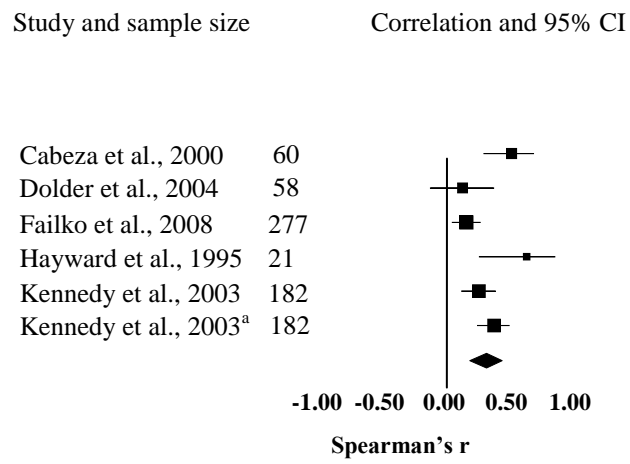


Figure 1. Search process of the literature



Note : ^a = benefits; ^b = non-compliance items,

Fig. 2 Forest plot of the Pearson correlations (with 95% confidence intervals) between attitude and medication adherence.



Note.^a = drug behaviour scale items

Fig.3. Forest plot of Spearman correlations (with 95% confidence intervals) between attitude and medication adherence