1 RESEARCH PAPER

- 2 Assessing the digital literacy levels of the community pharmacy workforce using a
- 3 survey tool
- 4 Philip Crilly, M.Pharm., John Fletcher, PhD., Nishma Chandegra M.Pharm., Asem Khalefa
- 5 M.Pharm., SK M Rouf M.Pharm., Mohamed Zein M.Pharm., and Reem Kayyali, PhD.
- 6 School of Life Sciences, Pharmacy and Chemistry, Kingston University, United Kingdom

Mr Philip Crilly	School of Life Sciences, Pharmacy and Chemistry, Kingston University, United Kingdom <u>P.Crilly@kingston.ac.uk</u>	 Conception and design of the study Revised the study critically Drafting of paper Final approval of version to be published
Dr John Fletcher	School of Life Sciences, Pharmacy and Chemistry, Kingston University, United Kingdom J.Fletcher@kingston.ac.uk	 Data analysis Drafting of paper Approval of finished work
Ms Nishma Chandegra	School of Life Sciences, Pharmacy and Chemistry, Kingston University, United Kingdom nishma_chandegra@hotmail.co.uk	 Data collection Data analysis Approval of finished work
Mr Asem Khalefa	School of Life Sciences, Pharmacy and Chemistry, Kingston University, United Kingdom asem.khalefa@live.com	 Data collection Data analysis Approval of finished work
Mr SK M Rouf	School of Life Sciences, Pharmacy and Chemistry, Kingston University, United Kingdom skrouf@yahoo.com	 Data collection Data analysis Approval of finished work
Mr Mohamed Zein	School of Life Sciences, Pharmacy and Chemistry, Kingston University, United Kingdom mohamedzein@hotmail.co.uk	 Data collection Data analysis Approval of finished work
Prof Reem Kayyali (Corresponding Author)	School of Life Sciences, Pharmacy and Chemistry, Kingston University, United Kingdom <u>R.Kayyali@kingston.ac.uk</u>	 Conception and design of the study Revised the study critically Final approval of version to be published

7	Declaration of interest
8	The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.
9	
10	Data access
11	All authors had full access to the study data in SPSS for Windows.
12	
13	Data availability
14	The data underlying this article will be shared on reasonable request to the corresponding
15	author.
16	
17	Funding
18	This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial,
19	or not-for-profit sectors.
20	
21	Word count
22	3000
23	
24	Acknowledgements
25	The authors wish to thank all participants in this study.
26	
27	
28	
29	
30	
31	
32	
33	
34	
35	
36	
37	
38	
39	
40	

41 Abstract

42 Objectives. To investigate the digital literacy of staff in London, UK, community pharmacies43 and to explore their perceptions about the use of eHealth tools.

44 Methods. The study population was community pharmacy staff (N=21,346) in Greater

45 London. A survey tool was divided into six sections: Use of the internet; Use of social media;

46 Use of mobile health applications (MHAs); Perception of and practical use of digital health

47 tools; Scenario-based questions; and demographics. Responses were analysed in SPSS.

48 Following data collection, Health Education England's (HEE's) Digital Capabilities

Framework (DCF) was published. The authors mapped the survey tool retrospectively to theframework.

51 Key findings. Almost all respondents (98.0%, n=551/562) used eHealth tools at work,

52 mainly to access medicine information (89.8%, n=495/551). Almost one-third (31.7%,

53 N=178/562) used social media regularly, while many (79.4%, N=446/562) were aware of

54 MHAs. Self-perceived digital literacy indicated that 63.3% (n=356/562) deemed themselves

to be above average. Under 35s rated their digital literacy more highly than over 35s

(p<0.001). HEE's DCF indicated that actual digital literacy was lower than that self-

perceived. Despite high use of eHealth tools, respondents were reluctant to recommend theseto the public for health advice.

59 Conclusions. Community pharmacy staff self-report their digital literacy to be high yet do 60 not use these skills for public health purposes. Furthermore, these self-reported skills appear 61 to be over-estimated. Despite high levels of use of digital tools at work, staff do not use them 62 for public health, therefore, further training to build confidence to better utilise them is 63 recommended.

Key words. Community pharmacy; eHealth; digital literacy; social media; mobile health
apps; digital capability.

66 Introduction

Globally, 2.5 billion people have a smartphone(1) and four billion use social 67 media.(2) During the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, many people were asked to use 68 digital technology for a variety of reasons;(3) to track the spread of COVID-19, to record 69 vaccination status, and to have video consultations with healthcare professionals (HCPs).(3) 70 Tele and digital technologies in healthcare have led to the coining of the term 71 72 eHealth.(4,5) eHealth covers three domains [1] digital devices to monitor health, [2] digital devices to communicate with patients, and [3] digital devices to track public health data. A 73 74 systematic review of randomised controlled trials (RCTs) highlighted the successful use of eHealth tools by community pharmacists to support patients with medication adherence and 75 counselling,(6–12) to encourage vaccination uptake,(13,14) to offer smoking cessation 76 support,(15) and to help patients manage hypertension.(5,16,17) Typically this was via 77 telephone, with prompts to encourage the public to take an action, for example, to book a 78 vaccination. Mobile health applications (MHAs) were only used in one study, as was the use 79 of a photographic aging software, while social media was not used.(5) Given that social 80 media and MHAs are widely used by the public irrespective of age, ethnicity, education, or 81 socio-economic background, (18–22) this represents an opportunity for the community 82 pharmacy profession to extend its reach. 83

The public regularly use eHealth tools themselves for health advice, sometimes above seeking advice from a community pharmacist.(18) Community pharmacists also reported that members of the public had used eHealth tools prior to their visit to the pharmacy.(19) Of concern, was that often eHealth information was neither evidence-based, nor accurate(18,19) and was instead from celebrity or brand accounts, posting content for commercial reasons, rather than to improve public health. The public have stated that they would access eHealth

90 information posted by community pharmacy staff, however, issues around public and
91 pharmacy staff privacy and confidentiality would need to be addressed.(18,19)

As eHealth tools increase in popularity, it is likely that the public will turn to the most 92 easily accessible HCPs, like community pharmacy staff, for advice on how to use 93 them.(18,19) Consequently staff will need to be digitally 'literate' (23,24) or risk jeopardising 94 the safety and care of their patients with inadequate advice.(25) Gilster(26) describes digital 95 literacy as the ability of the user to, "... choose information pathways and explore them with 96 ease," and that the public, "require basic skills and thinking competencies to thrive in the 97 98 interactive environment" of the digital era. Age has been highlighted as a factor in digital literacy levels, with those under the age of 35 being described as "digital natives" and those 99 over 35 as "digital immigrants".(27,28) The key difference is that digital natives have lived 100 101 their whole lives with digital tools and have a familiarity with them, while digital immigrants have had to adapt as digital technology has changed the way the world works. (27,28) 102

To address workforce digital literacy, Health Education England (HEE) created the 103 Digital Capabilities Framework (DCF).(29) DCF divides digital capability into six domains 104 (Table 1). Each domain then details four levels of capability, from level 1 indicating basic 105 capability to level 4, representing expert capability. Table 2 provides examples of the skills 106 that are demonstrated at each level. Generally, level 1 represents awareness of eHealth tools. 107 Those at level 2 know how to use eHealth tools themselves, level 3 represents confidence and 108 109 the ability to make recommendations, whilst those at level 4 can coach and support others to use eHealth tools. 110

111 The experience of the COVID-19 pandemic has highlighted that face-to-face access to 112 healthcare services may be stopped at any point,(30), it is, thus, important to consider how 113 community pharmacy can continue to have an impact on public health from afar.(30) If not

addressed, this represents a missed opportunity for community pharmacists to engage thepublic in their health.

116

117 Study aims

118 This study explored English community pharmacy staff perceptions about eHealth tools 119 for public health. It also investigated the digital literacy levels of community pharmacy staff 120 and determined how community pharmacists and trainee community pharmacists would 121 respond to different scenarios that included an eHealth aspect. Finally, this study 122 retrospectively compared staff perceptions of their digital literacy against the HEE DCF to 123 determine if self-perception matched actual skill level.

124

125 Methods

This cross-sectional study was carried out October 2017-April 2019. Following a literature review covering previous surveys, a knowledge gap with respect to the digital literacy levels of pharmacy staff members (community pharmacist, trainee community pharmacists, accuracy checking technicians, pharmacy technicians, dispensers, and healthcare assistants) working in community pharmacies in England was identified.(18,19,23,31–34) To address this gap, the authors determined that a survey would be an appropriate research tool to elicit a high volume of data at low cost and in a timely fashion.(35)

The sample population was all pharmacy staff members (community pharmacists/trainee community pharmacists, plus non-pharmacist staff (accuracy checking technicians, pharmacy technicians, dispensers, and healthcare assistants)) in community pharmacies in Greater London. London was chosen due to the diverse nature of its population and its proximity to the university. HEE reported that the pharmacy workforce in London was

21,346 people(36). A minimum sample size of 378 was calculated using Raosoft® sample size
calculator at a 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error. (37)

A survey tool was created consisting of 51 questions divided into six sections: Access and use of the internet; Use of social media; Use of mobile applications; Perception of and practical use of digital health tools; Scenario-based questions; and demographics. Question types included 5-point Likert scales (choices from strongly agree to strongly disagree; and expert level to basic level), multiple choice questions, and open and close-ended questions.

The delegated ethical approval team operating under the University Science,
Engineering and Computing faculty ethics committee granted ethical approval for the survey
on 12th January 2017 (1213/045).

A pilot was conducted on 40 participants (around 10% of the recommended minimum) to ascertain whether the survey was easy to understand, the duration it would take to complete and whether any questions need to be amended. Post-pilot, several questions were amended slightly. For example, in question 1 "digital literacy levels" was revised to "information technology skills". The final version of the survey tool is included as supplementary material.

Data collection was carried out by authors N.C., A.K., S.R. and Z.M. Each was assigned 153 eight boroughs of Greater London to survey; thus all 32 boroughs of Greater London were 154 covered. A list of all the community pharmacies in assigned boroughs was created and 155 numbered. A randomisation tool (38), then generated a list of pharmacies to visit. Participant 156 157 information sheets (PIS) were posted to the selected pharmacies, one week in advance of the visit. If a pharmacy did not wish to take part, then the next pharmacy on the list would be 158 approached. Surveys could be completed on paper, or via Survey Monkey. Stamped addressed 159 envelopes were provided if a participant could not complete the survey immediately. 160 Pharmacies were given a reminder phone call two weeks later. 161

Following data collection, HEE's DCF was published.(29) The authors reviewed the survey retrospectively to determine what could be mapped to the framework. **Table 3** provides examples of how certain questions were mapped to the "Communication, collaboration, and participation" domain of the DCF, with participant answers to these questions offering an indication of their digital skill levels. This allowed the authors to determine participants' actual digital literacy levels, which were then compared to their self-perceived levels.

N.C., A.K., S.R. and Z.M. entered data into SPSS for analysis. PC checked entered data
to ensure no errors. Statistical tests were carried out using chi-square to compare differences in
responses based on gender, ethnicity, age, and job role (community pharmacists/trainee
pharmacists versus non-pharmacist staff). An A-priori value of less than 0.05 was taken as
significant.

173

174 **Results**

Of the 760 people approached, 562 agreed to complete the study survey, giving a response rate of 73.9%. Lack of time was the most cited reason for non-participation. Participants were 59.1% female and 76.9% were from ethnic minorities (excluding white minorities) (**Table 4**), 47.2% were aged 25-34 years old and 47.0% were community pharmacists or trainee community pharmacists.

180

181 *Access to technology at home and at work*

Almost all (99.5%, N=559/562) had access to the internet at home, typically via laptop/personal computer (93.7%, N=524/559), or smartphone (91.9%, N=514/559). Other devices included smart TVs and gaming consoles. The main reasons for home use were: social media (76.2%, N=426/559), online shopping (49.0%, N=274/559), and entertainment (36.0%, N=201/559).

Internet access at work was also common with 98.0% (N=551/562) of respondents having access, largely via the in-store computer (96.2%, N=530/551), with 30.7% (N=169/551) using a smartphone and 7.8% (N=43/551) having access to an in-store tablet device. The main work reasons were to access medicine information and medical guidelines (89.8%, N=495/551), to facilitate the electronic transfer of prescriptions (49.7%, N=274/551), and to check and place stock orders (37.0%, N=204/551). Of note, nobody stated that they used technology to support public health.

194

195 Social media and MHA use

Use of social media was high. Most (82.6%, N=464/562) had an account on Facebook, 196 followed by YouTube (69.0%, N=388/562), Instagram (57.5%, N=323/562), and Twitter 197 (33.0%, N=185/562). Almost one-third (31.7%, N=178/562) described themselves as being 198 regular users of social media. Most (94.1%, N=529/562) used social media for socialising, 199 while only 6.8% (N=38/562) used social media for public health promotion purposes. Almost 200 half (45.6%, N=256/562) would recommend a social media health page to the public. Of those 201 who would not, the most cited reason stated was that social media health pages were not reliable 202 sources of health information. There were no differences in willingness to recommend a social 203 media health page between community pharmacists/trainee pharmacists (45.5% would) and 204 non-pharmacist staff (46.6% would) (p=0.685), neither were there based on gender (p=0.484), 205 nor ethnicity (p=0.397). There were, however, differences based on age with 48.9% 206 (n=183/374) of under 35s compared to 39.0% (n=73/188) of over 35s being willing to do so 207 (p=0.023). 208

Again, almost all (89.9%, N=505/562) used mobile applications. Many (79.4%, N=446/562) indicated that they were aware of MHAs and almost two-thirds (61.4%, N=274/446) of them used MHAs for their own health needs. Just over one-third (35.2%,

N=198/562) would recommend an MHA to the public, with those who would not indicating they felt MHAs could confuse the public and that they themselves were not aware of which MHAs were endorsed by the NHS. There were no differences in willingness to recommend an MHA to the public when comparing community pharmacists/trainee pharmacists and nonpharmacist staff (p=0.939), neither were there based on gender (p=0.108), age (p=0.139), nor ethnicity (p=0.610).

218

219 Community pharmacists and trainee community pharmacists (n=264) actions in scenario-

220 *based questions*

Almost half (47.7%, N=126/264) of community pharmacists/trainee community pharmacists used some form of eHealth in their work, typically telephone NMS consultations or to text patients to re-order or collect their prescriptions.

When provided with scenarios and asked to state what actions they would take to support patient health, community pharmacists and trainee community pharmacists, took similar approaches. In the case of an asthma patient using a salbutamol inhaler for the first time, 95.5% (N=252/264) would carry out an in-person demonstration with the patient. Additionally, one-quarter (27.3%, N=72/264) would also suggest the patient view an online video explaining how step-by-step.

Furthermore, when counselling a patient who was worried about alcohol consumption, face-to-face consultations were again first choice for most respondents (94.3%, N=249/264), however, half (51.9%, N=137/264) would also signpost the patient to the alcohol advice section on NHS One You.(39)

234

235

237 Information Technology Skills

Participants' self-perceived IT skills indicated that 63.3% (N=356/562) deemed 238 themselves to be above average or expert while 4.4% (N=25/562) stated that they had below 239 average or basic skills. The majority (68.2%, N=255/374)) of those under the age of 35 (digital 240 natives) felt that they had above average IT skills while just over half (53.7%, N=101/188) of 241 the over 35s (digital immigrants) felt the same (p<0.001). Community pharmacists/trainee 242 243 community pharmacists were more likely to deem themselves to have above average IT skills (74.6% N=197/264) than non-pharmacist staff (53.4% N=159/298; p<0.001). There were no 244 245 differences in self-perceived IT skills based on ethnicity (p=0.135) nor gender (p=0.276). Looking specifically at community pharmacists and trainee community pharmacists' 246 responses, their actual IT behaviours in practice were then mapped against HEE's DCF (Table 247 5). Most pharmacists and trainee pharmacists (78.4%, N=207/264) had an awareness of MHAs 248 (Table 5, indicative of level 1 on the DCF). Almost all (97.0%, N=256/264) used social media, 249 and 88.3% (N=233/264) used mobile applications (of any type) themselves (Table 5, indicative 250 of level 2 on the DCF). Despite high levels of use, only 44.3% and 39.0% would recommend 251 a health-related social media page or MHA to their customers respectively (Table 5, indicative 252 of level 3 on the DCF). These figures then drop to only 3.4% who would help a patient to use 253 a smart device to access an MHA or health-related social media page (Table 5, indicative of 254 level 4 on the DCF). 255

256

257 Pharmacy staff perceptions about how digital media will impact their role

Some pharmacy staff (25.8%, N=145/562) felt that public use of eHealth tools for health information presented a threat to their job (**Table 6**). Of note, non-pharmacists (33.2%, N=99/298) feared for their jobs more so than pharmacists/trainee pharmacists (17.4%, N=46/264) (p=0.001). Additionally, three-quarters (75.7%, N=425/562) felt that harmful misinformation could be accessed by the public using eHealth tools. Nearly two-thirds (64.2%, N=361/562) feared that misinformation would go unchallenged, hypothesising that digital media would reduce face-to-face contact between the public and HCPs, and opportunities would be missed to counteract online falsehoods.

Some positive impacts of eHealth tools on public health were highlighted (Table 6). 266 Nearly two-thirds (60.1%, N=338/562) felt that eHealth tools, used correctly, could improve 267 268 public health knowledge, and consultation times could be reduced as health literacy improved. Easier signposting to credible digital health resources was noted as a positive by 68.4% 269 270 (N=384/562), particularly when responding to public queries about health topics on which they were unfamiliar. An additional benefit of signposting, agreed by most (62.5%, N=351/562), 271 was that the public could be directed to further resources on digital media post-consultation so 272 that they would not be overwhelmed with information during the consultation. 273

274

275 Discussion

This study identified that English community pharmacy staff members deem 276 themselves to have high levels of digital literacy, in contrast to studies from other 277 countries.(23,33,34) Under 35s were more likely to believe that they had above average IT 278 skills, as were pharmacists and trainee pharmacists (compared to non-pharmacist staff). Actual 279 behaviours in practice (mapped on HEE DCF) indicated that only 39% of pharmacists/trainee 280 281 pharmacists would recommend an MHA to the public and 44.3% would recommend a social media-health page (indicating above average digital literacy skills (level 3)). Furthermore, only 282 3.4% would support the public in the use of smart devices to access MHAs and social media 283 health pages, therefore, the proportion actually exhibiting what would be deemed to be expert 284 level IT skills (level 4) is much lower than the self-perceived proportion. 285

This is the first study to investigate English community pharmacists and trainee community pharmacists' actions in real-life scenarios relating to their use of eHealth tools to support patients. This work covered London, England only; therefore, community pharmacy staff perceptions in other regions/countries may not be represented fully. The authors do believe, however, that the outcomes of results are meaningful, particularly given that the minimum recommended sample size was exceeded.

292 Use of social media by the pharmacy workforce was high, with Facebook being the most used platform. Most used social media to interact with family and friends, with only a 293 294 very small proportion using it to share information about the health services their pharmacy offered and to improve public health. This is an interesting finding, yet not surprising, given 295 that the community pharmacy workforce is often accused of not doing enough to raise 296 297 awareness of its public health service offering.(40-42) The public are not aware of the services that pharmacies offer, however once they do become aware of these, they are likely to want to 298 use them. There is, therefore, an opportunity for the profession to increase awareness of its 299 services through social media. Echoing perceptions from a previous study, (19) many pharmacy 300 staff were currently unwilling to promote social media health pages to the public given their 301 lack of regulation and the potential for misinformation to be promoted by them. The creation 302 of a social media health page maintained and monitored by community pharmacists may, 303 therefore, alleviate some of these concerns. 304

305 Self-perceived IT skills were high amongst all pharmacy staff, however, under 35s rated 306 their skills higher than those over 35, whilst pharmacists and trainee pharmacists rated their IT 307 skills higher than other staff members. In comparison to other studies in community and 308 hospital pharmacy,(33,34) those in this study appear to rate their digital literacy skills more 309 highly. A theme consistent with the other studies, was a lack of confidence in using digital

technology to engage with patients, and the need for more support and training. Standardoperating procedures for working with digital tools may overcome usability issues.(34)

Access to digital tools and the internet was high, at home and work, however, only a small proportion of staff had access to portable devices (smartphones and tablets) at work. As with other studies, this technology was typically used for dispensing processes, rather than public health promotion.(23,33,34)

316 Perceptions of how technology could impact community pharmacy were mixed. Nonpharmacist staff, in particular, felt that eHealth tools could reduce the need for their role and 317 318 result in job losses. This is not entirely surprising given the evolution of dispensing robots, and the proliferation of online pharmacies, however, Law et al.(43) has highlighted that most 319 patient interactions cannot and should not be automated. It is, therefore, important that when 320 encouraging staff to use eHealth tools that they are reassured that these are intended to be 321 complimentary to their role and will not replace them. Others felt that these tools could offer 322 another method to engage customers and patients. Easier signposting and the potential to have 323 shorter face-to-face consultations were noted as positives of the technology. In line with other 324 research, appropriate training is required to increase utilisation of this technology.(23,25,33,34) 325

The inclusion of eHealth tools in the work of the community pharmacy team has 326 become more prominent, particularly because of their increased uptake during the COVID-19 327 lockdowns.(3,44) eHealth tools offer staff alternative ways to interact with their customers and 328 329 patients, enabling them to improve health away from the physical building of the community pharmacy.(20) The public already use these tools to locate health information, therefore, it is 330 essential that the pharmacy workforce has the necessary skills to ensure that accurate, evidence-331 based information is being accessed.(18,19) This study can be used by those who support the 332 pharmacy workforce to improve the sector's confidence in using digital technology for patient 333 334 care.

336 Conclusions

This study has identified that staff working in community pharmacies in London, 337 England self-report their IT skills to be high yet do not use these skills for public health 338 purposes. Furthermore, these self-reported skills appear to be over-estimated when compared 339 to a health industry digital literacy framework. Despite high levels of use of digital tools at 340 341 home, staff are reluctant to use them in their work, therefore, further training to build confidence and support to better utilise them is recommended. Support tools, such as standard 342 343 operating procedures or guidance from professional bodies may improve the situation. These recommendations should be taken into consideration by the pharmacy regulatory and pharmacy 344 professional bodies. 345

346

347 **References**

- 1. Taylor K, Silver L. Smartphone Ownership Is Growing Rapidly Around the World, but
- Not Always Equally [Internet]. Pew Research Center. 2019 [cited 2020 Aug 27].
- 350 Available from: <u>https://www.pewresearch.org/global/2019/02/05/smartphone-ownership-</u>
- 351 <u>is-growing-rapidly-around-the-world-but-not-always-equally/</u>
- 2. Smart Insights. Global social media research summary 2020 [Internet]. Smart Insights.
- 353 2020 [cited 2020 Aug 27]. Available from: <u>https://www.smartinsights.com/social-media-</u>
- 354 <u>marketing/social-media-strategy/new-global-social-media-research/</u>
- 355 3. Islam MN, Islam I, Munim KMd, Najmul Islam AKM. A review on the mobile
- applications developed for COVID-19: An exploratory analysis. IEEE Access. 2020 Aug
- 357 7;8:145601-10

- 4. Kayyali R, Hesso I, Mahdi A, Hamzat O, Adu A, Nabhani Gebara S. Telehealth:
- 359 misconceptions and experiences of healthcare professionals in England. International
 360 Journal of Pharmacy Practice. 2017 Jun 1;25(3):203–9.
- 361 5. Crilly P, Kayyali R. A Systematic Review of Randomised Controlled Trials of Telehealth
 362 and Digital Technology Use by Community Pharmacists to Improve Public Health.
- 363 Pharmacy. 2020 Aug 4;8(3):137.
- Rickles NM, Svarstad BL, Statz-Paynter JL, Taylor L V., Kobak KA. Pharmacist
 telemonitoring of antidepressant use: Effects on pharmacist-patient collaboration. Journal
 of the American Pharmacists Association. 2005 May 1;45(3):344–53.
- 367 7. Odegard PS, Christensen DB. MAP study: RCT of a medication adherence program for
 368 patients with type 2 diabetes. Journal of the American Pharmacists Association. 2012 Nov
 369 1;52(6):753-62.
- 8. Nietert PJ, Tilley BC, Zhao W, Edwards PF, Wessell AM, Mauldin PD, et al. Two
- pharmacy interventions to improve refill persistence for chronic disease medications a
 randomised, controlled trial. Medical Care. 2009 Jan 1;47(1):32–40.
- 9. Elliott RA, Boyd MJ, Tanajewski L, Barber N, Gkountouras G, Avery AJ, et al. "New
- 374 Medicine Service": Supporting adherence in people starting a new medication for a long-
- term condition: 26-week follow-up of a pragmatic randomised controlled trial. BMJ
- 376 Quality and Safety. 2020 Apr 1;29(4):286–95.
- 10. Kosse RC, Bouvy ML, de Vries TW, Koster ES. Effect of a mHealth intervention on
- adherence in adolescents with asthma: A randomised controlled trial. Respiratory
 Medicine. 2019 Mar 1;149:45–51.
- 11. Kooij MJ, Heerdink ER, van Dijk L, van Geffen ECG, Belitser S V., Bouvy ML. Effects
- 381 of telephone counseling intervention by pharmacists (TelCIP) on medication adherence;
- Results of a cluster randomised trial. Frontiers in Pharmacology. 2016 Aug 30;7:269.

383	12. Beaucage K, Lachance-Demers H, Ngo TTT, Vachon C, Lamarre D, Guévin JF, et al.
384	Telephone follow-up of patients receiving antibiotic prescriptions from community
385	pharmacies. American Journal of Health-System Pharmacy. 2006 Mar 15;63(6):557-63.
386	13. Stolpe S, Choudhry NK. Effect of Automated Immunisation Registry-Based Telephonic
387	Interventions on Adult Vaccination Rates in Community Pharmacies: A Randomised
388	Controlled Trial. Journal of Managed Care & Specialty Pharmacy. 2019 Sep 1;25(9):989-
389	94.
390	14. Hess R. Impact of automated telephone messaging on zoster vaccination rates in
391	community pharmacies. Journal of the American Pharmacists Association. 2013 Mar
392	1;53(2):182–7.
393	15. Burford O, Jiwa M, Carter O, Parsons R, Hendrie D. Internet-based photoaging within
394	australian pharmacies to promote smoking cessation: Randomised controlled trial. Journal
395	of Medical Internet Research. 2013 Mar 26;15(3):e2337.
396	16. Margolis KL, Asche SE, Bergdall AR, Dehmer SP, Groen SE, Kadrmas HM, et al. Effect
397	of home blood pressure telemonitoring and pharmacist management on blood pressure
398	control a cluster randomised clinical trial. JAMA - Journal of the American Medical
399	Association. 2013 Jul 3;310(1):46–56.
400	17. Margolis KL, Asche SE, Dehmer SP, Bergdall AR, Green BB, Sperl-Hillen JAM, et al.
401	Long-term Outcomes of the Effects of Home Blood Pressure Telemonitoring and
402	Pharmacist Management on Blood Pressure Among Adults With Uncontrolled
403	Hypertension: Follow-up of a Cluster Randomised Clinical Trial. JAMA Netw Open.
404	2018 Sep 7;1(5):e181617.
405	18. Crilly P, Jair S, Mahmood Z, Moin Khan A, Munir A, Osei-Bediako I, et al. Public views
406	of different sources of health advice: pharmacists, social media and mobile health
407	applications. International Journal of Pharmacy Practice. 2019 Feb;27(1):88-95.

408	19. Crilly P, Hassanali W, Khanna G, Matharu K, Patel D, Patel D, et al. Community
409	pharmacist perceptions of their role and the use of social media and mobile health
410	applications as tools in public health. Research in Social and Administrative Pharmacy.
411	2019 Jan 1;15(1):23-30.
412	20. Chou WYS, Prestin A, Lyons C, Wen KY. Web 2.0 for health promotion: Reviewing the
413	current evidence. American Journal of Public Health. 2013 Jan;103(1):e9-18.
414	21. Higgins JP. Smartphone Applications for Patients' Health and Fitness. The American
415	journal of medicine. 2016 Jan 1;129(1):11-9.
416	22. Shcherbakova N, Shepherd M. Community pharmacists, Internet and social media: An
417	empirical investigation. Research in Social and Administrative Pharmacy. 2014 Nov
418	1;10(6):75–85.
419	23. MacLure K, Stewart D. Digital literacy knowledge and needs of pharmacy staff: A
420	systematic review. Journal of Innovation in Health Informatics. 2016 Sep 1;23(3):560-71.
421	24. Crilly P, Zein M, Kayyali R. The digital literacy skills of the community pharmacy
422	workforce. International Journal of Pharmacy Practice. 2019 Feb;27:6-31.
423	25. Kuek A, Hakkennes S. Healthcare staff digital literacy levels and their attitudes towards
424	information systems. Health Informatics Journal. 2020 Mar 1;26(1):592-612.
425	26. Gilster P. Digital literacy. Glister P, editor. New York, NY: Wiley Computer Pub.; 1997.
426	27. Prensky M. Digital Natives, Digital Immigrants Part 2: Do They Really Think
427	Differently? On the Horizon. 2001 Nov 1;9(6):1–6.
428	28. Prensky M. Digital Natives, Digital Immigrants Part 1. On the Horizon. 2001 Sep
429	1;9(5):1–6.
430	29. Health Education England. A Health and Care Digital Capabilities Framework [Internet].
431	2018 [cited 2021 Jul 20]. Available from:

432 <u>https://hee.nhs.uk/sites/default/files/documents/Digital Literacy Capability Framework</u>

433 <u>2018.pdf</u>

- 434 30. Farrell TW, Francis L, Brown T, Ferrante LE, Widera E, Rhodes R, et al. Rationing
- Limited Healthcare Resources in the COVID-19 Era and Beyond: Ethical Considerations
- 436 Regarding Older Adults. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2020 Jun 14;68(6):1143–9.
- 437 31. Mackert M, Mabry-Flynn A, Champlin S, Donovan EE, Pounders K. Health Literacy and
- 438 Health Information Technology Adoption: The Potential for a New Digital Divide. J Med

439 Internet Res. 2016 Oct 4;18(10):e264.

- 440 32. Kayyali R, Crilly P. Digital Media in Pharmacy Public Health. Pharmacy &
- 441 Pharmacology International Journal. 2016 Feb 22; 4(2):00069.
- 33. MacLure K, Stewart D. Self-Reported Digital Literacy of the Pharmacy Workforce in
 North East Scotland. Pharmacy. 2015 Oct 15;3(4):182–96.
- 444 34. MacLure K, Stewart D. A qualitative case study of ehealth and digital literacy
- experiences of pharmacy staff. Research in Social and Administrative Pharmacy. 2018
 Jun 1;14(6):555–63.
- 447 35. Sitzia J, Wood N. Response rate in patient satisfaction research: An analysis of 210
- 448 published studies. International Journal for Quality in Health Care. 1998 Aug
- 449 1;10(4):311–7.
- 450 36. Health Education England. The Community Pharmacy Workforce in England 2017
- 451 [Internet]. 2017 [cited 2022 Aug 8]. Available from:
- 452 https://www.hee.nhs.uk/sites/default/files/documents/The%20Community%20Pharmacy
- 453 %20Workforce%20in%20England%202017%20-%20survey%20report.pdf
- 454 37. Raosoft. Sample Size Calculator by Raosoft, Inc [Internet]. 2004 [cited 2022 Aug 8].
- 455 Available from: http://www.raosoft.com/samplesize.html

- 456 38. Urbaniak G, Plous S. Research Randomizer [Internet]. 2017 [cited 2020 Apr 1]. Available
 457 from: https://www.randomizer.org/
- 39. NHS England. Drink less [Internet]. Better Health . 2022 [cited 2022 Aug 8]. Available
 from: https://www.nhs.uk/better-health/drink-less/
- 460 40. Latif A, Waring J, Watmough D, Barber N, Chuter A, Davies J, et al. Examination of
- 461 England's New Medicine Service (NMS) of complex health care interventions in
- 462 community pharmacy. Research in Social and Administrative Pharmacy. 2016 Nov
 463 1;12(6):966–89.
- 464 41. Saramunee K, Dewsbury C, Cutler S, Mackridge A, Krska J. Public attitudes towards
- 465 community pharmacy attributes and preferences for methods for promotion of public
- health services. Public Health. 2016 Nov 1;140:186–95.
- 467 42. Donovan GR, Paudyal V. England's Healthy Living Pharmacy (HLP) initiative:
- 468 Facilitating the engagement of pharmacy support staff in public health. Research in Social
- 469 and Administrative Pharmacy. 2016 Mar 1;12(2):281–92.
- 470 43. Law M, Zeng S, Koo J, Verches D, Lam L, Martini N. Perceptions of community
- 471 pharmacists to implementing technologies in the workplace: an exploratory study.
- 472 International Journal of Clinical Pharmacy. 2021 Oct;43(5):1227-36.
- 473 44. Liu S, Luo P, Tang M, Hu Q, Polidoro JP, Sun S, et al. Providing pharmacy services
- during the coronavirus pandemic. International Journal of Clinical Pharmacy. 2020
- 475 Apr;42(2):299–304.
- 476
- 477

Table 1: Digital literacy domains from Health Education England's (HEE's) Digital

 Capability Framework (DCF)

Domains

1. Communication, collaboration and participation
2. Teaching, learning and self-development

3. Information, data and content literacies

4. Creation, innovation and research

5. Technical proficiency

Table 2: The types of skills demonstrated at each level within a domain of Health Education England's (HEE's) Digital Capability Framework (DCF)

		What does this skill level mean?					
Level 1	Basic skills	User demonstrates an awareness that digital tools are available to support a work task.					
		For domain 1, for example, "I know that there are different methods of digital communication and that they can					
		be used for different purposes and different audiences."					
Level 2		User demonstrates an ability to use digital tools to carry out a task					
		For domain 1, for example, "I can communicate <u>using</u> a range of digital tools in ways that respect differing					
		needs, expectations, cultures and experience."					
Level 3		User demonstrates that they are confident to, and capable of, using the digital tools available to carry out a task					
		and can <u>recommend these</u> to others					
		For domain 1, for example, "I communicate <u>confidently and capably</u> using a wide range of digital tools in ways					
		that respect differing needs, expectations, cultures and experiences."					
Level 4	Expert skills	User goes above just being confident to use a digital tool. User finds solutions to complex problems and leads					
		and supports others in the use of these tools.					
		For domain 1, for example, "I support others and can take a lead on the building, development, maintenance and					
		management of digital networks and forums for communication and collaboration."					
		And					
		"I can create solutions to solve complex problems that are related to sharing and communicating through digital					
		technologies."					

Table 3: Comparison of the study survey tool against Health Education England's (HEE's) Digital Capability Framework (DCF)

- Domain 1

Domain 1	Level	Relevant survey questions		
Communication,	Level 1	If participant answers 'Yes' to: Are you <u>aware</u> of any health-related applications available on		
collaboration, and	Basic	mobile phones?		
participation	Level 2	If participant answers 'Yes' to: Do you <u>use</u> applications on your mobile phone?		
	Level 3	If participant answers 'Yes' to: Have you ever <u>recommended</u> a health-related application to the		
		public?		
	Level 4	If participant answers 'Yes' to: Have you <u>helped a patient</u> in the use of a smart device?		
	Expert			

	N=	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	214	38.1
Female	332	59.1
Prefer not to disclose	16	2.8
Age (years)		
18-24	109	19.4
25-34	265	47.2
35-44	121	21.5
45-54	49	8.7
55+	18	3.2
Ethnicity		
White British and white minorities	130	23.1
Minority ethnicity (excluding white	432	76.9
minorities)		
Job role		
Pharmacist	218	38.8
Trainee Pharmacist	46	8.2
Non-pharmacist staff member	298	53.0

 Table 4: Demographics of participants (N=562) who completed study survey

Table 5: Community pharmacist and trainee community pharmacist responses (N=264) to Health Education England's (HEE's) Digital Capability Framework (DCF) related questions

Domain 1	Level	Relevant survey questions	Responses	
Communication,	Level	Are you <u>aware</u> of any health-	207/264 (78.4%)	
collaboration, and	1	related applications available	community	
participation		on mobile phones?	pharmacists/trainee	
			community pharmacists	
			were aware	
	Level 2	What social media platform do you <u>use</u> ? AND	Facebook was the most used platform (79.2%, N=209/264), followed by YouTube (63.6%, N=168/264) and Instagram (53.8%, N=142/264)	
		How often do you <u>use</u> social media?	Only 3.0% (N=8/264) never used social media	
		Do you <u>use</u> applications on your mobile phone?	233/264 (88.3%) community pharmacists/trainee community pharmacists had used mobile applications themselves	
	Level 3	Would you <u>recommend</u> a health-related social media page to the public?	117/264 (44.3%) community pharmacists/trainee community pharmacists would recommend a health social media page	
		Have you ever <u>recommended</u> a health- related application to the public?	103/264 (39.0%) community pharmacists/trainee community pharmacists had recommended a health- related application	
	Level	Have you <u>helped a patient</u> in	9/264 (3.4%) community	
	4	the use of a smart device?	pharmacists/trainee	
			community pharmacists had	
			helped patients to use smart devices	

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Public use of digital media is a threat to my job	54 (9.6%)	226 (40.2%)	137 (24.4%)	113 (20.1%)	32 (5.7%)
Public use of digital media has the potential to reduce face-to-face time contact with a healthcare professional	10 (1.8%)	98 (17.4%)	93 (16.5%)	312 (55.5%)	49 (8.7%)
Public use of digital media is harmful as they could find incorrect information	13 (2.3%)	34 (6%)	90 (16%)	296 (52.7%)	129 (23%)
Public use of digital media could harm the reputation of the pharmacy profession	25 (4.4%)	103 (18.3%)	175 (31.1%)	211 (37.5%)	48 (8.5%)
Public use of digital media will enhance their health knowledge, therefore, reducing consultation times	4 (0.7%)	63 (11.2%)	157 (27.9%)	289 (51.4%)	49 (8.7%)
Public use of digital media allows me to signpost patients to reliable health sources if I do not have sufficient knowledge regarding a matter	8 (1.4%)	37 (6.6%)	133 (23.7%)	301 (53.6%)	83 (14.8%)
Public use of digital media allows me to not overwhelm patients with information during a consultation	11 (2%)	34 (6%)	166 (29.5%)	291 (51.8%)	60 (10.7%)

Table 6: Pharmacy staff (all job roles) (N=562) perceptions about the impact of digital media on their role, in general and in public health