

Health Literacy among University Students: A Comparative Study between Health-Related and Non-Health-Related Academic Fields

ABSTRACT

Background and Objectives: Health literacy is increasingly recognized as a crucial competency for university students, especially in developing countries like Indonesia, where disparities in health education across academic disciplines may impact health outcomes. Students in non-health-related fields may have limited exposure to health information, potentially leading to gaps in preventive behavior and healthcare decision-making. This study aimed to compare the levels of health literacy between students from health-related and non-health-related academic fields and to assess the association between academic discipline and health literacy status among undergraduate students in Semarang, Indonesia.

Materials and Methods: A cross-sectional survey was conducted from September to December 2024 among 505 undergraduate students at Diponegoro University. Participants were selected using simple random sampling. Health literacy was measured using the validated Indonesian version of the HLS-EU-Q16, which demonstrated high internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.854$). Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, chi-square tests (including Monte Carlo simulation and Fisher–Freeman–Halton exact tests when appropriate), and odds ratio analysis. To address the imbalance in group sizes between academic fields, a matched sample analysis ($n = 274$) was conducted by randomly selecting 137 non-health-related respondents to match the number of health-related students.

Results: The mean and median of health expenditure in the sample was 703 thousand Rials and 257.4 million IRR (equal to 143.3 and 525.3 US\$, respectively), with the highest expenditures among individuals with limited disability and those self-assessing their health as poor. Health literacy scores averaged 71.7 ($SD \pm 15.1$), with higher scores among women, singles, and those with higher education. A quantile regression revealed that self-rated health consistently predicted lower costs, while health literacy was linked to higher spending at median and upper quantiles. Unemployment and student status were associated with significantly reduced costs, especially among higher spenders.

Conclusion: Students in health-related programs had significantly higher health literacy levels, likely due to greater exposure to health content in their curriculum. These findings highlight the need to integrate health literacy education into non-health programs to reduce disparities. Interdisciplinary efforts and digital literacy strategies may help equip all students with the skills needed to manage their health effectively.

Paper Type: Research Article

Keywords: Academic Disciplines, Health-related Program, HLS-EU-Q16.

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Introduction

Health literacy is increasingly recognized as a key determinant of health outcomes and equity (1). It comprises the knowledge, motivation, and competencies required to access, understand, evaluate, and apply health information for informed decision-making across healthcare, disease prevention, and health promotion (2). According to the World Health Organization (WHO), improving health literacy is critical for the prevention and control of noncommunicable diseases (NCDs) (3). Higher health literacy levels are associated with better self-care, adherence to treatment, and chronic disease management (4), thereby reducing the burden on healthcare systems and contributing to more equitable health outcomes (5). Evidence shows that health literacy is linked to reduced hospitalization (6), increased use of preventive services (2, 7), and improved health behaviors (8).

Among university students, health literacy is particularly important as this population begins to assume full responsibility for their health-related decisions (9, 10). This period is marked by increased autonomy, exposure to stress, and emerging risks such as mental health issues and NCDs (11, 12). Adequate health literacy during this period helps students make healthier lifestyle choices, understand medical instructions, and navigate the healthcare system effectively (4, 11, 13, 14), while limited health literacy may lead to poor decisions and underutilization of health services. Previous studies have linked higher health literacy in this group to lower stress, fewer depressive symptoms, and better quality of life (11).

This gap is especially relevant given Indonesia's ongoing challenges with rising NCD rates and health misinformation, which disproportionately affect the youth population. A significant proportion of individuals aged 18–25 are already showing early indicators of chronic illnesses such as obesity (15) and hypertension (16), conditions that can be mitigated through better health literacy and preventive behaviors (17,18).

In Indonesia, although a few studies have examined health literacy using standardized tools such as the HLS-EU-Q16 (19–21). Additionally, health literacy research in Indonesia faces unique challenges because some conditions in Indonesia have unequal access to quality health education (22), regional disparities in internet access and digital literacy (23), and limited integration of health literacy content in university curricula (24).

The HLS-EU-Q16 is a validated short-form instrument developed from the integrated model of health literacy by Sørensen et al. It measures individuals' perceived ability to access, understand, appraise, and apply health information in the domains of healthcare, disease prevention, and health promotion (2). In Indonesia, the HLS-EU-16Q has been utilized in several studies to measure health literacy using a standardized instrument; however, only a few studies have explored academic disparities in depth (25, 26).

Given these gaps, this study aims to compare the levels of health literacy among undergraduate students from health-related and non-health-related academic programs in Semarang, Indonesia. Specifically, it

examines whether health literacy levels differ significantly between these two academic groups.

Materials and Methods

Population and Sample

This study employed a quantitative, cross-sectional survey design to examine the health literacy levels of undergraduate students. The target population for this study consisted of undergraduate students in Semarang City, Central Java Province, Indonesia. The accessible population was defined as students currently enrolled at Diponegoro University, a major public university in Semarang City. Data collection for this study was conducted between September and December 2024.

Before data collection, a pilot test involving 30 undergraduate students was conducted to assess the clarity and reliability of the questionnaire. The estimated proportion used for the sample size calculation was derived from this pilot, which included general health-related items relevant to the current study's objectives. The sample size was determined using the n4studies application with two formulas: (1) the infinite population proportion formula, which yielded a minimum required sample of 337 students, and (2) the unmatched case-control formula, which resulted in a sample size of 214 (107 per group). To ensure statistical power, accommodate subgroup analysis, and account for potential non-response or data exclusion, we adopted the higher estimate ($n = 337$) and increased the sample size to 506 participants. After data cleaning, 505 responses were included in the final analysis.

Participant recruitment was conducted in two stages. First, a university-wide invitation was disseminated to all undergraduate students via email (coordinated by the university's IT department), social media, and campus posters. A total of 2,019 students responded by completing the digital registration form, of which 2,002 met the inclusion criteria and confirmed willingness to participate. These students comprised the sampling frame.

In the second stage, a simple random sampling method was applied to this sampling frame using an online randomization tool, resulting in the selection of 506 participants. One student declined to complete the questionnaire, yielding a final sample size of 505 respondents. This two-stage sampling approach, while initiated through open invitation, incorporated random selection at the final stage to ensure representativeness. Figure 1 presents the flowchart of the sampling procedure.

Participants were classified into two academic groups for comparison. The health-related group included students from the Faculty of Medicine, Public Health, and Psychology. Psychology was classified as a health-related field due to its curriculum involving health sciences, mental health, and clinical components. The non-health-related group comprised students from the Faculties of Law, Humanities, Economics and Business, Engineering, Fisheries and Marine Science, Animal Science and Agriculture, Science and Mathematics, and Social and Political Science.

The inclusion criteria were as follows: (1) undergraduate students aged 18–25 years old, (2) willingness to participate in the study, and (3) active enrollment at Diponegoro

University in the 2024 academic year. While these criteria ensured a relevant and uniform sample, they may limit generalizability to other populations, such as postgraduate

students, older learners, or those not currently enrolled. Future research may consider broader inclusion criteria to capture a wider spectrum of student experiences.

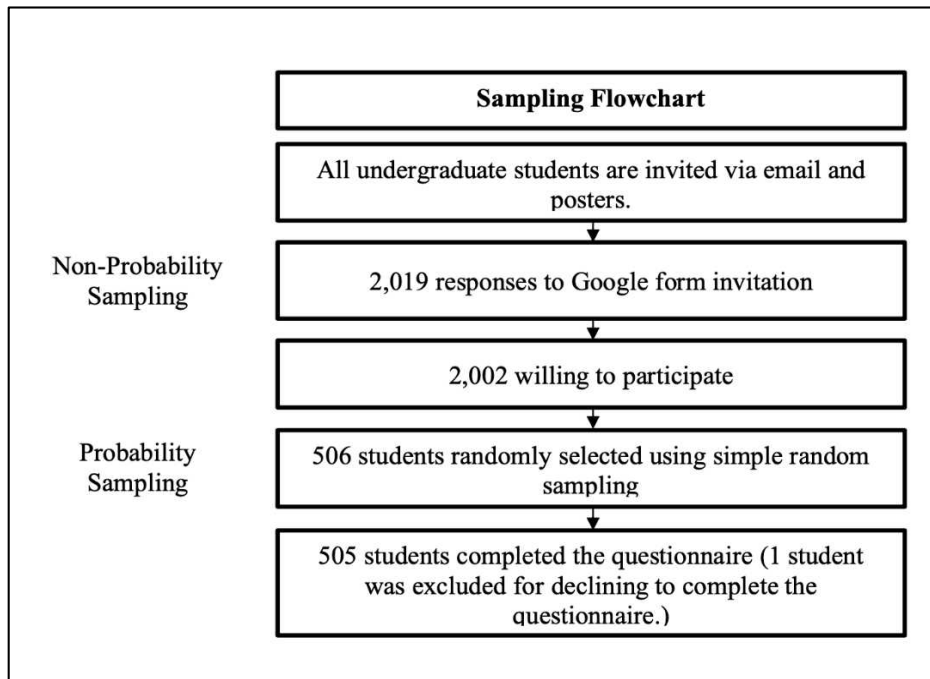


Figure 1. Sampling Flowchart

Data Collection Tools

This study utilized the Indonesian version of the HLS-EU-Q16, which was previously translated and validated by the Asian Health Literacy Association (AHLA)(19). In this study, internal consistency was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha, which yielded a coefficient of 0.854, indicating a high level of reliability. Similar reliability coefficients have been reported in earlier studies, such as 0.758 in a study involving undergraduate students (27), indicating that the instrument maintains good internal consistency across various demographic groups.

The original HLS-EU-Q16 consists of 16 items, each rated on a four-point Likert scale ranging from "very difficult" to "very easy."

Responses are used to calculate a total score between 16 and 64, which is then transformed into a Health Literacy Index (HLI) ranging from 0 to 16. Based on the HLI score, health literacy is categorized into three levels: Inadequate Health Literacy (HLI 0–8), Problematic Health Literacy (HLI 9–12), and Sufficient Health Literacy (HLI 13–16).

Data Analysis

All data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics software, version 27. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the respondents' sociodemographic characteristics and describe the distribution of health literacy levels among students from health-related and non-health-related academic fields.

Health literacy scores were categorized into three levels: inadequate, problematic, and sufficient. For inferential analysis, health literacy was recoded into two categories, low (inadequate + problematic) and sufficient, to facilitate 2×2 comparisons and odds ratio estimation, following previous literature. The OR was obtained through a cross-tabulation analysis with risk estimates in SPSS. An OR greater than 1 indicates an increased likelihood of the outcome, an OR less than 1 indicates a protective effect, and an OR equal to 1 suggests no association (28, 29).

The Chi-square test of independence was used to assess associations between categorical variables. When more than 20% of expected cell counts were below 5, alternative methods were applied. These included the Fisher–Freeman–Halton exact test for R×C tables and a Monte Carlo simulation (10,000 replications, 99% confidence interval) to obtain accurate p-values.

This approach is recommended in situations where classical asymptotic methods may yield inaccurate results due to small expected frequencies. As demonstrated by Reshid (2023), Monte Carlo simulation provides a robust alternative by empirically estimating the sampling distribution and significance level, enhancing the validity of inference when the Chi-square assumptions are not satisfied (30).

While this study primarily analyzed the full sample (n = 505), the authors recognized an imbalance in the number of respondents between health-related and non-health-related academic fields. This study was part of a broader survey project that did not impose strict quotas during participant recruitment.

To ensure analytical robustness and improve group comparability, a matched sample analysis was additionally conducted by randomly selecting 137 non-health-related students to match the number of health-related respondents (n=137). The association between academic field and health literacy was then reassessed using this matched sample.

The results from both the full and matched samples are presented in the same tables to enhance transparency and allow direct comparison between the two analytical approaches.

Result

The respondents' characteristics in this study are presented in Table 1, highlighting the distribution of age, sex, and academic fields/faculties among the 505 participants, comprising 137 (27.1%) from health-related faculties and 368 (72.9%) from non-health-related faculties. The participants were predominantly female (61.6%), and in terms of age, the majority of students were between 19 and 22 years old. The most common age was 21 years (24.8%), followed by 20 years (19.0%) and 22 years (17.8%).

For the year of study, 14.7% were first-year students, 18.4% were second-year students, 19.4% were third-year students, 23.6% were fourth-year students, and 24.0% were in their fifth year or higher. The distribution was relatively even across academic years, with the highest proportions in the later years of study.

Figure 2 illustrates the distribution of respondents across the various faculties. The highest representation came from the Faculty of Humanities (12.7%), followed closely by

the Faculty of Engineering (12.3%) and the Faculty of Economics and Business (9.9%).

Other faculties with notable participation included Medicine (9.7%), Psychology (9.1%), and Public Health (8.3%), which together formed the group of health-related faculties.

The remaining faculties, such as Law, Animal Science and Agriculture, Fisheries and Marine Science, Social and Political Sciences, Science and Mathematics, each contributed between 6% and 9% of the total respondents.

Table 1. Characteristic of the Respondents

Variable	Category	Health-related students (n=137)		Non-health-related students (n=368)		Total (n=505)	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
Age	18 years	14	10.2	44	12.0	58	11.5
	19 years	24	17.5	57	15.5	81	16.0
	20 years	27	19.7	69	18.8	96	19.0
	21 years	28	20.4	97	26.4	125	24.8
	22 years	29	21.2	61	16.6	90	17.8
	23 years	8	5.8	28	7.6	36	7.1
	24 years	5	3.6	9	2.4	14	2.8
	25 years	2	1.5	3	0.8	5	1.0
Sex	Male	34	24.8	160	43.5	194	38.4
	Female	70	75.2	208	56.5	311	61.6
Year of Study	First-year	22	16.1	52	14.1	74	14.7
	Second-year	25	18.2	68	18.5	93	18.4
	Third-year	27	19.7	71	19.3	98	19.4
	Fourth-year	30	21.9	89	24.2	119	23.6
	Fifth-year or more	33	24.1	88	23.9	121	24.0
Academic Fields	Health-Related Faculty	137	27.1	-	-	137	27.1
	Non-Health-Related Faculty	-	-	368	72.9	368	72.9

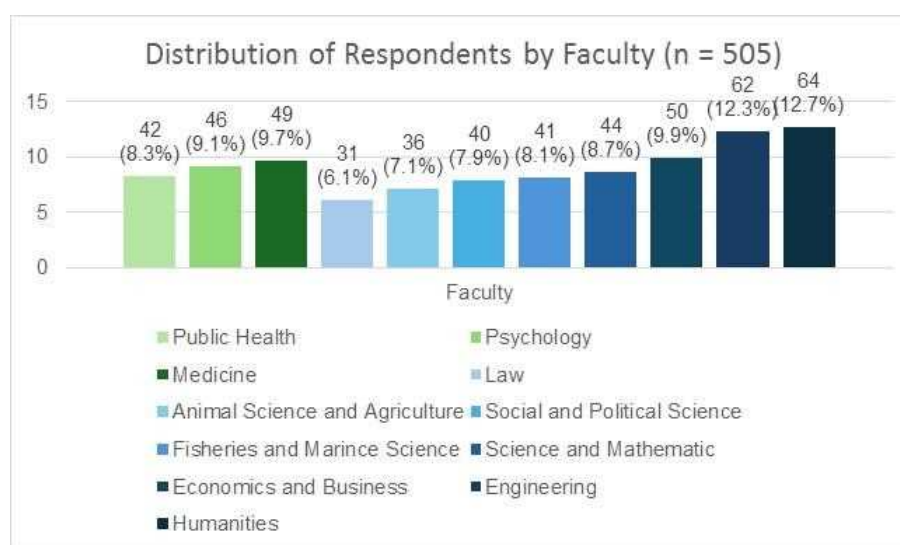


Figure 2. Distribution of Respondents by Faculty

Table 2 presents the responses of 505 students to the HLS-EU-Q16 items, showing variation across academic groups. For accessing information (e.g., treatments, professional help, mental health, and well-being), over 88% of respondents found the tasks easy. Health-related students consistently reported greater ease. For example, 40.1% of health students found it very easy to find treatment information (item 1), compared to 34.2% of non-health students. Similar trends appeared for finding professional help (item 2: 62.9% vs. 55.2%) and mental health resources (item 8: 42.3% vs. 31.5%).

In understanding health information (e.g., doctor's instructions, health warnings, screening), both groups reported high ease. However, health students showed slightly higher "very easy" responses, particularly for understanding health screenings (item 10: 51.1% vs. 34.5%) and media advice on getting healthier (item 15: 53.3% vs. 46.7%).

For appraising health information (e.g., judging credibility, deciding on second opinions), health-related students appeared more confident. For instance, 21.9% found it very easy to assess media information (item 11), versus 11.7% of non-health students. Likewise, fewer health students reported difficulty in judging when to seek a second opinion (item 5).

Regarding applying information (e.g., making health decisions, following instructions), students generally felt confident. Health-related students more frequently rated these tasks as "very easy," including following medical instructions (item 7: 65.0% vs. 58.7%). Across competencies, health-related students consistently reported

higher ease in accessing, understanding, appraising, and applying health information, reflecting potential curricular exposure and familiarity with health systems. Figure 3 displays the distribution of health literacy among all 505 respondents, with 4.2% classified as inadequate, 23.0% as problematic, and 72.9% as sufficient. Figure 4 compares health literacy levels by academic field, showing a significantly higher proportion of sufficient health literacy among health-related students (86.9%) than non-health-related peers (67.7%) ($p = 0.001$).

In addition to the academic field, Table 3 shows the distribution of health literacy levels across age, year of study, and sex among the 505 undergraduate students. Regarding age, the proportion of students with sufficient health literacy ranged from 64.3% among 24-year-olds to 86.1% among 23-year-olds. Although students aged 20 and 23 showed relatively higher proportions of sufficient health literacy (81.3% and 86.1%, respectively), the association between age and health literacy was not statistically significant ($p = 0.062$). Given that 41.7% of expected cells had a count below 5, additional testing was performed using a Monte Carlo simulation ($p = 0.070$) and a Fisher–Freeman–Halton exact test ($p = 0.063$), both of which confirmed the non-significant association.

Analysis by sex also revealed no statistically significant difference in health literacy levels ($\chi^2(2) = 1.410$, $p = 0.494$). While a slightly higher proportion of females (74.6%) had sufficient health literacy compared to males (70.1%), the difference was not significant. Additionally, all chi-square assumptions were met for this variable.

Table 2. Distribution of Respondents' Answers for HLS-EU-16 Questionnaire

No.	Question	Answer	Health-related students (n=137)		Non-health-related students (n=368)		Total (n=505)	
			n	%	n	%	n	%
1	Find information on treatments of illnesses that concern you?	Very Difficult	0	0.0	5	1.2	5	1.0
		Somewhat Difficult	5	3.6	48	13.0	53	10.5
		Somewhat Easy	77	56.2	189	51.4	266	52.7
		Very Easy	55	40.1	126	34.2	181	35.8
2	Find out where to get professional help when you are ill?	Very Difficult	0	0.0	2	0.5	2	0.4
		Somewhat Difficult	4	2.9	36	9.8	40	7.9
		Somewhat Easy	50	36.5	127	34.5	177	35.0
		Very Easy	83	62.9	203	55.2	286	56.6
3	Understand what doctor says to you?	Very Difficult	0	0.0	3	0.7	3	0.6
		Somewhat Difficult	7	5.1	40	10.9	47	9.3
		Somewhat Easy	73	53.3	193	52.4	266	52.7
		Very Easy	57	41.6	132	35.9	189	37.4
4	Understand your doctor's pharmacist's instruction on how to take a prescribed medicine?	Very Difficult	0	0.0	2	0.5	2	0.4
		Somewhat Difficult	2	1.5	4	1.1	6	1.2
		Somewhat Easy	45	32.8	108	29.3	153	30.3
		Very Easy	90	65.7	254	69.0	344	68.1
5	Judge when you may need to get a second opinion from another doctor?	Very Difficult	4	2.9	25	6.8	29	5.7
		Somewhat Difficult	38	27.7	135	36.7	173	34.3
		Somewhat Easy	67	48.9	144	39.1	211	41.8
		Very Easy	28	20.4	64	17.4	92	18.2
6	Use information the doctor gives you to make decisions about your illness?	Very Difficult	0	0.0	10	2.7	10	2.0
		Somewhat Difficult	8	5.8	39	10.6	47	9.3
		Somewhat Easy	64	46.7	182	49.5	246	48.7
		Very Easy	65	47.4	137	37.2	202	40.0
7	Follow instructions from your doctor or pharmacist?	Very Difficult	0	0.0	7	1.9	7	1.4
		Somewhat Difficult	4	2.9	18	4.9	22	4.4
		Somewhat Easy	44	32.1	127	34.5	171	33.9
		Very Easy	89	65.0	216	58.7	305	60.4
8	Find information on how to manage mental health problems like stress or depression?	Very Difficult	3	2.2	19	5.2	22	4.4
		Somewhat Difficult	17	12.4	77	20.9	94	18.6
		Somewhat Easy	59	43.1	156	42.4	215	42.6
		Very Easy	58	42.3	116	31.5	174	34.5
9	Understand health warnings about behavior such as smoking, low physical activity and drinking too much?	Very Difficult	0	0.0	6	1.6	6	1.2
		Somewhat Difficult	1	0.7	10	2.7	11	2.2
		Somewhat Easy	26	19.0	80	21.7	106	21.0
		Very Easy	110	80.3	272	73.9	382	75.6
10	Understand why you need health screenings?	Very Difficult	0	0.0	16	4.3	16	3.2
		Somewhat Difficult	8	5.8	82	22.3	90	17.8
		Somewhat Easy	59	43.1	143	38.9	202	40.0
		Very Easy	70	51.1	127	34.5	197	39.0

No.	Question	Answer	Health-related students (n=137)		Non-health-related students (n=368)		Total (n=505)	
			n	%	n	%	n	%
11	Judge if the information on health risks in the media is reliable?	Very Difficult	4	2.9	28	7.6	32	6.3
		Somewhat Difficult	42	30.7	151	41.0	193	38.2
		Somewhat Easy	61	44.5	146	39.7	207	41.0
		Very Easy	30	21.9	43	11.7	73	14.5
12	Decide how you can protect yourself from illness based on information in the media?	Very Difficult	1	0.7	8	2.2	9	1.8
		Somewhat Difficult	19	13.9	80	21.7	99	19.6
		Somewhat Easy	78	56.9	202	54.9	280	55.4
		Very Easy	39	28.5	78	21.2	117	23.2
13	Find out about activities that are good for your mental well-being?	Very Difficult	1	0.7	10	2.7	11	2.2
		Somewhat Difficult	8	5.8	46	12.5	54	10.7
		Somewhat Easy	56	40.9	170	46.2	226	44.8
		Very Easy	72	52.6	142	38.6	214	42.4
14	Understand advice on health from family members or friends?	Very Difficult	0	0.0	8	2.2	8	1.6
		Somewhat Difficult	10	7.3	38	10.3	48	9.5
		Somewhat Easy	72	52.6	194	52.7	266	52.7
		Very Easy	55	40.1	128	34.8	183	36.2
15	Understand information in the media on how to get healthier?	Very Difficult	0	0.0	2	0.5	2	0.4
		Somewhat Difficult	3	2.2	19	5.2	22	4.4
		Somewhat Easy	61	44.5	175	47.6	236	46.7
		Very Easy	73	53.3	172	46.7	245	48.5
16	Judge which everyday behavior is related to your health?	Very Difficult	1	0.7	10	2.7	11	2.2
		Somewhat Difficult	14	10.2	70	19.0	84	16.6
		Somewhat Easy	69	50.4	167	45.4	236	46.7
		Very Easy	53	38.7	121	32.9	174	34.5

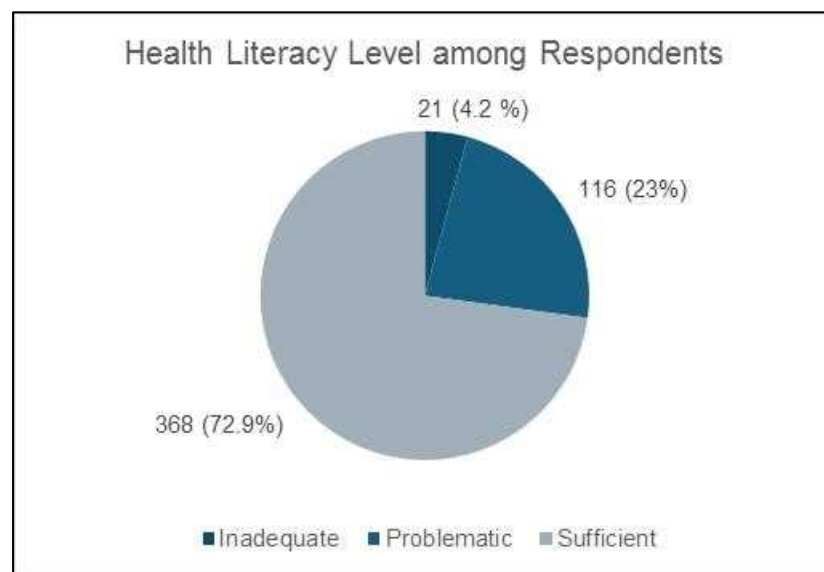


Figure 3. Health Literacy Level

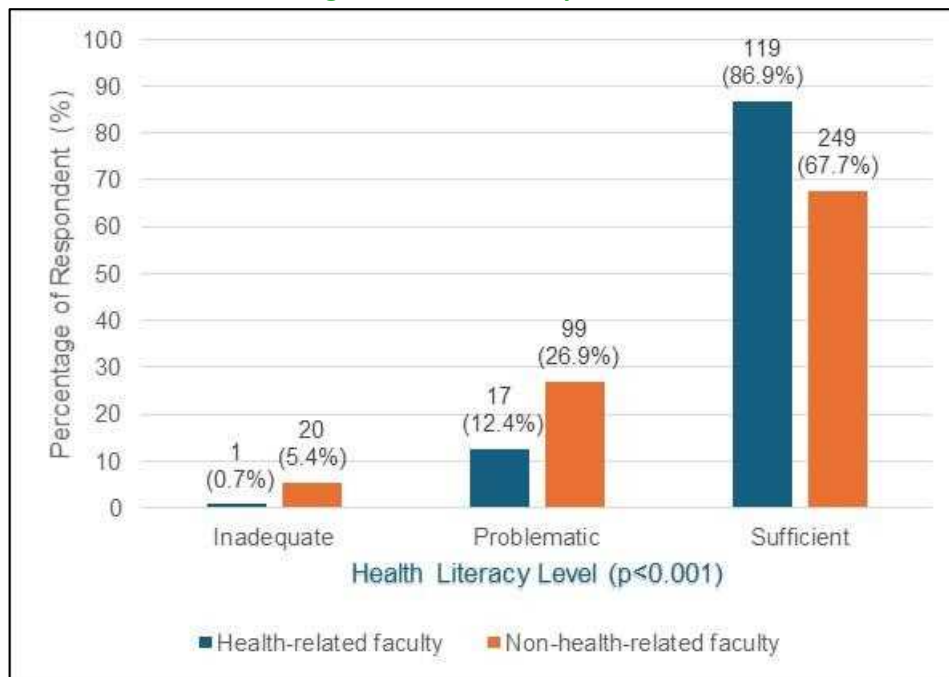


Figure 4. Distribution of Health Literacy Levels by Academic Field

Similarly, no significant relationship was found between year of study and health literacy level ($\chi^2(8)=5.043$, $p=0.753$). Although slight variations were observed, for example, fifth-year students had the highest proportion of sufficient health literacy (77.7%), while fourth-year students had the lowest (68.9%), the differences were not statistically meaningful. Monte Carlo ($p=0.759$) and Fisher–Freeman–Halton exact test ($p=0.758$) confirmed this result.

To further examine the association between academic field and health literacy, the three health literacy categories were dichotomized into low health literacy (combining inadequate and problematic) and sufficient health literacy, which is shown in Table 4. The analysis was performed for both the full sample and a matched sample ($n = 274$), in which 137 respondents were randomly selected from the non-health-

related group to match the number of students from health-related faculties.

In the full sample ($n = 505$), students from health-related faculties were significantly less likely to have low health literacy (13.2%) compared to those from non-health-related faculties (30.2%). The odds ratio was 0.351 (95% CI: 0.185–0.668; $p < 0.001$), indicating a strong protective effect of health-related academic exposure.

In the matched sample ($n = 274$), a similar pattern was observed. Only 13.2% of students in health-related faculties had low health literacy, while 33.3% of students from non-health-related faculties did. The odds ratio was 0.305 (95% CI: 0.166–0.561; $p < 0.001$), confirming a significant association. These findings demonstrate the consistency of the results, even when adjusting for the unequal group sizes.

Table 3. Association between Health Literacy and Sociodemographic Characteristics (n = 505)

Variable	Health Literacy Level						Pearson Chi square	Monte Carlo (2-sided)	Fisher-Freeman-Halton
	Inadequate		Problematic		Sufficient				
	n	%	n	%	n	%			
Age									
18	5	8.6	12	20.7	41	70.7	$\chi^2(14) = 22.923, p = 0.062$	$p = 0.070$ (99% CI: 0.063–0.076)	$p = 0.063$
19	4	4.9	20	24.7	57	70.4			
20	3	3.1	15	15.6	78	81.3			
21	6	4.8	30	24.0	89	71.2			
22	1	1.1	30	33.3	59	65.6			
23	1	2.8	4	11.1	31	86.1			
24	0	0.0	5	35.7	9	64.3			
25	1	20.0	0	0.0	4	80.0			
Total	21	4.2	116	23.0	368	72.9			
Sex									
Male	8	4.1	50	25.8	136	70.1	$\chi^2(2) = 1.410, p = 0.494$		
Female	13	4.2	66	21.2	232	74.6			
Total	21	4.2	116	23.0	368	72.9			
Year of Study									
First-year	4	5.4	18	24.3	52	70.3	$\chi^2(8) = 5.043, p = 0.753$	$p = 0.759$ (99% CI: 0.748–0.770)	$p = 0.758$
Second-year	6	6.5	20	21.5	67	72.0			
Third-year	3	3.1	22	22.4	73	74.5			
Fourth-year	4	3.4	33	27.7	82	68.9			
Fifth-year and more	4	3.3	23	19.0	94	77.7			
Total	21	4.2	116	23.0	368	72.9			

Table 4. 2x2 Contingency Table for Association between Academic Field and Health Literacy Level

Academic Field	Health Literacy Level				Odds Ratio (95% CI)	P-value
	Low Health Literacy		Sufficient Health Literacy			
	n	%	n	%		
Full Sample (n=505)						
Health-related Faculty	12	13.2	79	86.8	0.351 (0.185–0.668)	<0.001
Non-health-related Faculty	125	30.2	289	69.8		
Total	137	27.1	368	72.9		
Matched Sample (n= 137 each group)						
Health-related Faculty	18	13.2	118	86.8	0.305 (0.166–0.561)	<0.001
Non-health-related Faculty	46	33.3	92	66.7		
Total	64	23.4	210	76.6		

The consistency across both analytical approaches strengthens the evidence that academic background plays a significant role in determining health literacy levels among university students.

Discussion

This study assessed health literacy using the Indonesian version of HLS-EU-16Q, revealing that most respondents (72.9%) demonstrated sufficient health literacy. Indonesia's health literacy levels appear relatively high compared to studies from other countries, particularly developing ones. For instance, a survey from Semarang Regency found that only 55% of respondents had high health literacy (31). In contrast, health literacy in developing countries like Ghana and rural India shows a more concerning trend. In Ghana, 55% of university students exhibited limited health literacy, with 20.4% having inadequate health literacy (32). In contrast, in rural India, only 11.7% of participants demonstrated sufficient health literacy, with the majority (61.6%) showing inadequate levels (33). These figures reflect the challenges faced in developing nations, where low education levels, limited healthcare access, and cultural factors significantly hinder health literacy.

However, health literacy is not a problem exclusive to developing countries. Even in developed countries, significant issues persist. A large-scale European survey found that 47% of participants across eight countries had limited health literacy (34), showing that this issue is still prevalent even in nations with advanced healthcare systems. Similarly, studies in Saudi Arabia and Spain revealed that over half of the respondents had inadequate or problematic health literacy, despite well-established healthcare infrastructure (35, 36).

These findings underscore that limited health literacy is not only a challenge in developing countries but also a widespread

issue in high-income nations. Furthermore, a systematic review on university students in developed countries found that most reported lower health literacy scores than reference samples (37). The review highlighted that health literacy among students is influenced by various factors, including age, gender, academic discipline, and socioeconomic background. These findings suggest that even in developed countries, university students may face challenges in accessing, understanding, and applying health information effectively.

The association between academic field and health literacy level remained significant in both the full sample and the matched sample, reinforcing the strength of the observed relationship. In the full sample ($n = 505$), students from health-related faculties were significantly more likely to exhibit sufficient health literacy ($p < 0.001$). This association was even stronger in the matched sample ($n = 274$), with an odds ratio of 0.305 ($p < 0.001$). These consistent findings across both analytical approaches suggest that the relationship is not merely a product of sample size imbalance, but rather reflects a true difference in health literacy levels between academic fields.

Students enrolled in health-related programs had approximately 65% lower odds of possessing low health literacy, compared to their non-health-related peers, highlighting the potential influence of academic exposure to health-related content. This result is in line with previous research by Akelina Butar Butar et al. (25) that found significantly higher health literacy among health-related students ($p = 0.003$). Similarly, another study reported that medical students

exhibited higher health literacy than non-medical students ($p < 0.001$) (26). In a study conducted at a university in Semarang, 64.6% of students in health-related programs were also found to have higher health literacy (38), further supporting this trend.

In addition to academic discipline, this study also explored potential associations between health literacy and demographic variables such as age, year of study, and sex. However, the findings revealed no statistically significant relationships between these variables and health literacy levels ($p > 0.05$). One possible explanation is that the age range (18–25 years) and academic year categories (1st to 5th year) were relatively narrow, which may have limited the observable variability in health literacy. This relative homogeneity in developmental and academic experiences might reduce the likelihood of detecting significant differences. Similarly, no gender differences were observed, aligning with previous research that has reported mixed or inconclusive findings regarding sex-based differences in health literacy (39–42). These findings highlight the complexity of health literacy as a construct, which is shaped by a combination of many factors.

Health students have advantages in obtaining a higher level of health literacy than non-health students (26). Students from health-related courses are naturally acquainted with more health-related information, the health care setting, issues of health promotion, and disease prevention compared to students from non-health-related programs (32). This trend is attributed to the curriculum's focus on health promotion, disease prevention, and access to

health information, which enhances their understanding and application of health-related knowledge (37, 39, 43). Students in non-health fields often have limited exposure to health education, leading to a poor understanding of disease prevention, health promotion, and healthy behaviors (44).

These findings highlight a notable disparity in health literacy levels between students from health-related and non-health-related academic programs, which warrants closer attention. While health students benefit from structured exposure to health-related knowledge, students in other disciplines may be left without the necessary competencies to make informed health decisions. This academic gap in health literacy should be addressed through university-level strategies that promote equitable access to health education.

To further explore the observed differences in health literacy between health-related and non-health-related students, an analysis was conducted using the integrated model developed by Sørensen et al., which conceptualizes health literacy through four core competencies: accessing, understanding, appraising, and applying health-related information. Based on responses to the 16-item questionnaire, it is evident that students from health-related academic backgrounds consistently reported greater ease across most items within each of these competencies.

Within the domain of accessing health information (items 1, 2, 8, and 13), students from health-related faculties consistently reported greater ease compared to their non-health-related peers. For instance, 40.1% of health students rated finding treatment

information as very easy, versus 34.2% of non-health students. Only 3.6% of health-related students reported difficulty with this task, compared to 14.2% in the non-health group. These patterns may reflect structured exposure to health content and stronger information-seeking skills cultivated through health-oriented curricula.

Similar patterns emerged for item 8, which addressed students' ability to find information on managing mental health problems. A larger proportion of health-related students rated this task as very easy or somewhat easy, suggesting a higher level of comfort and familiarity with mental health resources. This may be attributed to increased exposure to mental health topics in academic settings, reduced stigma, and greater health awareness promoted in health-focused disciplines (45). As highlighted by Sørensen et al. (2012), the ability to access health information is a fundamental component of health literacy and is strongly influenced by educational and contextual factors (2). In addition, another study emphasized that students' ability to locate and access appropriate health services is shaped by formal instruction and the accessibility of campus-based resources (46–48).

In the understanding competency (items 3, 4, 9, 10, 14, and 15), which involves the ability to comprehend health information, both groups generally reported high levels of perceived ease. However, health-related students consistently demonstrated slightly higher percentages of “very easy” responses. For example, 51.1% of health-related students found it very easy to understand why health screenings are needed (item 10),

in contrast to just 34.5% of students from non-health disciplines. Notably, more than 26.6% of non-health students stated that they found it “somewhat difficult” and “very difficult” to understand why they need health screenings (item 10), compared to 5.8% of health students. This suggests that educational background significantly shapes comprehension of health messages, particularly when the content involves medical reasoning or public health rationale.

For the appraising competency (items 5, 11, 16), which involves evaluating the relevance and credibility of health information, notable differences emerged between groups. Health-related students reported greater ease in assessing media messages (item 11) and knowing when to seek a second opinion (item 5). Nearly half of non-health students (48.6%) struggled with evaluating media credibility, compared to 33.6% of health students. Similarly, 42.3% of non-health students found it difficult to decide when to seek a second opinion, versus 30.6% of their health-related peers. On item 16, more health students rated it “very easy” to judge health-related behaviors (38.7% vs. 32.9%).

These findings suggest that health-related students are better equipped to critically appraise health information, likely due to formal training. However, despite reported difficulties with evaluation, most respondents felt confident accessing and applying health information, 88.5% found it easy to locate treatment information (item 1), and 78.6% felt confident in acting on media-based advice (item 12). This contrast reflects a gap between access and critical

appraisal, possibly influenced by information overload and conflicting online content.

In the final competency, applying health information (items 6, 7, and 12), which pertains to using knowledge to make informed health decisions, health-related students again reported greater ease. A particularly notable gap was observed in following medical instructions (item 7), 65.0% of health-related students rated this as “very easy,” while only 58.7% of non-health-related students did so. Finally, in item 6 (using doctor-provided information to make decisions), 47.4% of health students rated it very easy compared to 37.2% of non-health peers. Combined with lower difficulty responses, these results suggest greater confidence in acting on health advice among health students, possibly a result of familiarity with clinical reasoning processes.

Overall, these findings underscore the significant influence of academic background on health literacy, particularly in the competencies of accessing and appraising, as conceptualized by Sørensen et al. (2). These results highlight the multidimensional nature of health literacy and reveal disparities between students from different academic fields. To reduce this gap, universities should consider targeted interventions for non-health students, such as interdisciplinary health promotion programs, integration of health literacy into general education curricula, or Digital Health Literacy (DHL) workshops. Such initiatives can equip all students, regardless of discipline, with the skills needed to navigate health information and services effectively. A cross-disciplinary approach to curriculum and campus health

strategies is vital to fostering equitable health literacy.

Study Limitations and Strengths: This study has several limitations. First, the absence of a categorized university-wide student registry precluded stratified probability sampling by academic field. Consequently, participant recruitment via self-registration followed by simple random sampling may have led to unequal representation between health-related and non-health-related disciplines. To address this, both full sample and matched sample analyses were conducted to enhance analytical rigor.

Second, the focus on undergraduate students aged 18–25 limits the generalizability of the findings to older or postgraduate populations. The restricted age and academic year range may have also reduced the variability needed to detect differences in health literacy.

Third, reliance on self-reported data introduces potential social desirability bias, while the online survey format may have excluded individuals with limited internet access or digital literacy, affecting sample inclusiveness.

Conclusion

This study investigated the differences in health literacy levels between students from health-related and non-health-related academic fields in Semarang City, Indonesia. The HLS-EU-Q16 questionnaire and bivariate analysis results demonstrated a statistically significant association between academic background and health literacy level ($p < 0.001$). Students in health-related faculties had a markedly higher proportion of sufficient health literacy (86.9%) than those in non-health-related faculties (67.7%).

Furthermore, the odds of having low health literacy were significantly lower among health-related students, with an odds ratio of 0.351 (95% CI: 0.185–0.668, $p < 0.001$).

These findings confirm that academic exposure to health-related content contributes substantially to developing health literacy competencies, particularly in accessing, appraising, and applying health information. Academically, this study supports the need for integrating health literacy into broader educational frameworks, especially for non-health students who may lack sufficient exposure through their curriculum.

Regarding policy, universities should consider implementing cross-disciplinary health promotion programs, including integrating digital and general health literacy modules into non-health-related programs. This strategy would help reduce disparities in health knowledge, empower students to make informed decisions, and support long-term public health objectives.

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Ethics approval and consent to participate:

This study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. The Khon Kaen University Ethics Committee for Human Research granted ethical clearance for the research (Approval No. HE671228). All participants provided informed consent prior to participation.

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