

1 **Components of pharmacist-led medication reviews and their relationship to outcomes: A systematic**
2 **review and narrative synthesis.**

3 **Abstract**

4 **Introduction:** Pharmacist-led medication reviews are an established intervention to support patients
5 prescribed multiple medicines or with complex medication regimes. For this systematic review
6 (registered in PROSPERO, CRD42020173907), a medication review was defined as “a consultation
7 between a pharmacist and a patient to review the patient’s total medicines use with a view to improve
8 patient health outcomes and minimise medicines related problems”. It is not known how varying
9 approaches to medication reviews lead to different outcomes.

10 **Aim:** To explore the common themes associated with positive outcomes from pharmacist-led
11 medication reviews.

12 **Method:** Randomised controlled trials of pharmacist-led medication reviews in adults aged 18 and over
13 were included. The search terms used in MEDLINE, EMBASE and Web of Science databases were
14 “medication review”, “pharmacist”, “randomised controlled trial” and their synonyms, time filter 2015
15 to September 2023. Studies published before 2015 were identified from a previous systematic review.
16 Risk of bias was assessed using the Cochrane risk of bias 2 tool. Descriptions of medication reviews’
17 components, implementation and outcomes were narratively synthesised to draw out common themes.
18 Results are presented in tables.

19 **Results:** Sixty-eight papers describing 50 studies met the inclusion criteria. Common themes that
20 emerged from synthesis include collaborative working which may help reduce medicines-related
21 problems and the number of medicines prescribed; patient involvement in goal setting and action
22 planning which may improve patients’ ability to take medicines as prescribed and help them achieve

23 their treatment goals; additional support and follow up, which may lead to improved blood pressure,
24 diabetes control, quality of life and a reduction of medicines-related problems.

25 **Conclusion:** This systematic review identified common themes and components, e.g., goal setting, action
26 planning, additional support and follow up, that may influence outcomes of pharmacist-led medication
27 reviews. Researchers, health professionals and commissioners could use these for a comprehensive
28 evaluation of medication review implementation.

29

30 Key messages

31 **What is already known on this topic**

32 There are a substantial number of publications about medication reviews. However, the
33 implementation of pharmacist-led medication reviews has not been explored in depth by previous
34 authors.

35 **What this study adds**

36 This review has identified common themes underpinning the delivery of medication reviews, e.g.,
37 pharmacists' skills, experience and access to patient information, goal setting, action planning,
38 additional support, and feedback, that may influence clinical, economic, and patient-reported outcomes.

39 **How this study might affect research, practice or policy**

40 Future research may involve stakeholders discussing the common themes underpinning the
41 implementation of pharmacist-led medication reviews to develop a draft programme theory.
42 Policymakers could use the conclusions of this review when updating medication review guidance.

43 Introduction

44 Medication reviews (MRs) are a recognised intervention undertaken by healthcare professionals to
45 support patients prescribed multiple medicines or with complex medication regimes [1]. Taking multiple
46 medicines increases the chance of a patient experiencing adverse effects [2]. It is estimated that up to
47 7% of hospital admissions in the UK are due to adverse drug reactions (ADRs) [3]. Medication reviews
48 are a recognised intervention with the aim of preventing adverse drug reactions and improving patients'
49 experience of care. However, the evidence for the effects of medication reviews is unclear. Huiskes et
50 al. [4] demonstrated that medication reviews undertaken by any professional in any setting had minimal
51 effects on clinical outcomes and that evidence is lacking about their effect on economic outcomes. The
52 implementation of medication reviews in practice was recognised as a factor which may influence
53 outcomes, but this has not been explored further.

54

55 Many countries offer pharmacist-led medication reviews, including Australia, USA, Canada, Switzerland,
56 Spain, and Germany [5–10]. Pharmacist-led medication reviews are an established intervention in
57 primary care policy and practice in England [11]. Currently, the evidence for effectiveness of medication
58 reviews is sub-optimal, and this is partly due to the lack of studies exploring which components of the
59 medication review generate positive outcomes [12]. The Medical Research Council (MRC) produced
60 guidance for the process evaluation of complex interventions, such as medication reviews. This
61 framework highlights the relationships between implementation, mechanisms and context [13]. The
62 National Institute for Health and Care Research (NIHR) and MRC Framework for evaluating complex
63 interventions suggests investigating which components lead to the outcome(s) of interest, why and in
64 what settings, to ensure they are acceptable, implementable, cost effective, and transferable across
65 contexts [14]. This systematic review undertook an in-depth exploration of pharmacist-led medication

66 reviews to understand which components are associated with positive outcomes for patients,
67 practitioners, and the health system.

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69 Aim

70 To explore the common themes associated with positive outcomes from pharmacist-led medication
71 reviews.

72 This aim will be achieved by pursuing the following objectives in relation to medication reviews:

- 73 1. Describe their components
- 74 2. Describe their implementation
- 75 3. Describe the reported outcomes
- 76 4. Examine potential mechanisms of impact

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78 Method

79 To answer the aims and objectives a systematic review with narrative synthesis was undertaken.

80 Search strategy

81 Based on a pragmatic approach to searching the literature, the systematic review by Huiskes was used
82 to identify relevant papers (those focussing on pharmacist-led medication reviews) prior to 2015 [4].

83 The MEDLINE, EMBASE and Web of Science databases were utilised for the literature search, from 2015
84 to September 2023, using the same search terms used by Huiskes et al [4]. The search terms used were
85 “medication review”, “pharmacist” and “randomised controlled trial” and synonyms. The full search
86 strategy is outlined in **supplementary material 1**. The search was supplemented during data extraction
87 by identifying companion papers for the included studies.

88

89 Inclusion/ Exclusion criteria

90 The identified papers were screened based on the following inclusion and exclusion criteria.

91 Population: adults 18 years and over who received a medication review delivered by a pharmacist,
92 either alone or as part of a multi-disciplinary team, in any setting.

93 Intervention: medication review, which for the purpose of this review is defined as “a consultation
94 between a pharmacist and a patient to review the patient’s total medicines use with a view to improve
95 patient health outcomes and minimise medicines related problems”. Studies were excluded if the
96 medication review was part of a wider intervention, for example, to improve diabetes care where
97 medication review was just one part of the process.

98 Comparison: usual care (no medication review) or a medication review delivered by another healthcare
99 professional.

100 Outcomes: studies reporting any outcomes.

101 Study design: randomised controlled trials and their protocol and process evaluation papers.

102

103 Time and financial constraints did not allow for translation from other languages, therefore only English
104 language articles were included. Conference abstracts and articles where full texts were not available
105 were excluded.

106

107 Screening

108 One reviewer (MC) independently screened titles/ abstracts and full-text articles, with twenty percent of
109 abstracts and full-texts independently reviewed by a second reviewer (HAJ). Disagreements were
110 resolved through discussion, with a third reviewer (MJT) utilised when needed.

111

112 Data extraction

113 Data was extracted from full text articles using a bespoke data collection form by one reviewer (MC).

114 Details of the data collection form (informed by the TIDieR framework [15]), is included in

115 **supplementary material 2**. The form was piloted with several studies. The form captured the following

116 information: study characteristics, descriptions of intervention and comparator, details of

117 implementation, outcomes, and mechanisms of impact. Classification of the outcomes was based upon

118 the international core outcome set for clinical trials for medication review in multi-morbid older patients

119 with polypharmacy and the patient relevant outcomes identified in a scoping review by Kersting et al.

120 [16,17]. Pharmacist implementation of the medication review was mapped to the Cochrane Effective

121 Practice and Organisation of Care (EPOC) taxonomy [18] to describe the delivery processes.

122

123 Medication review outcomes are influenced, among other things, by pharmacist and patient behaviour

124 change (supporting medication adherence and taking medication as prescribed [19], respectively). These

125 behaviour change components have not been recognised explicitly in the medication review literature

126 and their design. However, they are present, and it is therefore justified to extract BCTs using the BCT

127 Taxonomy v1 [20], as done with other clinical interventions [21–23]. We used the taxonomy to extract

128 BCTs used by the pharmacist during the consultation to support the patient in taking their medications

129 as directed (adherence). This allows the field to understand common and promising BCTs, as well as

130 evidence-based BCTs which medication reviews have rarely included.

131

132 Many intervention reports do not provide clear descriptions of BCTs, so we coded any BCTs either as

133 present in all probability (evidence not clearly reported) or present beyond all reasonable doubt (clear

134 evidence reported for their presence) [24]. BCTs were coded in both the intervention groups

135 (medication review) and comparison groups to understand unique BCTs included in the intervention

136 only. We coded BCTs in relation to a specific behaviour (supporting medication adherence) employed by
137 one actor (pharmacist), whilst the implementation strategies apply to the whole intervention. BCTs and
138 implementation strategies were coded independently from each other.

139

140 Mechanisms of impact are the intermediate mechanisms through which intervention activities produce
141 intended (or unintended) effects [13]. Mechanisms of impact include:

- 142 • participant responses and interaction with the intervention (in this case, patient)
- 143 • mediators (intermediate processes which explain subsequent changes in outcomes [13]). In this
144 review, the mediators extracted were at a participant level, where the participant was the
145 pharmacist.
- 146 • moderators of effect (factors likely to influence intervention effectiveness [13])
- 147 • unanticipated pathways and consequences.

148

149 Rigour

150 This review has been reported in accordance with the PRISMA guidelines [25] and the protocol was
151 registered in PROSPERO (CRD42020173907). Data extraction from 20% of randomly selected studies
152 was checked by MJT and WH. In addition to the 20% random sample, WH checked BCT extraction of a
153 further sample of six studies to check for consistency with coding BCTs. WH has extensive expertise in
154 identification of BCTs as co-author of the BCT Taxonomy v1 [20]. Data extraction enabled the
155 identification of shared characteristics, relationships, and patterns. Narrative synthesis of the extracted
156 data enabled an analysis of these relationships and patterns which were discussed regularly by the
157 research team.

158 Quality assessment

159 Risk of bias was assessed by the first author (MC) using the Cochrane risk of bias 2 tool for randomised
160 controlled trials [26]. Twenty percent of studies were assessed by another reviewer (MJT).

161

162 Data synthesis

163 Extracted data describing medication review components, implementation and outcomes is reported in
164 tables. These descriptions were narratively synthesised to draw out common themes. Narrative
165 approaches are useful in generating ideas and theories, particularly around how and why an
166 intervention might work and in what circumstances [27]. Data was interpreted by MC that could
167 describe potential mechanisms of impact and contextual influences on medication review
168 implementation from the results and discussion sections. In the process of data extraction, notes were
169 taken of points that could be useful in synthesis. Confidence in the outcomes (results of the studies)
170 included in the systematic review is an important consideration in narrative synthesis [26]. Therefore,
171 the low risk of bias studies [28–35], with statistically significant results, were the starting point for
172 drawing out common themes, which were added to and amended with the results from the higher risk
173 of bias studies. The themes were inductively coded to the TIDieR framework (where, who, how, when
174 and how much) [15], and emerging BCTs [20]. Themes were further broken down to components which
175 reflect the physical, organisational, social dimensions of the health system context in which the
176 medication review is implemented [14].

177

178 The GRADE framework [36] informed the overall assessment of the quality of the evidence from the
179 studies, where it was classified as high, moderate, low, or very-low quality. Inconsistency, imprecision,
180 and indirectness of the reported outcomes, taken holistically, influenced the overall quality of the
181 evidence. Data was presented and discussed among the authors during a series of meetings to finalise
182 the conclusions of this review.

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Results

Study selection

The literature search yielded 11,946 results, with another 33 studies already identified by Huiskes et al.[4]. Deduplication reduced this to 10,947. Titles were screened and 597 abstracts were identified. Abstracts were reviewed by HAJ with substantial agreement (81% Cohen’s $\kappa = 0.61$). Screening of 534 abstracts reduced the total number of papers to be reviewed at full text to 246. Sixty-eight papers describing 50 individual studies were included for data extraction (see Figure 1). Interrater reliability at full text screening was 89%, Cohen’s $\kappa = 0.77$, indicating good agreement[37].

Characteristics of included studies

A detailed description of the characteristics of the medication reviews can be found in **supplementary material 3**. Most studies included in this review were undertaken in Europe (23) [30,31,35,38–57], with twelve in Asia [28,32,33,58–66], eight in North America [29,67–73], and the remaining from Australia [74–77], South America [34,78] and Africa [79]. Nearly a third of studies (14) were undertaken in a hospital setting [30,38,39,41,46,48,51,56,59,60,63,67,74], with the remaining studies taking place in various primary care environments, except for six which were undertaken in outpatient departments [32,33,44,64,78,79]. Almost half of studies (22) recruited patients aged 60 years or older [30,31,34,39,40,42,43,45,46,48,52–55,65,68,73–75,77,80], with the other studies recruiting adult patients who had one or more long term conditions(s) or were taking at least four medicines. Study sample size ranged from 60 to 2637 participants.

205 Quality assessment

206 Following the application of the Cochrane risk of Bias 2 tool [26], most studies (32) were deemed to be
207 at high risk of bias (ROB) [41–57,60–65,69–71,73–77,79], ten studies at some ROB [38–
208 40,58,59,67,68,72,78,81], and eight were rated low [28–35]. **Supplementary material 4** shows the risk
209 of bias for each study in more detail. Sample sizes of the low risk of bias studies ranged from 80 to 600
210 participants. The domain that led to most studies being assessed at high risk was “Bias in measurement
211 of the outcome”. As pharmacists conducting the medication reviews were largely responsible for
212 identification and measurement of the primary outcome measure i.e., medication related problems, this
213 led to a high risk of bias in many studies.

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215 Content of medication review

216 A detailed description of the content of the medication reviews can be found in **supplementary material**
217 **3**. In summary, all 50 medication reviews sought to identify medicines related problems; 33 to address
218 patient adherence [28–35,40–42,44–47,49,50,52,53,55–57,60–65,70,75,76,78,79], and 29 to educate
219 patients on their medicines/ conditions [28–35,38,40,45,46,49,51,52,58–65,67,69,70,74,78,79]. In 42
220 studies, pharmacists aimed to resolve medicines-related problems during the medication review. In
221 three studies [29,40,50], pharmacists could make prescription changes following the review. Follow up
222 with patients was part of the medication review in 40 studies but follow up with prescribers following
223 referrals occurred less frequently and was only reported in fourteen [28,29,31,35,42,51,53,55,60–
224 62,64,73,78].

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226 Reporting of Behaviour Change Techniques (BCTs) in studies

227 The quality of intervention reports was insufficient to make a definitive judgment about BCTs. However,
228 all studies included at least one BCT relating to intervention patients taking their medicines. The BCTs
229 are summarised in **supplementary material 5**. The BCT “monitoring outcome(s) of behaviour by others
230 without feedback” was present in all probability in 37 studies [28,30–35,38,39,41,42,44–50,52,53,55–
231 60,62,64–67,72–77], in terms of identifying medicines-related problems. The BCT “monitoring of
232 behaviour by others without feedback” was present in all probability in 23 studies where medicines
233 were reviewed and questions asked about patients’ use of medicines [29,30,35,41–46,50–
234 53,55,60,62,64,68,70,71,75,76,79]. The BCT “information about health consequences” was present
235 beyond reasonable doubt in six studies where patients were advised about the importance of taking
236 their medicines as prescribed and possible consequences of non-adherence [29,47,49,56,62,78]. In five
237 studies, goal setting in relation to behaviour was present beyond reasonable doubt [40,45,52,53,56],
238 where an action plan or goals were established to help with patients’ medicines or health.

239

240 Medication review implementation as described in the studies

241 The description of the implementation of medication reviews was poorly reported. In 34 studies there
242 was sufficient detail about the intervention to identify EPOC taxonomy domains and subcategories.
243 Details of the EPOC taxonomy subcategories identified in each study can be found in **supplementary**
244 **material 5**. The most reported EPOC subcategory was communication between providers, where a
245 system or strategy for improving the communication between the pharmacist and other health care
246 providers was reported [29,31,33,39,44,48,58,60–64,66,67,76,82]. Other EPOC taxonomy domains were
247 identified in fewer studies.

248 Planned adaptations to the intervention were reported in eight studies [34,35,38,40,49,56,58,62].
249 Adaptations during the intervention were reported in eight studies; examples include adapting care
250 plans according to patient needs and modifying the intervention based upon pharmacists' professional
251 judgment [29,30,43,47,48,69,77,83]. Fidelity of the intervention was assessed in five studies
252 [34,35,46,49,83]. Anderegg described non-adherence to the communication process for the latter part
253 of the study [29]. Kempen et al. reported that 15% of control patients received unintended intervention
254 components [46]. Graabaek et al. reported that as the staff were unaccustomed to working with the
255 pharmacist, and the physician did not make use of the pharmacist at the start of the study [30]. The
256 implementation rates of pharmacist recommendations was between 28.6% [58] to 86% [40].

257

258 Description of reported outcomes

259 A mixture of economic, clinical, and patient-orientated outcomes were reported. Economic and clinical
260 outcomes were most frequently reported. Healthcare utilisation was reported in 25 studies
261 [30,31,34,35,39–41,43,45,46,48,50–56,63,70,72,73,75,76,79], medicines-relates problems/ adverse drug
262 events/ medication appropriateness in 23 [30,32,42,44,48,52,53,55,57,58,60–67,69,71,74,77,78] , and
263 clinical monitoring parameters in 17 [29,33,34,38,42,45,49,50,53,54,56,63,66,70,74,77,78]. Patient-
264 orientated were reported least often with 17 studies reporting quality of life
265 [31,33,35,39,41,43,45,53,57–59,62,65,68,73,74,77], and 14 adherence [28,32,34,48,50,56–58,62–
266 65,78,79]. **Supplementary material 6** details all reported outcomes.

267

268 Of the eight studies that were assessed to be of low risk of bias, fourteen results were statistically
269 significant. Two of these studies reported improvements in blood pressure in the intervention groups;
270 mean reduction in systolic blood pressure (8.64 mm Hg; 95% CI –12.8 to –4.49) [29], achievement of
271 hypertension treatment goals, (OR 4.37; 95% CI 2.54 to 7.51) [34]. Reduction in the number of

272 medicines prescribed in the intervention group was observed in two studies (mean difference -0.86; 95%
273 CI -1.14 to -0.58 [34], mean difference of -0.87; 95% CI -1.66 to -0.08, [31]). Lim et al. and Martinez-
274 Mardones et al. stated that medication reviews improved compliance/adherence (OR 2.52, 90% CI 1.09-
275 5.83 [32]), OR 6.60; 95% CI 1.36 to 31.9 [34]). Statistically significant results are reported in Table 1.

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Author (Year)	Statistically significant results	BCTs (patients taking medications as directed)	Implementation strategies	Risk of Bias
Alalawneh 2022 [28]	Improvement in adherence in intervention group Improvement on knowledge of medicines in intervention group	2.5 <i>Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without feedback</i> , 2.7 <i>Feedback on outcome of behaviour</i> 5.1 <i>Information about health consequences</i>	NR	Low
Anderegg 2018 [29]	Reduction in SBP in intervention group; much smaller reduction of SBP in the control group. Increase in the number of medication changes in intervention group	1.3 <i>Goal setting (outcome)</i> , 2.1 <i>Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback</i> , 5.1 information about health consequences 11.1 <i>Pharmacological support</i> , 12.5 Adding objects to the environment	Communication between providers	Low
Lenaghan 2007 [31]	Reduction of medicines prescribed in intervention group compared to control	1.7 <i>Review outcome goal(s)</i> , 2.5 <i>Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without feedback</i> , 5.1 <i>Information about health consequences</i> 12.5 <i>Adding objects to the environment</i>	Communication between providers	Low
Lim 2004 [32]	Improved compliance in intervention group	2.5 <i>Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without feedback</i> 4.1 Instruction on how to perform a behaviour , 3.2 Social support (practical) 5.1 <i>Information on health consequences</i> , 12.5 <i>Adding objects to the environment</i>	NR	Low
Lin 2018 [33]	Improvement in quality of life in intervention group Improvement in performance in activities of daily living in intervention group <i>Estimates reduction in medical expenditure in intervention group (3,758 TWD)</i>	2.5 <i>monitoring of outcomes of behaviour without feedback</i>	Role expansion or task shifting Environment, Teams Communication between providers	Low
Maritnez-Mardones (2023) [34] Ahumada-Canale 2021a, 2021b [84,85]	Higher number of patients with hypertension, diabetes and high cholesterol achieving therapy goals in intervention group compared to control. Reduced cardiovascular risk score for those in intervention group compared to control. Reduced number of medicines prescribed in intervention group compared to control. Improvement in adherence in intervention group compared to control.	2.5 <i>monitoring of outcomes of behaviour without feedback</i> 2.7 <i>Feedback on outcome of behaviour</i>	Educational meetings Educational outreach	Low
Schulz 2019 Schulz 2020 Laufs 2018 [35,80,86],	Improvement in quality of life in intervention group Increased adherence after 365 days in intervention group	1.5 <i>review behaviour goal</i> , 2.1 <i>Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback</i> , 2.5 <i>monitoring of outcomes of behaviour</i> , 3.1 <i>Social support (unspecified)</i> , 5.1 <i>Information on health consequences</i> , 12.5 Adding objects to the environment	Educational material	Low
Aguiar 2018 [78]	Improvement in adherence in intervention group Improved chance of achieving HbA1c goal in intervention group compared to control	1.1 <i>Goal setting (behaviour)</i> , 2.4 Self-monitoring the outcome(s) of behaviour 5.1 Information about health consequences , 12.5 Add objects to the environment	Environment Role expansion or task shifting	Some
Basheti 2016[66]	Higher resolution of MRPs in intervention group than control. Improvements in blood pressure, blood glucose, triglycerides in intervention group compared to control	2.5 <i>monitoring of outcomes of behaviour without feedback</i>	Communication between providers Role expansion or task shifting	Some
Basheti 2018 [58]	Improvement in adherence in intervention group compared to control Improvement in self-care in intervention group	2.5 <i>monitoring of outcomes of behaviour without feedback</i> 5.1 <i>Information on health consequences</i>	Communication between providers	Some
Garcia 2015 [38]	Improvement in adherence in intervention group compared to control	1.2 problem solving , 2.5 <i>Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour without feedback</i> , 3.1 Social support (unspecified) , 5.1 <i>Information about health consequences</i>	NR	Some
Jameson 1995 [67]	Change in number of medicines at follow up in intervention group compared to control. Evidence of a 24% reduction of healthcare costs in intervention group	2.5 <i>monitoring of outcomes of behaviour without feedback</i> 5.1 <i>Information about health consequences</i>	Communication between providers	Some
Lisby 2018 [39]	Improvement in usual activities in intervention group	2.5 <i>monitoring of outcomes of behaviour without feedback</i>	Communication between providers	Some
Sakthong 2018 [59]	Improvement in post intervention quality of life in intervention group	1.1 <i>Goal setting (behaviour)</i> , 1.2 Problem solving , 2.5 <i>monitoring of outcomes of behaviour without feedback</i> , 2.7 <i>Feedback on outcome of behaviour</i>	NR	Some
Williams 2004 [68]	Reduction in the number of medicines prescribed; on average 2.1 fewer drugs prescribed in the intervention group Reduction in medication costs at 6 weeks; mean \$38 saving in intervention group	1.4 Action planning , 2.1 <i>Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback</i> 3.1 <i>Social support (unspecified)</i> , 5.1 <i>Information about health consequences</i> 12.5 <i>Adding objects to the environment</i>	Teams	Some
Zermansky 2002[40]	Smaller rise in number of medicines prescribed in the intervention group (number of medicines prescribed increased in both groups); Smaller rise in mean cost of medicines in intervention group (Cost of medicines increased in both groups)	1.1 Goal setting (behaviour) , 1.4 Action planning 3.1 <i>social support (unspecified)</i> , 5.1 <i>Information about health consequences</i> 11.1 <i>Pharmacological support</i>	Environment Role expansion or task shifting Communication between providers	Some
Aburuz 2020[60]	Reduction of MRPs at discharge in intervention group; twice as many MRPs at discharge in control group	2.5 <i>monitoring of outcomes of behaviour without feedback</i> , 5.1 <i>Information about health consequences</i> , 2.1 Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback	Environment Communication between providers	High
Al alawneh 2019 [61]	Reduction in MRPs at follow up in intervention group, no significant change in control	3.1 <i>social support (unspecified)</i>	Communication between providers Outreach services	High
Al-Qudah 2018, Basheti 2016 [62,81]	Significantly higher number of MRPs corrected at the end of the study in the intervention group compared to control; Improvement in medication adherence at follow up in intervention group; Improvement in self-care activity scores at follow up in intervention group	2.1 Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback 2.5 <i>monitoring of outcomes of behaviour without feedback</i> 5.1 Information about health consequences	Communication between providers	High

Briggs 2015[75]	Reduction in admission rates in intervention group	2.1 Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback <i>2.5 Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without feedback</i>	NR	High
El-Refae 2017 [63]	Reduction in hospital visits in intervention group; Reduction Total cholesterol in intervention group; Improvement in self-care activities in intervention group	3.2 Social support (practical), 5.1 Information about health consequences <i>12.5 Adding objects to the environment</i>	Communication between providers	High
Erku 2017 [79]	Reduction in hospitalisation visits; number of visits in control group more than double those in intervention; Improvement in medication adherence in intervention group; 51.8% change in intervention v 17% in control	<i>2.1 Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback</i>	NR	High
Freeman 2021, Foot 2017 [76,87]	Reduction in hospital re-admission/ ED presentation in intervention group Estimated incremental cost per patient of the intervention = \$164, benefit– cost ratio, 31:1	<i>2.1 Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback</i> <i>2.5 Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without feedback</i>	Teams; Environment; Payment methods for health workers; Educational meetings; Communication between providers	High
Holland 2005, 2010 [43,88], Pacini 2007 [89]	Increase in hospital readmission rate and GP home visits in intervention group Reduction in medication hoarding in intervention group	<i>2.1 Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback, 3.2 Social support (practical), 12.5 Adding objects to the environment, 5.1 Information about health consequences</i>	Educational meetings; Referral systems; Payment methods for health workers	High
Krska 2001 [55]	More MRPs resolved at follow up; double the number of MRPs resolved in intervention compared to control	<i>1.1 Goal setting (behaviour), 1.2 Problem solving, 1.4 Action planning</i> <i>2.1 Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback</i> <i>2.5 Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without feedback</i>	NR	High
Lea 2020 [47]	Increased overall survival in intervention group HR= 0.66, 95% CI 0.48 to 0.90, p=0.008	<i>1.2 Problem solving, 2.5 Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without feedback, 5.1 Information about health consequences</i> 12.5 Adding objects to the environment	Teams Environment	High
Lenssen 2018 [48]	Improvement in adherence in the intervention group; 5.7% non-adherent in intervention compared to 14% in control	<i>1.2 Problem solving, 2.5 Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without feedback</i>	Communication between providers Environment	High
Liou 2021 [65]	Reduction of MRPs at follow up; Improvement in medication adherence in intervention group; 10% in intervention compared with 8.7% in control. Participants in intervention group more willing to receive pharmacist visits; (mean, SD) Intervention = 8.9±2.2, Control =7.4±3.1, P=0.04. Improved awareness of medical problems in intervention group; (mean SD) Intervention= 3.0±4.0, Control =0.9±2.7, P=0.035	<i>2.5 Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without feedback</i> 12.5 Adding objects to the environment	Environment Educational meetings	High
Malet-Larrea 2016[45] Jodar-Sanchez2015[83], VarasDoval 2020 [90]	Improvement in quality of life in intervention group. Reduction in number of hospital admissions; mean number of visits were double in the control than in intervention group. Reduction in health problems over 6 months in intervention group	1.1 Goal setting (behaviour) <i>2.1 Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback</i> <i>2.5 Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without feedback</i>	Educational outreach visits Educational meetings	High
Nabergoj Makovec 2021 [57]	Reduction of MRPs at follow up.	<i>2.5 Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without feedback</i> 12.5 Adding objects to the environment	Educational meetings	High
Ravn-Nielsen 2018[51] Rasmussen 2019 [91]	NNT for readmissions within 180 days Extended intervention =11, Basic intervention = 65	<i>2.1 Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback, 3.1 Social support (unspecified)</i>	Referral systems Educational meetings	High
Shim 2018 [64]	Improvement in prescribing (medication appropriateness index) in intervention group, Improvement in adherence in intervention group; more than double the number of participants in intervention group were adherent compared to control	<i>1.2 Problem solving, 2.1 Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback</i> <i>2.5 Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without feedback</i> <i>3.1 Social support (unspecified)</i>	Communication between providers	High
van der Heijden 2019, Ahmad 2010[52,92]	Reduction in MRPs in intervention group Increase in hospital readmissions in intervention group; double the number of readmissions in intervention than control	1.1 Goal setting (behaviour), 1.4 Action planning, 2.1 Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback, 2.5 Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without feedback, 3.1 Social support unspecified <i>11.1 pharmacological support, 12.5 adding objects to environment</i>	NR	High
Verdoorn 2019[53], Verdoorn 2018[93], Verdoorn 2021 [94]	Improvements in quality of life in intervention group Improvement in health problems in intervention group	1.1 Goal setting (behaviour), 1.2 Problem solving, 1.4 Action planning 1.5 review behaviour goals, 2.1 Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback, 2.5 Monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without feedback	Educational meetings Communication between providers	High
Zermansky 2006 [54]	Reduction in falls per patient in intervention group; mean 0.5 less per 6 months in intervention compared to control group. Increase in the number of drug changes in 6 months in the intervention group compared to control	<i>2.1 Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback</i>	NR	High
Zillich 2014 [71]	Reduction in 60-day hospitalisations for low-risk patients in intervention group OR 3.78 (1.35, 10.57) p=0.01	1.1 Goal setting (behaviour), 1.2 Problem solving, 1.4 Action planning <i>2.1 Monitoring of behaviour by others without feedback</i>	NR	High
Key	SBP = systolic blood pressure DBP= diastolic blood pressure GP= general practitioner ADR= adverse drug reaction MRP= medicines related problem HbA1c= glycated haemoglobin LDL=low density lipoprotein HDL= high density lipoprotein NNT= number needed to treat ADE= adverse drug event ICER= incremental cost-effectiveness ratio QALY= quality adjusted life year SMMESE= standardised mini mental state exam TWD= Taiwanese new dollars NR= not reported BCTs= Behaviour Change Techniques BCT present beyond all reasonable doubt <i>BCT present in all probability</i>			

279 Mechanisms of impact

280 Potential mechanisms of impact were not easily identifiable. When exploring participant responses
281 to, and interaction with, the intervention, data could only be extracted from one study [69], which
282 reported that many patients declined the intervention. For the included studies, only two process
283 evaluations enabled the identification of mediators [88,95].

284

285 Ten studies reported an unintended pathway or consequence [29,38,40,43,52,58,60–62,66].

286 Examples include financial or health-related barriers preventing patients attending follow-up
287 appointments [58,61,62], and increased utilisation of healthcare practitioners due to pharmacist
288 referrals, or patients' concern following increased patient knowledge about medication side effects
289 [40,52]. **Supplementary material 7** provides further information about potential mechanisms of
290 impact.

291

292 Description of comparator groups

293 The comparator interventions were poorly reported, with thirteen studies providing no details.

294 Thirty-four studies described the content of the comparator intervention: sixteen studies
295 [30,39,40,46,47,52,53,55,58,60–63,71,78,81] sought to identify medicines-related problems, ten
296 educated patients about their medicines/ condition(s) [35,38,52,69–71,74,78] and three focused on
297 improving adherence [55,61,79]. Where the healthcare professionals involved in delivering care was
298 identified, pharmacists delivered the care in nine studies [40,45,53,55,58,61–63,81], physicians in
299 nine [30,38,39,41,44,54,73,76,79], nursing staff in five [56,65,70,71,74] and a mixture of healthcare
300 professionals in the remaining studies [34,35,47–49,52,60,64,78].

301 Only ten studies reported at least one BCT relating to patients taking their medicines as directed in
302 the comparator groups [28,44,47,56,58,60,62,64,70,81]. Where medicines-related problems were
303 explored in the comparator group, the BCT “monitoring of outcomes of behaviour by others without

304 feedback” was present in all probability in six studies [28,44,47,58,60,81]. The BCTs are reported in
 305 **supplementary material 5.**

306

307 The themes underpinning medication review implementation and an explanation of how these may
 308 influence outcomes is presented in Table 2. Figure 2 illustrates the components of medication
 309 reviews.

310 Table 2 Themes underpinning medication review (MR) implementation.

Themes	Explanation
Setting in which medication review is delivered	There is moderate quality evidence from low [29,31,34,35] , some [40,58,66–68] and high [45,53,54,62] risk of bias studies that medication reviews undertaken in primary care settings may have a greater impact on some outcomes, such as reduction in clinical biomarkers, number of medicines prescribed, adherence, and quality of life, whereas healthcare utilisation and mortality may not be affected.
	There is low quality evidence from studies with some [40,78] and a high [47,60,76] risk of bias that pharmacists with access to other healthcare professionals, such as physicians, can improve some clinical, economic, and patient-orientated outcomes, such as improved diabetes biomarkers and adherence, and reduced hospital re-admissions and medicines related problems.
	There is low quality evidence from low risk of bias studies that pharmacists working collaboratively with other healthcare professionals, where their roles and responsibilities are known, may have a positive influence on outcomes[29,30], such as a reduction in prescribed medicines.[32]
	There is very low-quality evidence from studies with some risk of bias [58,66] that a safe, comfortable, not restricted, and professional space to conduct the medication review may improve blood pressure, blood glucose and triglyceride levels, lead to a higher resolution of medicines related problems and improve adherence and self-care activities.
	Three studies reported that medication reviews were only able to be delivered on specific days at specified times [30,41,75]. One low risk of bias study suggested that pharmacists lack of availability for all the operational times of the setting influenced the implementation of the intervention [29]. It is unclear how this affected outcomes.
Regulations and standards guiding medication review	There is low quality evidence from a low risk of bias study that medication reviews cannot be properly implemented without a protocol, and this may result in variation in delivery, which might negatively influence outcomes[29]. Furthermore, low quality evidence from low [29] and some [38] risk of bias studies that pharmacists’ ability to adjust the MR content according to the patient’s needs may reduce blood pressure, increase the number of medication changes, and improve adherence.
Recruitment of patients for medication review	Participants are often identified by another individual and referred to the pharmacist for the medication review. There is low quality evidence from low[29–31,34,35], some [67,78] and high [42,43,53,69,71,73,75,79] risk of bias studies that this may influence clinical, economic, and patient-orientated outcomes. However, it is unclear how this occurs.
Pharmacist skills and experience	There is moderate quality evidence from low [29,34], some[40], and high [75,76] risk of bias studies that pharmacists with greater clinical knowledge/ experience may improve blood pressure and reduce medicine costs and healthcare utilisation.
	There is low quality evidence from low [29] and some [40] risk of bias studies that pharmacists having the autonomy to make some medication changes may positively influence blood pressure control and number of medicines prescribed. Furthermore, it was suggested that improved blood pressure control was likely due to implementing changes to blood pressure goals in line with new [more intensive] guidelines[29].

Access to patient information	There is moderate quality evidence from low[28,30–32,34,35], some [38–40,59,66,78] and high [44,47,48,51,52,54,55,60–63,65] risk of bias studies that pharmacists having access to clinical and medication history for the medication review may have a positive influence on clinical, economic, and patient-orientated outcomes, such as blood pressure, number of medicines prescribed, adherence and quality of life.
Setting goals relating to medication taking	There is moderate quality evidence from low[30], some[40,59], and high [45,53,55,70,71] risk of bias studies that setting behaviour goals around taking their medicines, may influence outcomes such as quality of life.
Information about medicines and health	There is moderate quality evidence from low [29,31,35], some[66,78], and high [63] risk of bias studies that educating the patient/ carer about the reasons for taking the medicines, how medicines work, how they should be taken and the importance of healthy living may have a greater impact on some outcomes, such as improvement in clinical biomarkers, number of medicines prescribed, adherence, and quality of life.
Action planning for medicines use	There is low quality evidence from some [40,68] and high [52,53,55,71] risk of bias studies that developing an action plan for medicines management/ pharmaceutical care plan can have a greater impact on clinical, economic, and patient-orientated outcomes, such as an improvement in health problems, medicines related problems, number of medicines prescribed, and quality of life.
Social support from pharmacist and/ or other health and social care providers	There is moderate quality evidence from low [32,35], some [78], and high [49,50,63] risk of bias studies that the use of medication aids may improve adherence. However, patients may need help filling it with the correct medication[43].
Follow up with patient following medication review	There is moderate quality evidence from studies with low[28,29,34,35], some [38,40,58,59,66,67,78], and high [45,48,52,53,55,57,60–65,79] risk of bias that at least one follow up appointment after the MR may result in improvements in clinical biomarkers, adherence, quality of life, a reduction of medicines related problems and increased medicine changes [36] Studies with some [58] and high [61,62] risk of bias reported that financial limitations can restrict patients’ access to practitioners for follow up appointments. However, this does not appear to have impacted on outcomes.

311

312 Discussion

313 This review has outlined the common themes underpinning the implementation of pharmacist-led
314 medication reviews and the components that may have a positive impact on outcomes. The findings
315 can be applied at micro and macro levels. Pharmacists could evaluate their own knowledge,
316 experience, and processes; and consider whether to include components, e.g., goal setting, action
317 planning, education, in consultations. Commissioners could provide a framework for the delivery of
318 medication reviews, outlining minimum level of pharmacists’ clinical knowledge/training and
319 guidance about issues to be discussed and documented.

320

321 Hikaka et al. found that pharmacists are poorly embedded in the healthcare framework and
322 suggested that using pharmacists for their expert medicines’ knowledge could free up other

323 healthcare professionals [96]. We identified evidence of role expansion or task shifting by
324 pharmacists as they delivered medication reviews. In addition, there was evidence of pharmacists
325 being added to workplace environments and participating in team -based discussions around patient
326 care. Communication between pharmacists and physicians in any form is an essential part of the
327 implementation of medication reviews; this was also identified by Luetsch et al. [97]. [30]

328

329 Role expansion has been observed in England where pharmacists are delivering structured
330 medication reviews in general practice [11]. NHS England's Network Contract Directed Enhanced
331 Service stipulates that clinical pharmacists delivering structured medication reviews should be
332 enrolled in, or have qualified from, an approved training pathway that enables them to be a
333 prescriber, and work with and alongside the general practice team [11]. The General Pharmaceutical
334 Council standards for the education and training of pharmacist independent prescribers outlines
335 four domains which must be covered by providers, one of which is collaboration. This stipulates that
336 pharmacist must work collaboratively with others and demonstrate competence in consultation
337 skills [98]. This additional training may influence some outcomes.

338

339 Luetsch et al. reported that recognition of pharmacists' competence and skill to perform medication
340 reviews and pharmacist access to comprehensive clinical information can influence outcomes [97].
341 This supports our conclusion that pharmacist access to patients' clinical and medical history may
342 improve clinical, economic, and patient-reported outcomes.

343

344 McCahon et al. developed a simple and pragmatic medication review model to be used by
345 professionals across healthcare settings [99]. This Bristol medication review model [99] describes
346 the need to establish what medicines the patient is taking, how they are taking them, whether they

347 understand why they are prescribed and whether the medicines prescribed are suitable for the
348 patient. These examples support our findings, which show that educating the patient/ carer about
349 the medicines can benefit some outcomes. The Bristol medication review model also emphasises
350 the importance of patients' values and preferences [99]. Setting individual goals and planning with
351 the patient demonstrates a commitment to regarding patient preferences. Our review takes this
352 further and suggests that setting goals in relation to medication taking may improve patient
353 outcomes.

354

355 Our review identified patient preference as a potential mechanism of impact of medication reviews.
356 This was demonstrated by acceptability (patients declining intervention) and accessibility (financial
357 or health barriers to follow up). Patient preference (accessibility, acceptability and convenience of
358 location and time for the medication review and who performs it) was identified as a mechanism
359 influencing outcomes in a realist synthesis of pharmacist-conducted medication reviews in primary
360 care after leaving hospital [97].

361

362 Strengths and limitations

363 We used robust and transparent methods in reviewing the international medication review
364 literature. Only studies published in English were included, so there is a possibility that relevant
365 studies are missing. Whilst this review has provided a comprehensive overview of pharmacist-led
366 medication reviews, the inclusion of all patient populations and diseases may have influenced
367 conclusions; some components of medication reviews may be more/ less significant in different
368 patient groups. Narrative synthesis was an appropriate approach given the heterogeneity in the
369 included studies [27].

370

371 Medication reviews aim to “improve patient health outcomes”. We identified BCTs used in
372 medication reviews, enabling the field to move forward in terms of making behaviour change explicit
373 and create a point of discussion within the medication review community.

374

375 Quality assessment, evaluation of the quality of the evidence and a clear definition of the
376 intervention, which ensured there was enough information to assess a study’s suitability for inclusion,
377 attest the robustness of the synthesis. Most studies were assessed to be high risk of bias. This
378 needs to be considered when interpreting the findings, as inclusion of results of studies deemed to
379 be at high risk of bias may result in overestimating the size of the effect. This narrative synthesis has
380 yielded some important themes, but it is a thematic summary and not a meta-analysis.

381

382 The reported outcomes were mapped to existing classifications. [16,17] The Beuscart core outcome
383 set is concise and focussed on older patients, whereas this review includes all patients, therefore the
384 Kersting scoping review was used to expand the classification to capture all outcomes of interest.
385 Most studies choose to report economic or clinical outcomes, with little focus on those reported by
386 patients. If future studies measure more patient-reported outcomes, medication reviews may be
387 seen to have a greater impact on these [100].

388 Conclusions

389 This systematic review explored pharmacist-led medication reviews and outlined the common
390 themes in design, delivery and implementation that may influence outcomes. Further empirical
391 testing is required given that the literature is often beset by poor reporting. Proposed themes
392 include patient involvement in goal setting and action planning, and additional support and follow
393 up; individual pharmacists can evaluate how these can be incorporated in their practice. Better
394 exploration and elucidation of these key themes is required to obtain greater understanding of
395 pharmacist-led medication reviews. This could involve a study exploring the effect of an “optimised”

396 medication review, i.e., one that contains the components identified in this review, on patient
397 outcomes.

398 Figure 1 PRISMA diagram of literature search and study selection

399 Figure 2 Illustration of components of medication review

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