

*Comparison of Prescribing Practices in Public & Private
Sectors for the Treatment of Tuberculosis in Dhaka
Metropolis*



B. PHARM THESIS

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Abstract

It drugs are not the only therapeutic interventions, which provide a desirable health level, rational use of them plays an important role in the efficacy and sufficiency of therapeutic interventions. Rational drug utilization means that each individual receives the right medicine, in an adequate dose for an adequate duration, with appropriate information and follow-up treatment, and at an affordable cost.

Some examples of irrational prescription are over- and under-prescribing, polypharmacy, no indicated drug prescription, unreasonable use of expensive medicines and inappropriate use of antibiotics. In addition to high cost of treatment, inappropriate prescribing causes ineffective, unsafe treatment, exacerbation or prolongation of illness, distress, and harm to the patient.

Like other countries, inappropriate use of drugs due to irrational prescription practices is a common problem in Iran, and requires being concisely controlled.

Due to the high cost of inappropriate use of drugs, developing countries face more problems because of the limited economic resources and lack of organized drug policy.

In order to improve the prescription quality and rational prescription pattern promotion there is an inevitable need to investigate the factors that affect doctors' prescription patterns. Studies have shown that there is a correlation between prescription patterns and gender, age, educational status, work experience, economic situation, and physician's specialty. Defining drug prescription and consumption pattern provides advantageous feedback to prescribers in order to improve their prescribing behavior. Prescription analyzing studies help the policymakers to set the priorities to promote the rational use of medicines nationwide.

This study aims to quantify the current situation of drug use pattern for the treatment of Tuberculosis in correlation with prescribing behavior of physicians based on their different specialties. The objective was to quantify the specialists' prescription pattern in ten different public and private sectors in Dhaka metropolis, Bangladesh and to point out the prescribing behavioral differences among several specialties.

A retrospective cross-sectional study was carried out on the claim data and 6000 prescription is collected from 10 different hospitals among which 5 are private and five are government owned. Outdoor prescription data were obtained on the basis of the claims that the pharmacies submitted to the insurers during 1 year period of the study. More than 6000 prescriptions were analyzed depending on various parameters that is designed and outcome has been justified.

After comparison study we have seen that average number of drug per prescription in case of public hospitals is 5 where as it is 7 for private hospitals. As Tuberculosis is a specialized disease to be cured and also an infectious diseases so it needs extensive diagnostic test and history study and we see that in both prescriptions collected from private and public sectors contain 100% disease diagnosis history. Near about 91% prescription contain more than 4 diagnostic test in case of public hospitals where as it is 97% for private hospitals.

As immunity break down in tuberculosis patients it is necessary to prescribe multivitamins and minerals to boost up the patients immunity system. This is why prescription collected from private sectors contains 87% multivitamins and prescriptions collected from private sectors contain 100% multi vitamins. All the drugs need for tuberculosis treatment is supplied by WHO and UNDP finance and tuberculosis treatment is totally free but depending on patients conditions it needs others bronchodilators, multi vitamins, antihistamines, others drugs which cost near 293 BDT for public sectors and 523 for private sectors.

Age missing in both prescriptions was 4% and date missing was 1%. Tuberculosis is prone to patient's year less than 4 and greater than 35 years. Tendency of Antibiotic use was 296% before intervention and after intervention 258% it is reduced by 38% in public sectors. In private sectors before intervention it was 397% and after intervention 371% reduced by 26%. Patient satisfaction is also analyzed. Clinical check list is also analyzed.

There is an inevitable need to improve prescription habits among different specialties, especially among general practitioners. This causes the policymakers to put more emphasis on priorities such as continuous education.

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1.1. Prescription

A prescription is a written instruction from a physician, dentist etc, to a pharmacist stating the form, dosage strength, etc, of a drug to be issued to a specific patient [1].

The word “prescription” stems from the Latin term “praescriptus”. Praescriptus is made up of two Latin word parts, “prae-”a prefix meaning before, and “scribere” a word root meaning to write. Putting it all together, prescription means “to write before” which reflects the historical fact that traditionally had to be written before a drug could be mixed and administered to a patient.

Many ancient prescriptions were noted for their multiple ingredients and complexity of preparation. The importance of the and the need for complete understanding and accuracy made it imperative that a universal and standard language be used. Thus, Latin was adopted, and its use was continued until approximately a generation ago.

Present day prescriptions are written in English, with doses given in the metric system, but often contracted Latin words and Roman numerals are still found. The ancient “Rx” and the Latin “Signatura”, abbreviated as “Sig” and the occasional Roman numeral are all that remain of the ancient art of the prescription.

A prescription is a written order for compounding, dispensing and administering drugs to a specific client or patient and once it is signed by the physician it becomes a legal document. Prescriptions are required for all medications that require the supervision of a physician, that must be controlled because they are addictive and carry the potential of being abused and that could cause health threats from side effects if taken incorrectly, for example heart medications (cardiac drugs), insulin and antibiotics [2].

1.1.1. Different Parts of a Prescription:

A complete prescription should have the following parts:

1.1.1.1. Date:

Date must be written on the prescription by the prescriber at the same time when it is written. The date on the prescription helps a pharmacist to find out the cases where prescription is brought for dispensing long time after its issue. Prescriptions containing narcotics and other habit forming drugs must bear the date.

1.1.1.2. Name, Age, Sex and Address of the Patient:

Name, age, sex and address of the patient must be written on the prescription. If it is not written then, the pharmacist should himself ask the patient about these particulars and put down at the top of the prescription. This avoids the possibility of giving the finished product to a person other than the one it is meant for.

Age and sex of the patient especially in the case of children helps the pharmacist in checking the medication and the dose.

The address of the patient is recorded to help for any reference at a later stage, to contact the patient or to deliver the medication personally.

1.1.1.3. Superscription

The superscription is written by a symbol, Rx, which is always written at the beginning of the prescription. In the days of mythology and superstition the symbol was considered as a prayer to Jupiter, the God of healing, for quick recovery of the patient but now this symbol is understood as an abbreviation of the Latin word recipe, meaning “take thou” or “you take”.

1.1.1.4. Inscription

This is the main part of the prescription. It contains the names and quantities of the prescribed ingredients. The names of the ingredients are written each on a separate line, followed by the quantity ordered and the last item written is generally the vehicle or

diluent.

In complex prescriptions containing several ingredients the inscription is divided into three parts:

- i) The base or the active medicament which is intended to produce the therapeutic effect;
- ii) The adjuvant which is included either to enhance the action of the medicament or to make the product more palatable;
- iii) The vehicle which is either used to dissolve the solid substances and/or to increase the volume of the preparation for ease of administration.

1.1.1.5. Subscription

This part of the prescription contains prescriber's directions to the pharmacist regarding the dosage form to be prepared and number of doses to be dispensed. Since, nowadays only a few prescriptions are compounded therefore such directions are less frequent.

1.1.1.6. Signatura/Signa

It is usually abbreviated as "Sig" on the prescriptions and consists of the directions to be given to the patient regarding the administration of the drug. It usually indicates the quantity of medicament or number or dosage units to be taken, how many times in a day or at what time it should be taken and the manner in which it is to be administered or applied.

All other parts of the prescription may be printed or type-written but the prescriber's name must be hand-written and should be signed with ink. This eliminates the danger of dispensing medicament on a spurious order and it authenticates the prescription. The prescriptions containing narcotic or other habit-forming drugs must bear the address and registration number of the prescriber. This identifies the special license which a prescriber must have to prescribe the narcotic and other habit-forming drugs [3].

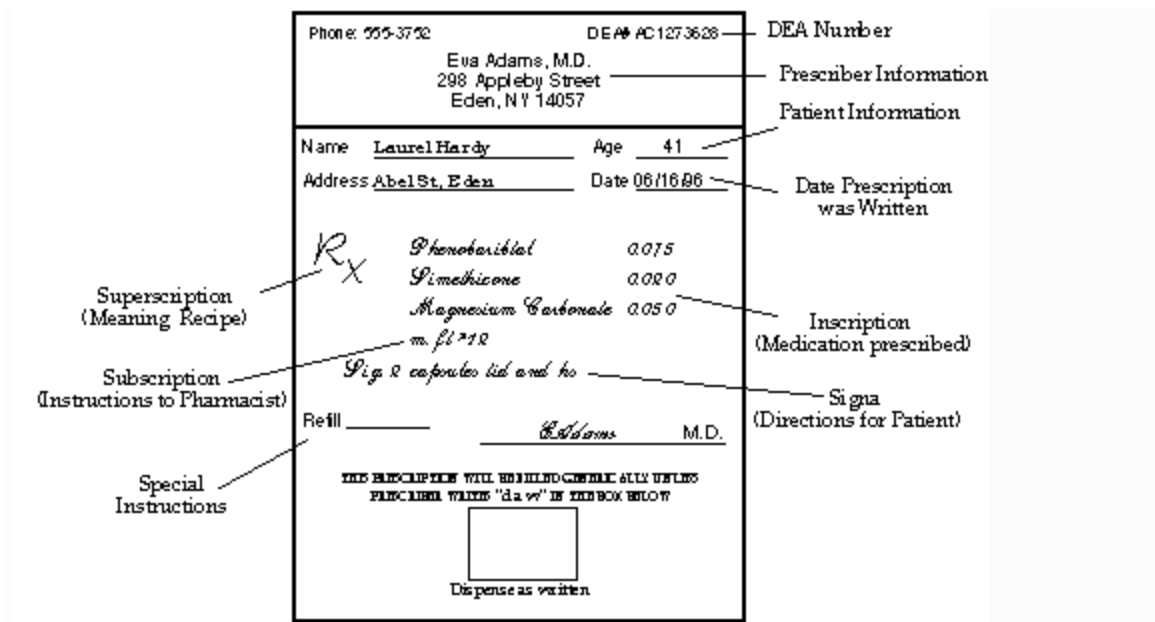


Figure 1a: Different parts of a prescription

1.1.2. Sources of Error in Prescriptions

1.1.2.1. Abbreviation

In most of the prescriptions abbreviated terms are used by the prescriber that leads to major errors during interpretation by the pharmacists. E.g . ‘SSKI’ is the abbreviated term of ‘Saturated Solution of Potassium Iodide’. It is preferable to avoid these types of misleading abbreviations.

1.1.2.2. Name of the Drugs

Names of some drugs (especially the brand names) either look or sound alike. So any error in the name of a drug will lead to major danger to the patient e.g. Althrocin – Eltroxin , Acidin – Apidin etc

1.1.2.3. Strength of the Preparation

Drugs are available in the market in various strengths. So a drug must not be dispensed if the strength is not written in the prescription. E.g. Paracetamol tablet 500mg should not be dispensed when no strength is mentioned in the prescription .

1.1.2.4. Dosage Form of the Drug Prescribed

Many drugs are available in more than one dosage forms e.g. liquid, tablets, injections or suppositories. The dosage form intended for the patient must be mentioned in the prescription to reduce ambiguity.

1.1.2.5. Dose

If unusually high or low dose is mentioned in the prescription then it must be consulted with the prescriber. Some time a sustained release (SR) dosage form is prescribed thrice or more times daily. Actually SR dosage forms should be given once or twice a day.

1.1.2.6. Instructions to the Patient

Sometimes the instruction for a certain preparation is either omitted or mentioned partially. The quantity of the drug to be taken, the frequency and timing of administration and route of administration should be mentioned clearly.

1.1.2.7. Incompatibilities

It is essential to check that there are no pharmaceutical or therapeutic incompatibilities in the prescription. If more than two medicines are prescribed then it is the duty of the pharmacist to see whether their interactions will produce any harm to the patient or not. Certain drugs have interactions with food. The pharmacist has to advise the patient about it. E.g , Tetracycline should not be taken with milk or antacid[4].

1.2. Polypharmacy:

Polypharmacy is defined by the World Health Organization as "the administration of many drugs at the same time or the administration of an excessive number of drugs" (WHO, 2004). Habitual and often legitimate among elderly patients, it is considered appropriate or legitimate in cases of concomitant pathologies or in complex medical situations in which prescribed medications respect recommendations. Inversely, it becomes problematic when one or more medications are inappropriately prescribed or when the anticipated benefit for the patient is not obtained (Duerden et al., 2013). In any case, the ageing of the population and the risks of iatrogenesis means that polypharmacy is a major issue in terms of quality of health and the appropriateness of prescribing [5].

1.2.1. Polypharmacy in Elderly People

Polypharmacy is an area of concern for elderly because of several reasons. Elderly people are at a greater risk for adverse drug reactions (ADRs) because of the metabolic changes and reduced drug clearance associated with ageing; this risk is furthermore exacerbated by increasing the number of drugs used. Potential of drug-drug interactions is further increased by use of multiple drugs. In a case-control study carried out among old age people, polypharmacy was found to be an independent risk factor for hip fractures. Polypharmacy may sometimes lead to "prescribing cascades." Prescribing cascade is said when signs and symptoms (multiple and nonspecific) of an ADR is misinterpreted as a disease and a new treatment/drug therapy is further added to the earlier prescribed treatment to treat the condition. This inherits the potential to develop further more side-effects and thus making a prescribing cascade.

The symptoms caused by polypharmacy is unfortunately usually demented with the normal aging signs and symptoms, which can be: Tiredness, sleepiness, or decreased alertness, constipation, diarrhea, or incontinence, loss of appetite, confusion, falls, depression or lack of interest in your usual activities, weakness, tremors, visual or auditory hallucinations, anxiety or excitability, and/or dizziness.

Polypharmacy can lead to ADRs, mostly due to over-the-counter medications. The most consistent risk factor for ADRs is the number of drugs being taken, i.e. as the number of

drugs taken increases, the risk of ADR increases exponentially. Polypharmacy may also lead to decreased medication compliance, poor quality of life, and unnecessary drug expenses.

In respect to oral health, the most common adverse effect of polypharmacy, reported is dry mouth syndrome or xerostomia. Drugs/medications that can cause a dry mouth include cardiovascular medications (diuretics, calcium channel blockers), anti-depressants and antipsychotics, sedatives, central analgesics, anti-Parkinson's medications, anti-allergy medications, and antacids.

Evaluation of polypharmacy is of important concern in an elderly patient so as to avoid all the possible adverse effects. Comprehensive medication review and risk assessment should be carried out by interdisciplinary team to identify the polypharmacy and its adverse effects. It can be carried out using various tools like Assess Review Minimize Optimize Reassess, Screening Tool to Alert Doctors to the Right Treatment, Screening Tool to Older Person's Potentially Inappropriate Prescriptions. ADR probability scale and the Trigger tool for measuring Adverse Drug Events in the Nursing home helps in evaluating the cause and effect of medication errors resulting in ADRs. Studies have shown that Comprehensive Geriatric Assessment has proved to be effective in reducing the number of prescriptions and daily drug doses for patients by facilitating discontinuation of unnecessary or inappropriate medications [6].

1.3. Rational and Irrational Use of Drugs

1.3.1. Rational Use of Drugs

In simplest words rational use means “patient receiving appropriate drug to clinical needs, in adequate dose for the sufficient duration and at the lowest cost possible.”

As per the WHO (1985), the definition of rational use of medicines –

“Patients receive medications appropriate to their clinical needs, in doses that meet their own individual requirements, for an adequate period of time, and at the lowest cost to them and their community [7].

This definition clarifies that there should be a process of prescription, which includes-

- Correctly in defining a patient's problems (or diagnosis)
- Correctly in defining effective and safe treatments (drugs and nondrugs)
- Correctly in selecting appropriate drugs, dosage, and duration
- Proper writing a prescription
- Proper giving patients adequate information and
- Proper planning to evaluate treatment responses [8]

1.3.2. Irrational Use of Drugs

As per WHO, irrational or non-rational use is the use of medicines in a way that is not compliant with rational use as defined above. It was reported that worldwide, more than 50% of all medicines are prescribed, dispensed, or sold inappropriately, while 50% of patients fail to take them correctly. Moreover, about one-third of the world's population lacks access to essential medicines. Common examples of irrational medicine use are:

Overuse of drugs and injections: occurs as a consequence of overprescribing as well as overconsumption. It concerns particularly the use and prescription of antibiotics, antidiarrhoeals, painkillers, injections and cough and cold preparations. Injections have long had a special connotation as particularly powerful and fast acting medicines.

Multi-drug use or polypharmacy: The number of drugs per prescription is often more than needed, with an average of 2.4 up to ten drugs, while generally one or two drugs would have sufficed. Multi-drug use is also common among consumers who purchase their drugs (over the counter drugs).

Incorrect drug use: involves the wrong drug for a specific condition (e.g. antibiotics or antidiarrhoeals for childhood diarrhea), drugs of doubtful efficacy (e.g. antimotility agents for diarrhoea), or use of drugs in the wrong dosage (which is often the case with

antibiotics, ORS and antimalarials). Incorrect drug use occurs in the sense of incorrect prescribing as well as inappropriate use by consumer.[7]



Figure 1b: Irrational use of drugs

1.3.3. Reasons for irrational use of drugs

There are several reasons which may contribute to irrational use of drugs in our country:

(i) Lack of information: Unlike many developed countries we don't have regular facilities, which provide us with up to date, unbiased information on the currently used drugs. The majority of our practitioners rely on medical representatives. There are differences between pharmaceutical concern & the drug regulatory authorities in the interpretation of the data related to indications & safety of drugs.

(ii) Faulty & inadequate training & education of medical graduates: Lack of proper clinical training regarding writing a prescription during training period, dependency on diagnostic aid, rather than clinical diagnosis, is increasing day by day in doctors.

(iii) Poor communication between health professional & patient: Medical practitioners & other health professional giving less time to the patient & not explaining some basic information about the use of drugs.

(iv) Lack of diagnostic facilities/Uncertainty of diagnosis: Correct diagnosis is an important step toward rational drug therapy. Doctors posted in remote areas have to face a lot of difficulty in reaching to a precise diagnosis due to non availability of diagnostic facilities. This promotes poly-pharmacy.

(v) Demand from the patient: To satisfy the patient expectations and demand of quick relief, clinicians prescribe drugs for every single complaint. Also, there is a belief that “every ill has a pill” All these increase the tendency of polypharmacy.

(vi) Defective drug supply system & ineffective drug regulation: Absence of well organized drug regulatory authority & presence of large numbers of drugs in the market leads to irrational use of drugs.

(vii) Promotional activities of pharmaceutical industries: The lucrative promotional programmes of the various pharmaceutical industries influence the drug prescribing [7].

1.4. Prescription pattern and monitoring

Prescription pattern monitoring studies (PPMS) are a tool for assessing the prescribing, dispensing and distribution of medicines. Medicines are an integral part of the health care, and modern health care is impossible without the availability of necessary medicines. They not only save lives and promote health, but prevent epidemics and diseases too. Accessibility to medicines is the fundamental right of every person.[9]

Bad prescribing habits lead to ineffective and unsafe treatment, exacerbation or prolongation of illness, distress and harm to the patient and higher costs. They also make prescriber vulnerable to influences which can cause irrational prescribing [10]. Irrational prescription of drugs is of common occurrence in clinical practice [11]. Important reasons are being lack of knowledge about drugs, unethical drug promotions and irrational prescribing habits of clinicians. Monitoring of prescriptions and drug utilization studies can identify the problems and provide feedback to prescribers so as to create awareness about irrational use of drugs [12].

Drug utilization research was defined by World Health Organization (WHO) in 1977 as a marketing, distribution, prescription, and use of drugs in society, with special emphasis on the resulting medical, social and economic consequences. Pharmacoepidemiology is the study of the use and effects/side-effects of drugs in large numbers of people with the purpose of supporting the rational and cost-effective use of drugs in the population thereby improving health outcomes. Drug utilization research is thus an essential part of pharmacoepidemiology as it describes the extent, nature and determinants of drug exposure. Together, drug utilization research and pharmacoepidemiology may provide insights into many aspects of drug use and drug-prescribing. They provide much useful information on indirect data on morbidity, treatment cost of illness, therapeutic compliance, incidence of adverse reactions, effectiveness of drug consumption and choice of comparators.[13]

Prescription pattern monitoring studies (PPMS) are drug utilization studies with the main focus on prescribing, dispensing and administering of drugs. They promote appropriate use of monitored drugs and reduction of abuse or misuse of monitored drugs. PPMS also guide and support prescribers, dispensers and the general public on appropriate use of drugs, collaborate and develop working relationship with other key organizations to achieve a rational use of drugs.[14]

Prescription Patterns explain the extent and profile of drug use, trends, quality of drugs, and compliance with regional, state or national guidelines like standard treatment guidelines, usage of drugs from essential medicine list and use of generic drugs. There is increasing importance of PPMS because of a boost in marketing of new drugs, variations

in pattern of prescribing and consumption of drugs, growing concern about delayed adverse effects, cost of drugs and volume of prescription.[14]

The aim of PPMS is to facilitate the rational use of drugs in a population. Irrational use of medicines is a major problem worldwide. WHO estimates that more than half of all medicines are prescribed, dispensed or sold inappropriately, and that half of all patients fail to take them correctly. The overuse, underuse or misuse of medicines results in wastage of scarce resources and widespread health hazards. The rational use of medicines (RUM) is defined as “Patients receive medications appropriate to their clinical needs, in doses that meet their own individual requirements, for an adequate period of time, and at the lowest cost to them and their community.[13]

Prescription patterns have been studied in a variety of settings. The experience accumulated over time has originated a standard assessment methodology, well-known and applied worldwide (WHO, 1993). Prescription patterns depend on the professional qualifications of the prescribers, the quality of their training, in-service training and supervision activities, ingrained traditions, market incentives, patient preferences, regulatory provisions, drug supply constraints, the availability of treatment guidelines.

These factors evolve during a protracted crisis, not all in the same direction, nor uniformly. A patchwork of findings is common. The contraction of commercial outlets outside large towns may reduce the availability of unneeded drugs. Their replacement by standard kits induces a measure of rationing. An ensuing drop in the misuse of antibiotics and injections, although negatively perceived by prescribers and patients alike, represents a tangible improvement. On the other hand, the communization of health care encourages the prescription of unneeded, even harmful drugs. Against the general decline of standards, health services supported or directly provided by some capable NGOs may receive a boost in terms of in-service training, supply and supervision, which translates into improved prescription practice.. Standard treatment guidelines may have been formulated and taken roots in daily practice before the crisis. When this is the case, collaborative NGOs may adopt them. Other health service providers, bound to their own international standards, prefer to ignore national guidelines. Over time, health care fragments.

Not many battered health sectors have invested in formulating standard treatment guidelines, or in updating old ones, during a crisis. Precious opportunities to disseminate sound professional practice are wasted. Disease-control programmes and international agencies are left in charge of filling this gap. As they are unlikely to reach a measure of consensus, guidelines multiply.

Diverging views, with government officials extolling the merits of existing guidelines, despite their unavailability, alongside NGO managers downplaying their value, without even having examined them, are commonplace. Higher-level cadres are likely to be dismissive of guidelines perceived as constraints to their medical practice. The true users of treatment guidelines, frontline health care providers, may remain unheard in these futile discussions.

Drugs play an important role in protecting, maintaining and restoring health. Prescription writing is a science and an art, as it conveys the message from the prescriber to the patient. The treatment of diseases by the use of essential drugs, prescribed by their generic names, has been emphasized by the WHO and the National Health Policy of India.

The cost of drug prescription poses problems in developing countries such as India, which allocates only 0.9% of its Gross Domestic Product (GDP), i.e. Rs. 200 per capita, to health. The allocation for meeting the cost of the drugs is even meager. Moreover, the production of pharmaceutical preparations in India is grossly imbalanced and there is cut throat competition among drug companies, which breeds malpractice. Indian markets are flooded with over 70,000 formulations, as compared to about 350 listed in the WHO essential drug list, and pharmaceutical companies encourage doctors to prescribe branded medicines, often in exchange for favors. This study was, therefore, undertaken with the aim to find out the prescription pattern and cost per prescription at different levels of health facilities in the public health facilities of Lucknow - the capital city of Uttar Pradesh, a state in north India.

Prescription Guideline

This manual focuses on the process of prescribing. It gives you the tools to think for yourself and not blindly follow what other people think and do. It also enables you to understand why certain national or departmental standard treatment guidelines have been chosen, and teaches you how to make the best use of such guidelines. The manual can be used for self-study, following the systematic approach outlined below, or as part of a formal training course.

Part 1: The process of rational treatment

This overview takes you step by step from problem to solution. Rational treatment requires a logical approach and common sense. After reading this chapter you will know that prescribing a drug is part of a process that includes many other components, such as specifying your therapeutic objective, and informing the patient.

Part 2: Selecting your P-drugs

This section explains the principles of drug selection and how to use them in practice. It teaches you how to choose the drugs that you are going to prescribe regularly and with which you will become familiar, called P(ersonal)-drugs. In this selection process you will have to consult your pharmacology textbook, national formulary, and available national and international treatment guidelines. After you have worked your way through this section you will know how to select a drug for a particular disease or complaint.

Part 3: Treating your patients

This part of the book shows you how to treat a patient. Each step of the process is described in separate chapters. Practical examples illustrate how to select, prescribe and monitor the treatment, and how to communicate effectively with your patients. When you have gone through this material you are ready to put into practice what you have learned.

Part 4: Keeping up-to-date

To become a good doctor, and remain one, you also need to know how to acquire and deal with new information about drugs. This section describes the advantages and disadvantages of different sources of information.

Annexes

The annexes contain a brief refresher course on the basic principles of pharmacology in daily practice, a list of essential references, a set of patient information sheets and a checklist for giving injections.

Drug names

In view of the importance that medical students be taught to use generic names, the International Nonproprietary Names (INNs) of drugs are used throughout the manual.

1.5. Pharmacy practice

Pharmacy practice is the discipline of pharmacy which involves developing the professional roles of pharmacists.

Over the past four decades there has been a trend for pharmacy practice to move away from its original focus on medicine supply towards a more inclusive focus on patient care. The role of the pharmacist has evolved from that of a compounder and supplier of pharmaceutical products towards that of a provider of services and information and ultimately that of a provider of patient care. Increasingly, the pharmacist's task is to ensure that a patient's drug therapy is appropriately indicated, the most effective available, the safest possible, and convenient for the patient. By taking direct responsibility for individual patient's medicine-related needs, pharmacists can make a unique contribution to the outcome of drug therapy and to their patients' quality of life. The new approach has been given the name pharmaceutical care. The most generally accepted definition of this new approach is: "**Pharmaceutical care** is the responsible

provision of drug therapy for the purpose of achieving definite outcomes that improve a patient's quality of life".[15]

In adopting this definition in 1998, the International Pharmaceutical Federation (FIP) added one significant amendment: "achieving definite outcomes that improve or maintain a patient's quality of life". The practice of pharmaceutical care is new, in contrast to what pharmacists have been doing for years. Because pharmacists often fail to assume responsibility for this care, they may not adequately document, monitor and review the care given. Accepting such responsibility is essential to the practice of pharmaceutical care. In order to fulfill this obligation, the pharmacist needs to be able to assume many different functions. The concept of the seven-star pharmacist, introduced by WHO and taken up by FIP in 2000 in its policy statement on Good Pharmacy Education Practice, sees the pharmacist as a caregiver, communicator, decision-maker, teacher, life-long learner, leader and manager. [16]

1.5.1. New Dimensions of Pharmacy Practice

- Pharmaceutical care
- Evidence-based pharmacy
- Meeting patients' needs
- Chronic patient care – HIV/AIDS
- Self-medication
- Quality assurance of pharmaceutical care services
- Clinical pharmacy
- Pharmacovigilance. [15-17]

1.6. Antibiotic Resistance

Antibiotic resistance in respiratory bacteria now poses a serious threat to the mortality gains of recent decades. As in developed countries, widespread use of antibiotics in developing countries has resulted in many bacteria becoming partially or completely resistant to some antibiotics. In developed countries, 75% of antibiotic prescriptions are

useful but most prescriptions are unnecessary. The unnecessary use of antibiotic is expensive and it hastens the development of antibiotic resistance [18].

1.7. Tuberculosis (TB)

Tuberculosis (TB) has deep social and economic roots;[19] it is widespread; currently one-third of the global population is infected;[50] and although treatment of TB is feasible and effective, active TB is lethal in more than 50% of cases when left untreated.[21] In 2004, TB mortality accounted for 1.6 million deaths, mostly in developing countries.[20] Although the disease appeared to have been controlled by the 1980s, TB incidence started to increase again in industrialized countries around 1985.[22] Several interrelated forces drove this resurgence, including increases in prison populations, homelessness, intravenous drug use, and immigration from countries where TB continued to be endemic. Above all, the decline in TB control activities and the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) epidemic were two major factors that worked together to fuel the re-emergence of TB.[23]

Increasing TB incidence rates in the 1990s were reported in the former Soviet Union, former Yugoslavia, and some other countries in Eastern Europe. The lowest incidence in Europe is found in Southern countries and Scandinavia.[24] Increased unemployment, homelessness, alcoholism, HIV transmission, and drug resistance, boost the incidence of TB.[25,26]

1.7.1. Causes of Tuberculosis

The *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* bacterium causes TB. It is spread through the air when a person with TB (whose lungs are affected) coughs, sneezes, spits, laughs, or talks.

TB is contagious, but it is not easy to catch. The chances of catching TB from someone you live or work with are much higher than from a stranger. Most people with active TB who have received appropriate treatment for at least 2 weeks are no longer contagious.

Since antibiotics began to be used to fight TB, some strains have become resistant to drugs. Multidrug-resistant TB (MDR-TB) arises when an antibiotic fails to kill all of the bacteria, with the surviving bacteria developing resistance to that antibiotic and often others at the same time.

MDR-TB is treatable and curable only with the use of very specific anti-TB drugs, which are often limited or not readily available. In 2012, around 450,000 people developed MDR-TB. [27]

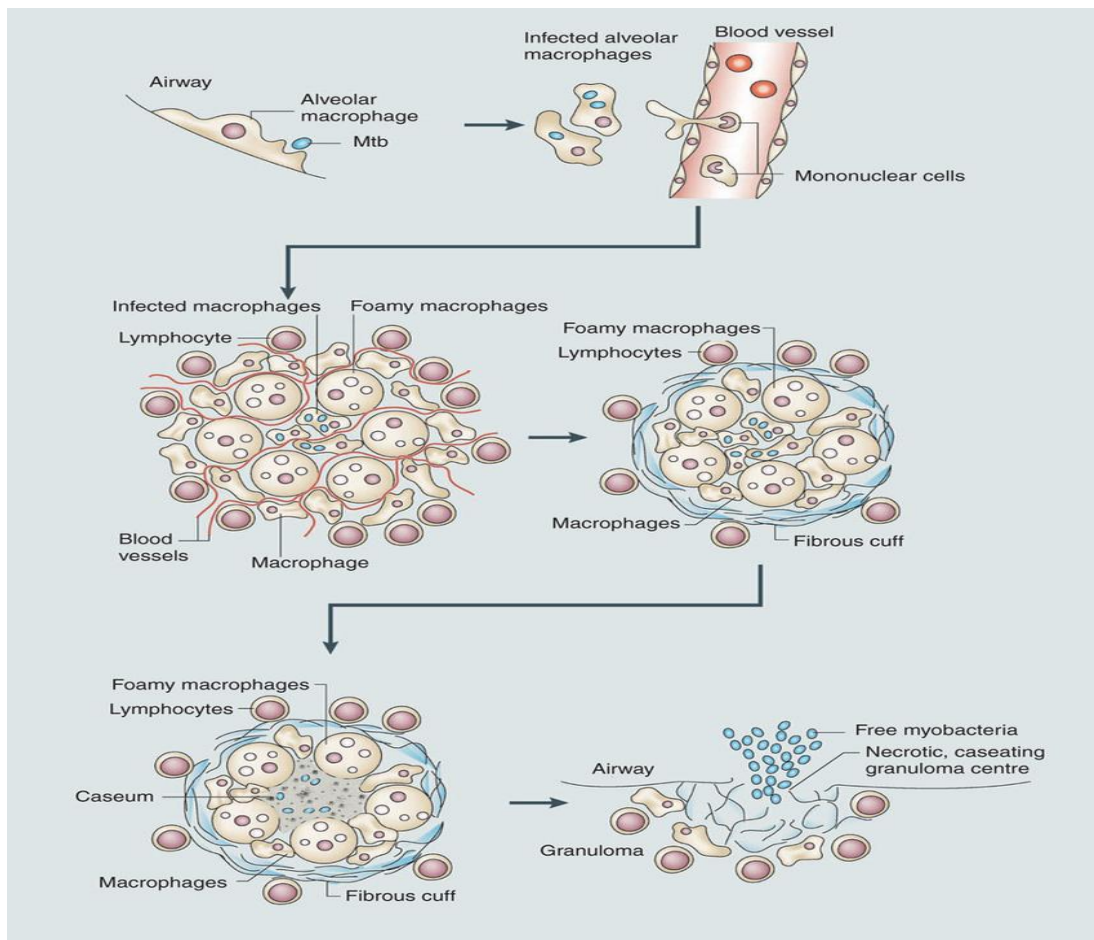


Figure 1c: The progression of human Tuberculosis.

1.7.2. Symptoms of Tuberculosis

While latent TB is symptomless, the symptoms of active TB include the following:

- Coughing, sometimes with mucus or blood
- Chills
- Fatigue
- Fever
- Loss of weight
- Loss of appetite
- Night sweats

Tuberculosis usually affects the lungs, but can also affect other parts of the body. When TB occurs outside of the lungs, the symptoms vary accordingly. Without treatment, TB can spread to other parts of the body through the bloodstream:

- TB infecting the bones can lead to spinal pain and joint destruction
- TB infecting the brain can cause meningitis
- TB infecting the liver and kidneys can impair their waste filtration functions and lead to blood in the urine
- TB infecting the heart can impair the heart's ability to pump blood, resulting in a condition called cardiac tamponade that can be fatal.[27]

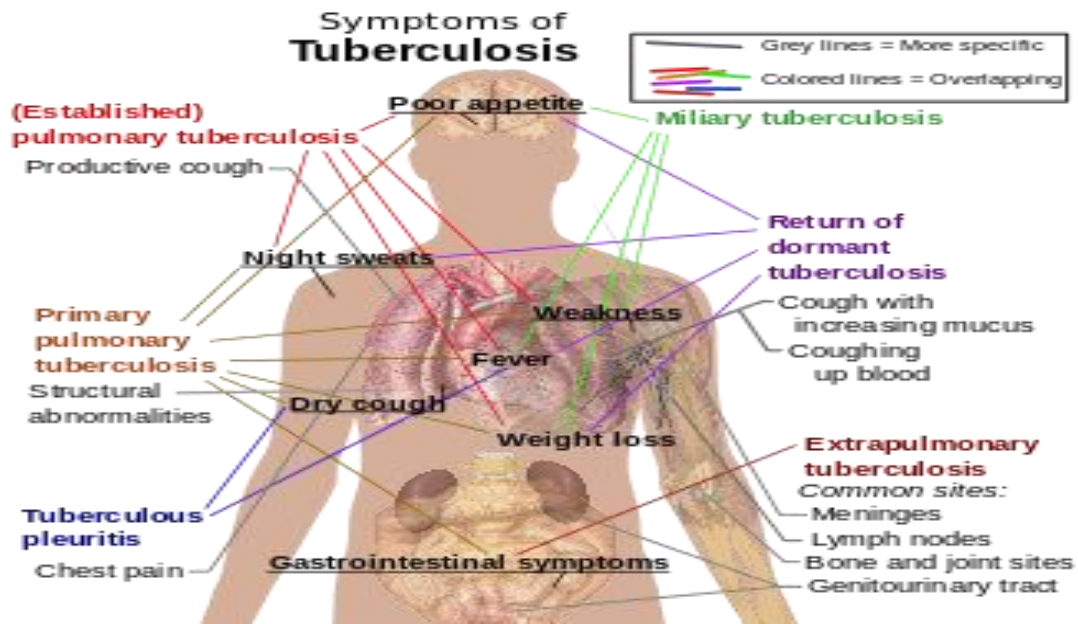


Figure 1d: The symptoms of Tuberculosis

1.7.3. Diagnosis of TB

To check for TB, a doctor will use a stethoscope to listen to the lungs and check for swelling in the lymph nodes. They will also ask about symptoms and medical history as well as assessing the individual's risk of exposure to TB.

The most common diagnostic test for TB is a skin test where a small injection of PPD tuberculin, an extract of the TB bacterium, is made just below the inside forearm.

The injection site should be checked after 2-3 days, and, if a hard, red bump has swollen up to a specific size, then it is likely that TB is present.

Unfortunately, the skin test is not 100 percent accurate and has been known to give incorrect positive and negative readings.

However, there are other tests that are available to diagnose TB. Blood tests, chest X-rays, and sputum tests can all be used to test for the presence of TB bacteria and may be used alongside a skin test.

MDR-TB is more difficult to diagnose than regular TB. It is also difficult to diagnose regular TB in children. [27]

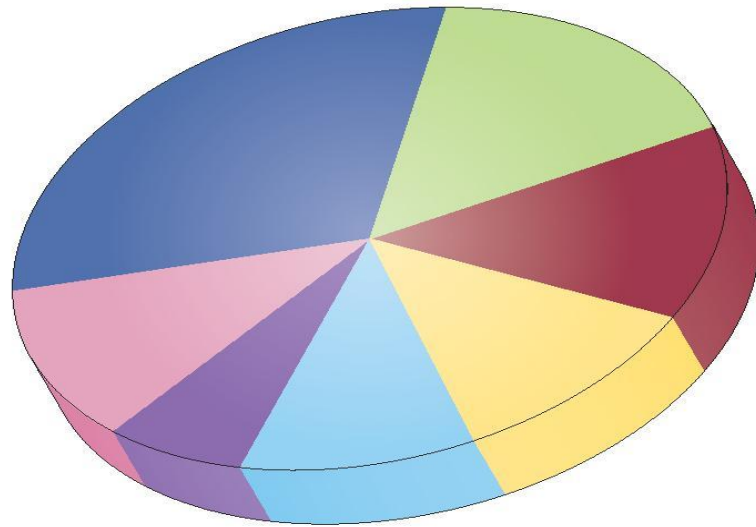
1.7.4. Countries with Higher Tuberculosis Rates

The following countries have the highest TB rates, globally:

- Africa - particularly West African and sub-Saharan Africa
- Afghanistan
- Southeast Asia - including Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, and Indonesia
- China
- Russia
- South America
- Western Pacific region - including the Philippines, Cambodia, and Vietnam [27]

1.7.5. Drugs Use for TB

- Standard TB treatment regimens including INH, rifampin and pyrazinamide [28,29,30]
- Combinations of (Isoniazid + Rifampicin + Ethambutol + Pyrazinamide) daily for 2 months.
- Combinations of (Isoniazid + Rifampicin) three times a week for next 4 months.[31]










- | | |
|--|---|
|  Aventis (now Sanofi-Aventis) |  Pharmacia (now Pfizer) |
|  Novartis |  Companies in India |
|  American Home (now Wyeth) |  Small independent producers |
|  Lupin industries | |

Figure 1e: Anti-TB drug market share within the private market, 1998.

2.1. Mechanism of Tuberculosis in body

2.1.1. Transmission

When people with active pulmonary TB cough, sneeze, speak, sing, or spit, they expel infectious aerosol droplets 0.5 to 5.0 µm in diameter. A single sneeze can release up to 40,000 droplets. Each one of these droplets may transmit the disease, since the infectious dose of tuberculosis is very small, the inhalation of fewer than 10 bacteria may cause an infection.⁵ Transmission should only occur from people with active TB - those with latent infection are not thought to be contagious.

2.1.2. Pathogenesis

Tubercle bacilli that reach the alveoli are ingested by alveolar macrophages. Infection follows if the inoculum escapes alveolar macrophage microbicidal activity. Once infection is established, lymphatic and hematogenous dissemination of tuberculosis typically occurs before the development of an effective immune response. This stage of infection, primary tuberculosis is usually clinically and radiologically silent.

In most persons with intact cell – mediated immunity, T cells and macrophages surround the organisms in granulomas that limit their multiplication and spread. The granuloma prevents dissemination of the mycobacteria and provides a local environment for interaction of cells of the immune system. Bacteria inside the granuloma can become dormant, resulting in latent infection. The infection is contained but not eradicated, since viable organisms may lie dormant within granulomas for years to decades. Individuals with this latent tuberculosis infection do not have active disease and cannot transmit the organism to others. However, reactivation of disease may occur if the host's immune defenses are impaired.

If TB bacteria gain entry to the bloodstream from an area of damaged tissue, they can spread throughout the body and set up many foci of infection, all appearing as tiny, white tubercles in the tissues. This severe form of TB disease, most common in young children and those with HIV, is called military tuberculosis.

2.2. Prevention

Tuberculosis prevention and control efforts primarily rely on the vaccination of infants and the detection and appropriate treatment of active case. The World Health Organization has achieved some success with improved treatment regimens, and a small decrease in case numbers.

2.3. Vaccines

The only currently available vaccine as of 2011 is bacillus Calmette–Guérin (BCG) which, while it is effective against disseminated disease in childhood, confers inconsistent protection against contracting pulmonary TB. Nevertheless, it is the most widely used vaccine worldwide, with more than 90% of all children being vaccinated.

2.4. Management

There are also measures one can take and help protect ourselves and others:

- * Keeping the immune system healthy. Eat plenty of healthy foods including fruits and vegetables; get enough sleep, and exercise at least 30 minutes a day most days of the week to keep your immune system in top form.

- *Get tested regularly. Experts advise people who have a high risk of TB to get a skin test once a year. This includes people with HIV or other conditions that weaken the immune system, people who live or work in a prison or nursing home, healthcare workers, people from countries with high rate of TB and others in high risks group.

- * Consider preventive therapy. If you test positive for latent TB infection, your doctor will likely advise you to take medications to reduce your risk of developing active TB.

- * Vaccination: This is one major preventive measure against TB. A vaccine called BCG does help strengthen the immune system. BCG is particularly effective in children. Discuss BCG vaccination with a doctor and ensure to be vaccinated if there is a need for it.

* Finish your entire course of medication. This is the most important step you can take to protect yourself and others from TB. When you stop treatment early or skip doses, TB bacteria have a chance to develop mutations that allow them to survive the most potent TB drugs. The resulting drug-resistant strains are much more deadly and difficult to treat.

* Report to hospital: If a member of the family or somebody close to you is diagnosed as having active TB, then it is very important to get your family and yourself tested. The earlier it is detected, the better and faster the treatment. The dangerous contact time is before treatment. However, once treatment with drugs starts, the sick person is non-contagious within a few weeks.

To help keep your family and friends from getting ill if you have active TB:

* Stay at home. Avoid going to work or school or sleep in a room with other people during the first few weeks of treatment for active TB. Doctors should be able to issue a sick leave for a certain duration if you work (these are the periods that TB is contagious).

* Ensure adequate ventilation. Open the windows whenever possible to let in fresh air. Avoid going in crowded places. Let there be enough ventilation.

* Practice good hygiene: Wash your body regularly, brush your teeth, wear clean clothes and keep your environment tidy and clean.

* Cover your mouth. It takes two to three weeks of treatment before you're no longer contagious. During that time, be sure to cover your mouth with a tissue any time you laugh, sneeze or cough. Put the dirty tissue in a bag, seal it and throw it away. Also, take adequate measures during the first three weeks of diagnosis and treatment as this will help lessen the risk of transmission, remember it is only you that specifically knows you have TB. After the active phase of TB, you can expect to keep your job, to go to school, to stay with your family, and to lead a normal life. However, you must take your medicine regularly to be sure of a cure and to prevent others from being infected.

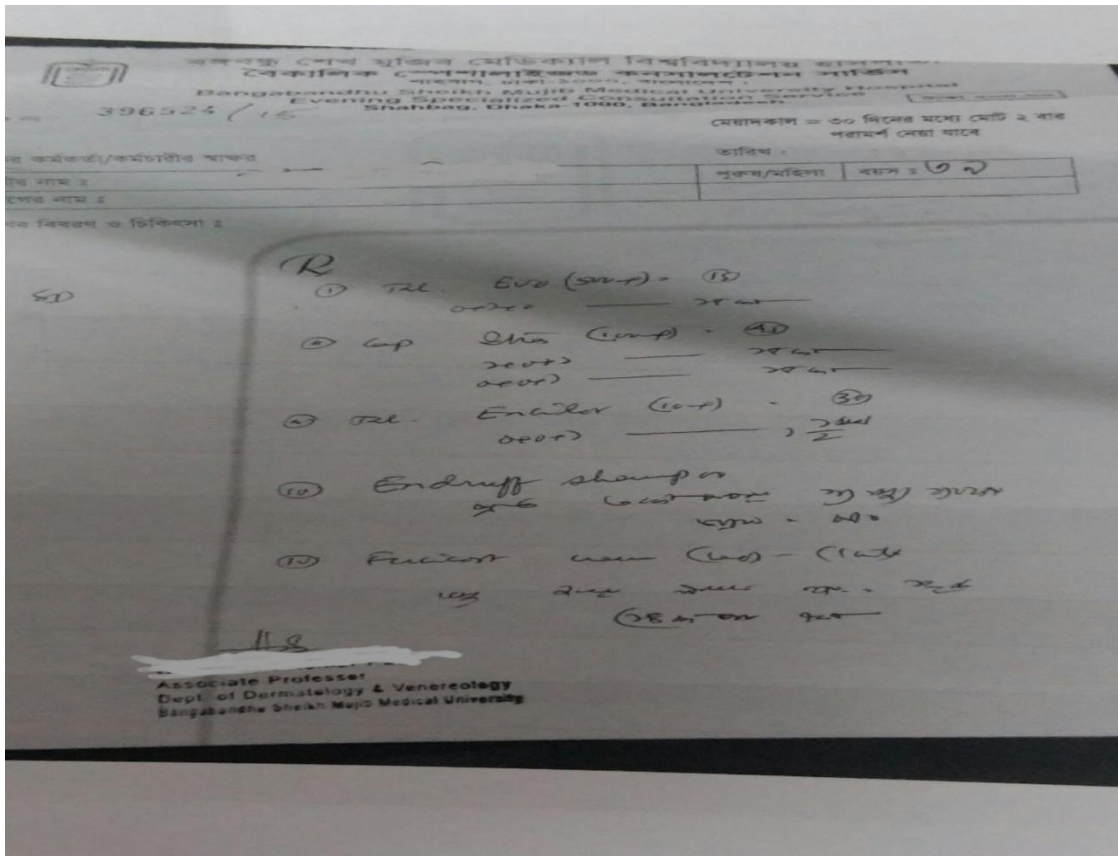


Figure 2b: Sample prescription without having any disease diagnosis history

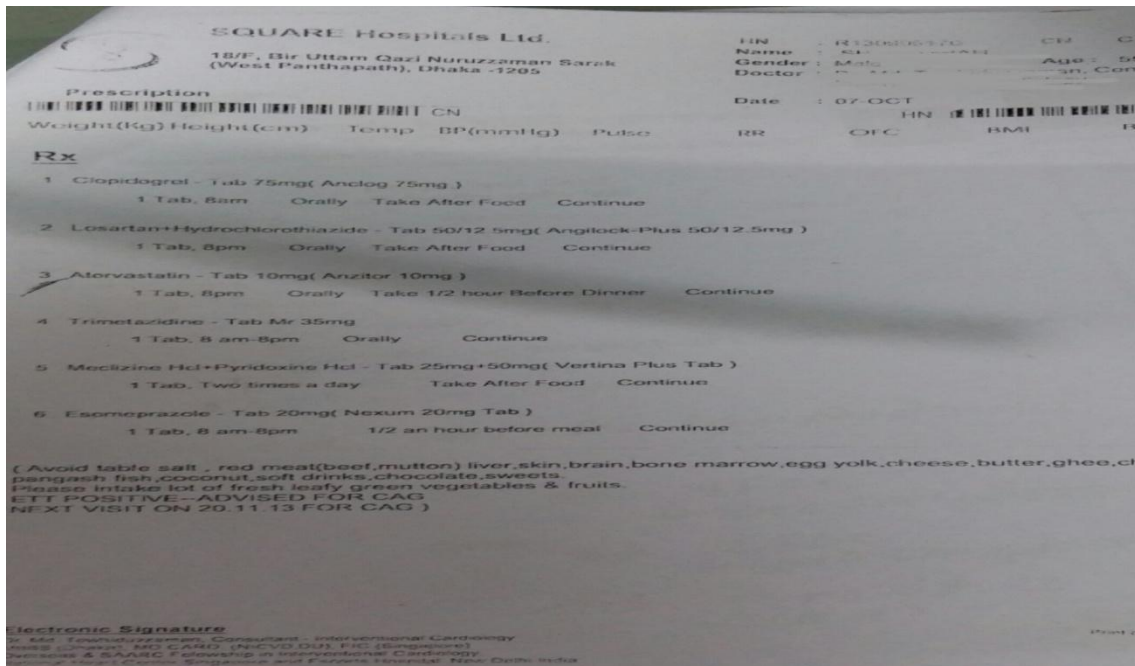


Figure 2c: A sample from a private hospital without having any generic name

2.5.1. Medication or Standard Treatment Guidelines

2.5.1.1. For Normal TB Patient:

The recommended treatment of new-onset pulmonary tuberculosis, as of 2010, is six months of a combination of antibiotics containing rifampicin, isoniazid, pyrazinamide and ethambutol for the first two months, and only rifampicin and isoniazid for the last four months. Where resistance to isoniazid is high, ethambutol may be added for the last four months as an alternative.

Recommended Doses of First Line Antituberculosis Drugs for Adults

	Recommended dose		Daily maximum (mg)
	Daily Dose and range (mg/kg body Drug weight)	3 times per week Maximum (mg)	
Isoniazid (H)	5 (4-6)	300	900
Rifampicin (R)	10 (8-12)	600	600
Pyrazinamide (Z)	25 (20-30)	-	-
Ethambutol (E)	15 (15-20)	-	-
Streptomycin ² (S)	15 (12-18)	-	1000

Regimen for Treatment of TB

Category of cases	Intensive phase	Continuation phase
New cases	2 month of HRZE	4 month of HR
Previously treated cases		
Failure cases (High likelihood of MDR-TB)	Emperical MDR-regimen 6-9 months Regimen to be modified after DST result.	18-24 months
Relapse/Default cases (Medium/low likelihood of MDR-TB)	2 HRZES/1 HRZE/5 HRE Regimen to be modified after DST result.	

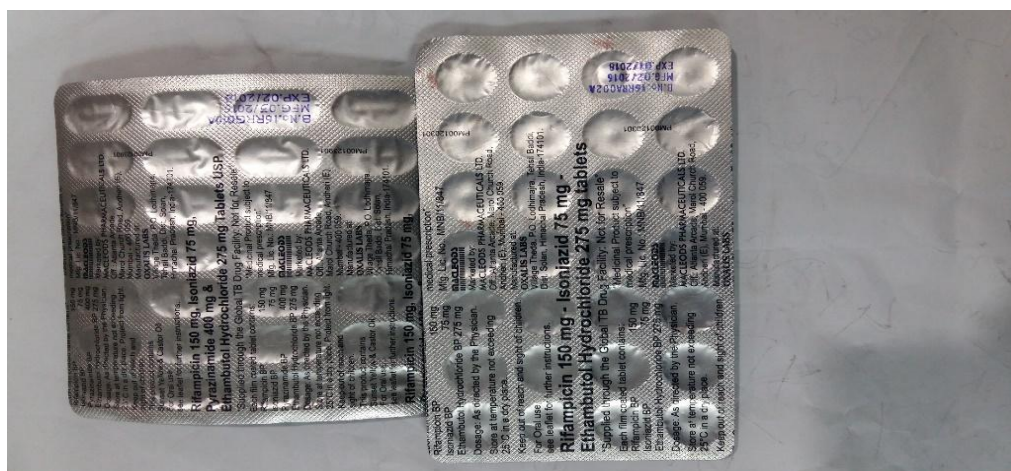


Figure 2d: 3FDC drugs sample (Rif 150mg+Iso 75mg+Etha 275mg), 4FDC drugs sample (Rif 150mg+Iso 75mg+Etha 275mg+Pyra 400mg)

2.5.1.2. For MDR Patient:

There are 5 groups of drugs to treat MDR-TB. Include atleast 4 drug certain to be effective by taking one drug from each group from 1-5 in a heriarchical order.

Group 1: - pyrazinamide (Z)

First-line oral agents - ethambutol (E), rifabutin (Rfb)

Group 2: - kanamycin (Km)

Injectable agents - amikacin (Am), capreomycin (Cm), streptomycin (S)

Group 3: - levofloxacin (Lfx), moxifloxacin (Mfx), ofloxacin (Ofx)

Group 4: - para-aminosalicylic acid (PAS)

Oral bacteriostatic - cycloserine (Cs)

second-line agents - terizidone (Trd), ethionamide (Eto), protionamide (Pto)

Group 5 (3rd line agents) - clofazimine (Cfz),thioridazine, Agents with unclear - linezolid (Lzd)

role in treatment of - amoxicillin/clavulanate (Amx/Clv)

drug resistant-TB - thioacetazone (Thz), imipenem/cilastatin (lpm/Cln), clarithromycin (Clr)

(one oral agent from Gr.1 + one injectable aminoglycoside or polypeptide from Gr.2 + one fluroquinolone (Gr.3) + remaining drug from Gr.4 to complete the regimen. For regimens with fewer than 4 effective drugs consider adding group 5 drugs. Regimen often contain 5 to 7 drug. In India 6 drugs (Pyrazinamide + Ethambutol + Kanamycin + Levofloxacin/ Ofloxacin + Cycloserine + Ethionamide) are given in intensive phase and 4 drugs (Ethambutol + Levofloxacin/Ofloxacin + Ethionamide + Cycloserine) given during continuation phase.

Intensive phase is defined by the duration of treatment with injectable agent. It should be minimum for 6 months and for atleast 4 months after the patient first becomes and

remains smear and culture negative. The continuation phase should continue for minimum of 18 months to 24 months after culture conversion.



Figure 2e: MDR drugs sample (Rif 150mg+Iso 300mg+Etha 400mg+Pyra 400mg+Moxi 400mg)

3.1. Methodology

These ten hospitals are the major hospitals of our country and a good number of patients come to these health facilities daily. As the immune system weakens are the main sufferers due to TB diseases we confounded our research on all the people aged between 0 to 90.

We selected ten teaching hospitals namely as:

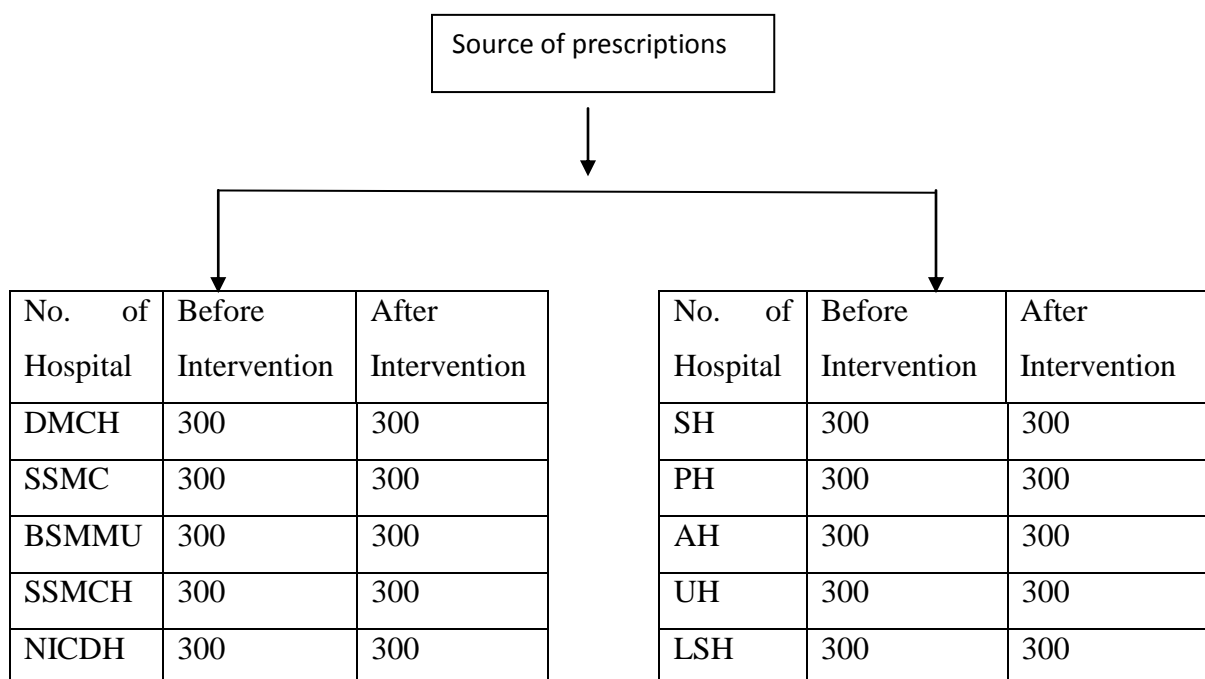
Public Hospitals:

1. Dhaka Medical College Hospital (DMCH) ,
2. Sir Solimullah medical college (SSMC),
3. Bangladesh Sheikh Mujib Medical university (BSMMU),
4. Shoheed Suhorawardy medical college hospital (SSMCH)and
5. National Institute of diseases of the Chest and hospital (NICDH)

Private Hospitals:

1. Square Hospital Ltd (SH),
2. Popular Hospitals (PH),
3. Apollo Hospitals (AH),
4. United Hospitals (UH) and
5. Labaid Specialized Hospitals (LSH)

Table 3A: Diagram for Sources of data collection from Public and Private Hospital



We decided to take 6000 prescriber-patient encounter data (prospective) each from the ten hospitals on the basis of a prepared format (**Annex.-1: Prescribing indicator form**). This format contained the date of prescription, age distribution of the child, number of drugs prescribed, how many of them are generics, number of encounters receiving antibiotics, number of encounters receiving injections, number drugs from the essential drug list and the diagnosis.

ANNEXURE - 2

PATIENT SATISFACTION SURVEY

Adult Patient Existing Health Facility

1. What is the main illness/complaint for which you come here?
fever & cough
2. Is this your first visit to this health facility?
() Yes () No.
3. Were you told the name of your illness today by the person who treated you?
() Yes () No.
If yes: What did the doctor tell you your illness was?

If no: Did you ask the doctor the name of your illness?
() Yes () No.
4. How many drugs were prescribed for you?
4
5. How many drugs did you receive from this facility?
0

Would you please tell me how would you take this drug?

	Name of the Drug	Correct	Incorrect
i.	<u>Syp. Timax</u>	(<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>)	()
ii.	<u>Syp. Alatriol</u>	()	(<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>)
iii.	<u>Tab. Paracetamol</u>	(<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>)	()
iv.	<u>Nystal oral drop</u>	(<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>)	()
v.	_____	()	()

6. How satisfied are you with your care in this facility?
Very Little Little Very
Satis. () Satis. () Dissat. () Dissat. ()

If Dissatisfied: Could you please tell us the reason?

7. Would you visit this health facility again?
() Yes () No.
8. What are your suggestions for improving care in this facility?
Using more advanced technologies to diagnosis patient

Figure 3d: Image of a fill up sample of Annexure 2

We also checked a list (prospective) was used (**Annex.-3: Check List for Clinical Encounter**) for a total of 3000 patients to determine the pattern of encounters they had with their prescribers.

ANNEXURE – 3

Check List for Clinical Encounter

Name of the Health Facility: _____

Time In: Hour_____, Minute_____, Second_____

a. Physician asked about duration of present illness: 1. Yes2. No3. NA

b. Physician took drug history of past illness: 1. Yes2. No3. NA

c. Physician took drug history: 1. Yes2. No 3. NA

d. Physician did physical examination: 1. Done 2. Not Done

Physical examination(s) were: 1. Respiration 2. Temperature 3. Pulse

4. Percussion 5. Jaundice 6. BP

7. Anemia 8. Inspection 9. Palpitation

10. Body Weight

e. Investigation(s) advised: 1. Advised 2. Not advised

f. Instruction about taking drugs: 1. Given 2. Not given 3. NA

g. Drugs from outside: 1. Prescribed 2. Not prescribed 3. NA

h. Instruction about diet: 1. Given 2. Not given

i. Health Education (Counseling): 1. Given 2. Not given

j. Asking for follow-up: 1. Yes 2. No

k. Advised where & how to keep the drug: 1. Given 2. Not given

Time Out: Hour_____, Minute_____, Second_____

Figure 3e: Image of a blank sample of Annexure 3

ANNEXURE - 3

88 sec

Check List for Clinical Encounter

Name of the Health Facility: T. B Hospital

Time In: Hour 17, Minute 19, Second 35

- a. Physician asked about duration of present illness: 1. Yes 2. No 3. NA
 - b. Physician took drug history of past illness: 1. Yes 2. No 3. NA
 - c. Physician took drug history: 1. Yes 2. No 3. NA
 - d. Physician did physical examination: 1. Done 2. Not Done
- Physical examination(s) were: 1. Respiration 2. Temperature 3. Pulse
4. Percussion 5. Jaundice 6. BP
7. Anemia 8. Inspection 9. Palpitation
10. Body Weight
- e. Investigation(s) advised: 1. Advised 2. Not advised
 - f. Instruction about taking drugs: 1. Given 2. Not given 3. NA
 - g. Drugs from outside: 1. Prescribed 2. Not prescribed 3. NA
 - h. Instruction about diet: 1. Given 2. Not given
 - i. Health Education (Counseling): 1. Given 2. Not given
 - j. Asking for follow-up: 1. Yes 2. No
 - k. Advised where & how to keep the drug: 1. Given 2. Not given

Time Out: Hour 17, Minute 21, Second 03

Figure 3f: Image of a fill up sample of Annexure 3

Moreover, drugs cost were also counted (**Annex.-4: Drugs Cost per Encounter during Hospitalization**) for a total 3000 patients to determine the pattern of cost they had with their prescribers.

ANNEXURE – 4

Drugs Cost per Encounter during Hospitalization

Data Collector:

1	2	3	4	5	6
Generic or Brand Name	Dosage Form & Strength	Dispensing Unit	Unit Cost Tk.	Quantity	Total Cost Tk.
				Total Cost of Drugs: Tk.	
				Total Cost of Antibiotics: Tk.	
				Total Cost of Injections: Tk.	

Instructions:
Use one block for each encounter to write the generic or brand name, dosage form and strength, and dispensing unit. Value of each drugs are counted according to company profile.

Figure 3g: Image of a blank sample of Annexure 4

ANNEXURE - 4

Drugs Cost per Encounter during Hospitalization

Data Collector: *Wahida Binte Zahid*

1	2	3	4	5	6
Generic or Brand Name	Dosage Form & Strength	Dispensing Unit	Unit Cost Tk.	Quantity	Total Cost Tk.
<i>Ricofast</i>	<i>Tablet 250mg</i>	<i>1000mg</i>	<i>25</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>500</i>
<i>Sma</i>	<i>Tablet 20mg</i>	<i>40mg</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>60</i>	<i>300</i>
<i>Cef 3-DS</i>	<i>Tablet 200mg</i>	<i>400mg</i>	<i>50</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>500</i>
<i>Spirocand</i>	<i>Tablet 25mg</i>	<i>100mg</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>120</i>	<i>600</i>
<i>Disys</i>	<i>Tablet 80 mg</i>	<i>40mg</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>150</i>
<i>Telukast</i>	<i>Tablet 10mg</i>	<i>10mg</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>30</i>	<i>120</i>
<i>Clogril plus</i>	<i>Tablet</i>		<i>11</i>	<i>30</i>	<i>330</i>
<i>Lipicon</i>	<i>Tablet 20mg</i>	<i>20mg</i>	<i>18</i>	<i>30</i>	<i>540</i>
				Total Cost of Drugs: Tk. <i>3040</i>	
				Total Cost of Antibiotics: Tk. <i>500</i>	
				Total Cost of Injections: Tk. <i>0</i>	

Instructions:

Use one block for each encounter to write the generic or brand name, dosage form and strength, and dispensing unit. Value of each drugs are counted according to company pr

Figure 3h: Image of a fill up sample of Annexure 4

We decided to take another sets of data with same number of samples after an intervention using the same formats and questionnaires.

We took the program as a pilot project, and after analyzing the situation and the success of intervention the program can be expanded gradually from district hospitals to thana health complexes which will create a nationwide effective TB management system.

3.1.1. Data Collection

On the basis of prepared questionnaires we collected data from the outdoor patients. Our points of interest were:

- age of the patients,
- number of drugs per prescription,
- number of drugs prescribed by generic name,
- presence of antibiotics,
- presence of injections,
- number of drugs from EDL(Essential Drug List)
- diagnosis,
- consulting time per patient,
- dispensing time per patient,
- number of drugs dispensed per prescription,
- number of labeled drugs per dispensed drugs,
- number of patients having correct knowledge of dose,
- number of patients having diet education,
- number of patients having health education,
- number of patients asking for follow-up
- number of patients asked for duration of illness, past history or drugs history,
- number of patients undergoing physical examination,
- number of patients satisfied or dissatisfied with the health facility,
- number of patients getting dosing instruction,
- number of patients advised for investigation,
- about patient hearing, was it adequate or fair or little.

3.1.2. Data Entry and data analyzing

After entering the data into the computer and then by using MS OFFICE 97 which is recent version including MS Word and Excel, all the data were analyzed.

3.1.3. Data Presentation

Results are presented in different approaches using pie chart, bar diagram, line diagram, area diagram, cylinder chart, columns and different tables.

3.1.4. Decision Making For Intervention

We collected 3000 prescriptions from Public Medical Hospitals and 3000 prescriptions from Private Medical Hospitals. In these 6000 Prescriptions are collected data have two parts. Those are before intervention and after intervention. In this way we collected before intervention 1500 prescription and after intervention 1500 prescription from Public Hospital. Another 3000 prescription collected in the same way from Private Hospital.

The prescribers from out-door geriatric departments of the ten hospitals were selected for possible interventions. Considering the merits and demerits of the educational, managerial and regulatory strategies of intervention, a combination of these three were planned, as per the design of the earlier international researchers.

Standard treatment guidelines for TB was available with both the prescriber groups . Their education and training also were sufficient to deal with the TB problems. Thus the target group was homogenous. Both the setting was urban and the same city. Both were also government owned.

After examining all the factors an Informal Group Discussion (IGD) was selected as the intervention programme. It was expected that this the prescribers and pharmacists (separately as two target groups) behave in the manner as they did previously. Once the items were identified, remedial interactions became easier. Moreover, the Informal Group Discussion (IGD) are quick, inexpensive and prescribers and pharmacists have been enjoying.

The Informal Group Discussion was designed in such a way that a group of senior physicians and pharmacists, who are teachers, would meet their corresponding colleagues to exchange ideas about the scientific approaches, feelings and beliefs.

3.2. Methodology

3.2.1. Physician-Physician IGD

Senior medical teachers initiated a moderated informal discussion about TB treatment and updated information about the topic was provided. 6-8 geriatric prescribers in 2 groups separately in ten hospitals attend this.

This was done during the mid-day break and each lasted for about 2 hours. The conversation was no recorded and no other personnel other than the selected teachers and prescribers were allowed to attend. The points for discussion were pre-distributed amongst the teachers.

Measures were taken so that there was one moderator amongst the teachers and everyone participated in the discussion focused and in-depth lively discussion was held. In both the hospitals, the venue was one of the senior physician's office rooms.

Thus a mixed educational, managerial and regulatory strategy was follow for this intervention.

3.2.2. Pharmacist-Pharmacist IGD

The pharmacist in charge of the hospital dispensaries were likewise invited to attend the other sessions of Informal Group Discussion in the same premise after the working hours. Senior pharmacy teachers were present in the session as moderates and in each session 4-5 diploma pharmacists attending the dispensaries were present. The session 4-5 diploma lasted for 2 hours each.

These informal sessions discussed the situation the situation of drug supply and stocks. The need for dispensing with separate packaging, separate labeling, making the patient understand the right dose, timing schedule and safe keeping in the household.

The conversations were not recorded and any other personnel were not allowed. Every participant shared the informal discussion and discussion points were pre-distributed amongst the teachers.

Thus the pharmacist-pharmacist Informal Group Discussion was mixed educational, managerial and regulatory strategy for this homogeneous group.

Both the type of IGDs was all participated and the moderators skillfully conducted the sessions. None distorted or exaggerated the feelings of the participants and no one dominated the discussions also.

Thus the methodology for intervention reflected and accommodated the scopes strengths and weakness of the intervention strategy.

3.3. Post-Intervention Study

3.3.1. Preparation

After an informal intervention with the prescribers and pharmacists, there was another survey two weeks later. Another set of data with the same number of samples after the intervention using the same formats and questionnaires were collected.

3.3.2. Methodology

The methodology used for post-intervention study was the same as used for the pre-intervention study as stated in the section 3.1.2. The factors considered and the sample sizes were also the same.

3.3.3. Data Collection

Data were collected using the same framework and questionnaires on the same points previously stated on section 3.1.3.

3.3.4. Data Entry and Data Analyzing

Data were entered in computer and analyzed the data using the same MS OFFICE 97 Programme.

3.3.5. Data Presentation

Different types of charts (pie, line, column, bar, area etc) and tables were used to present the post post-intervention findings.

4. Results and Discussion

Various major finding and parameters regarding prescription patterns are demonstrated in tables and respective graphs below:

4.1. Age Distribution of TB Patients

It was seen that all patients regardless the age limit are the most common victims of TB. However, all age groups are at risk. But In both Public and Private sectors 32% and 33% of the total patients less than 4 years of age, and the percentage of the patients greater than of age range of 35 years are most prone to TB. Age from 4 to 18 years in both public hospitals and private hospitals are quite low that is 18% and 22% respectively. Similarly age from 18 to 35 years in public sector who is suffering from TB is 15% which is low than the private sectors having 22% TB patients. This is shown in the following Table 4.1A and Figure 4.1a.

Table 4.1.A: Age Distribution of TB Patients

	Less than 4 years	4-18 years	18-35 years	35 years above
Public Sector	32%	18%	15%	36%
Private Sector	33%	22%	22%	25%

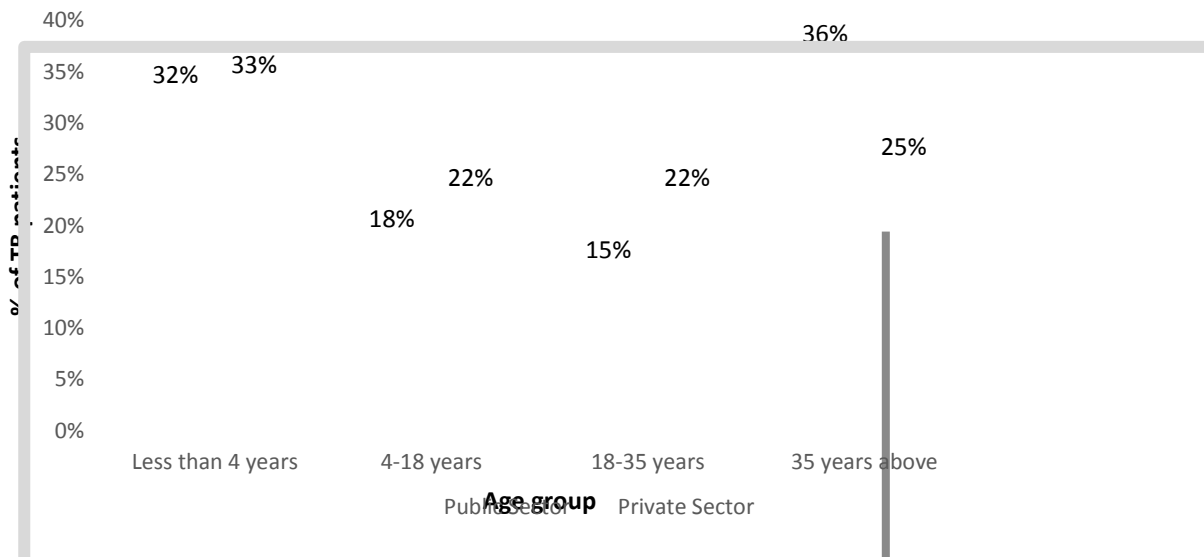


Figure 4.1.a: % Age Distribution of TB Patient

4.2. TB Treatment Pattern by Age Group

Different groups of drugs are prescribed for TB Patients. WHO and UNDP financed recommended drug regimen* is used as well as some other antibiotics, analgesics & antipyretic and bronchodilators are also used depending on patients disease condition. Beside this some sorts of antihistamines, vitamins and minerals are also prescribed. In Public sector patient less than 4 years having a number of 1526 antibiotics prescribed which is lower than private sector (drug number 1780) because high number of antibiotic prescribed in private sector before intervention. After intervention antibiotics prescribed become lower than before intervention. Among other drugs bronchodilators and Vitamins and Minerals occupy the second and third highest position respectively for prescribing. The treatment pattern of different age groups regarding before and after intervention and number of total drugs are for both public and private sectors are showed in Table 4.2A, 4.2B, 4.2C, 4.2D and in Figure 4.2a, 4.2b, 4.2c, 4.2d. It was seen that after intervention total number of drugs is slightly decreased both in public and private sectors.

**Table 4.2.A: TB Treatment Pattern by Age Group in Public Sector (Before Intervention)
(n=1500)**

	Less than 4 years	4-18 years	18-35 years	More than 35 years	Total
Antibiotics	1526	850	756	1304	4436
Antipyretics & Analgesics	457	106	117	226	906
Bronchodilators	497	200	150	301	1148
Vitamins & Minerals	377	198	158	250	983
Others	256	157	112	198	723

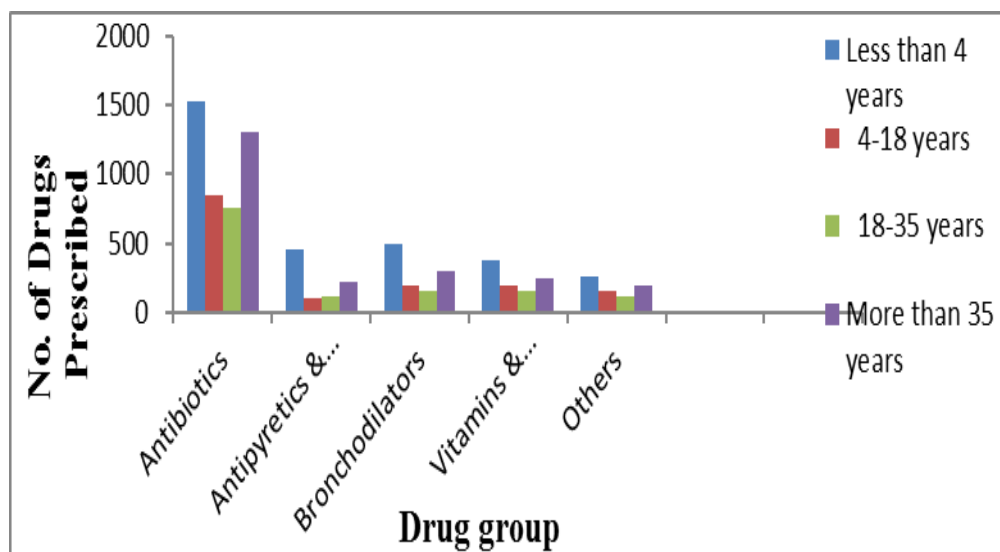


Figure 4.2.a: Tuberculosis Treatment Pattern by Age Group in Public Sector before Intervention (n=1500)

* 3FDC drugs sample (Rif 150mg+Iso 75mg+Etha 275mg), 4FDC drugs sample (Rif 150mg+Iso 75mg+Etha 275mg+Pyra 400mg), MDR drugs sample (Rif 150mg+Iso 300mg+Etha 400mg+Pyra 400mg+Moxi 400mg).

Table 4.2.B: Tuberculosis Treatment Pattern by Age Group in Public Sector after Intervention (n=1500)

	Less than 4 years	4-18 years	18-35 years	More than 35 years	Total
Antibiotics	1303	733	668	1180	3884
Antipyretics& Analgesics	301	180	160	300	941
Bronchodilators	172	177	120	207	676
Vitamins& Minerals	209	179	139	198	725
Others	111	115	91	110	427

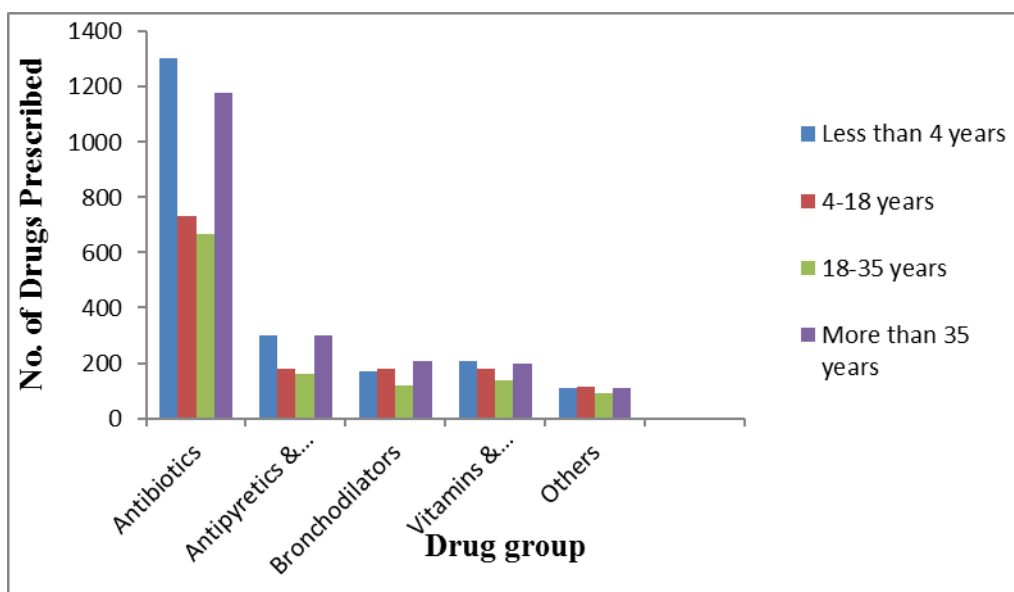


Figure 4.2.b: Tuberculosis Treatment Pattern by Age Group in Public Sector after Intervention (n=1500)

Table 4.2.C: Tuberculosis Treatment Pattern by Age Group in Private Sector before Intervention (n=1500)

	Less than 4 years	4-18 years	18-35 years	More than 35 years	Total
Antibiotics	1780	1204	1368	1598	5950
Antipyretics & Analgesics	577	283	290	370	1520
Bronchodilators	505	256	209	322	1292
Vitamins & Minerals	411	268	258	359	1296
Others	288	211	270	199	968

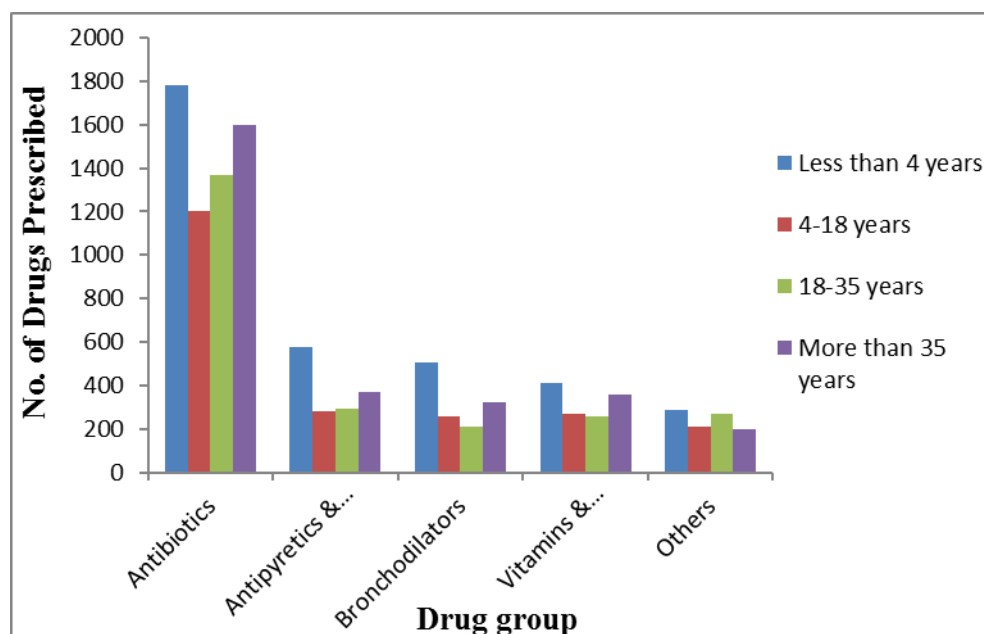


Figure 4.2.c: Tuberculosis Treatment Pattern by Age Group in Private Sector before Intervention (n=1500)

Table 4.2.D: Tuberculosis Treatment Pattern by Age Group in Private Sector after Intervention (n=1500)

	Less than 4 years	4-18 years	18-35 years	More than 35 years	Total
Antibiotics	1688	1103	1298	1478	5567
Antipyretics & Analgesics	412	280	331	370	1393
Bronchodilators	459	379	251	273	1368
Vitamins & Minerals	398	259	281	258	1187
Others	273	201	228	201	983

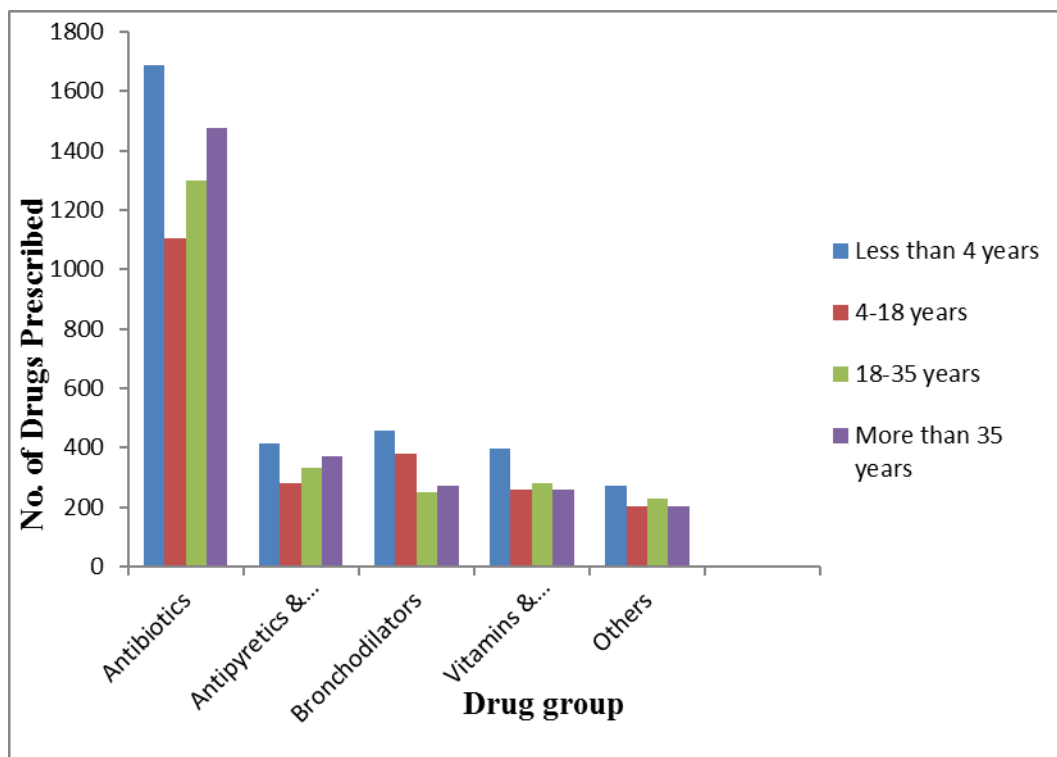


Figure 4.2.d: Tuberculosis Treatment Pattern by Age Group in Private Sector after Intervention (n=1500)

4.3. Number of Drugs per Case of TB by Age Groups

The total number of patients of less than age of 4 years, 4 to 18 years, 18 to 35 years and more than 35 years was 0% for using of 'no drug, 'one drug' 'two drugs' ' three drugs' are zero percentage for TB treatment for before and after intervention.

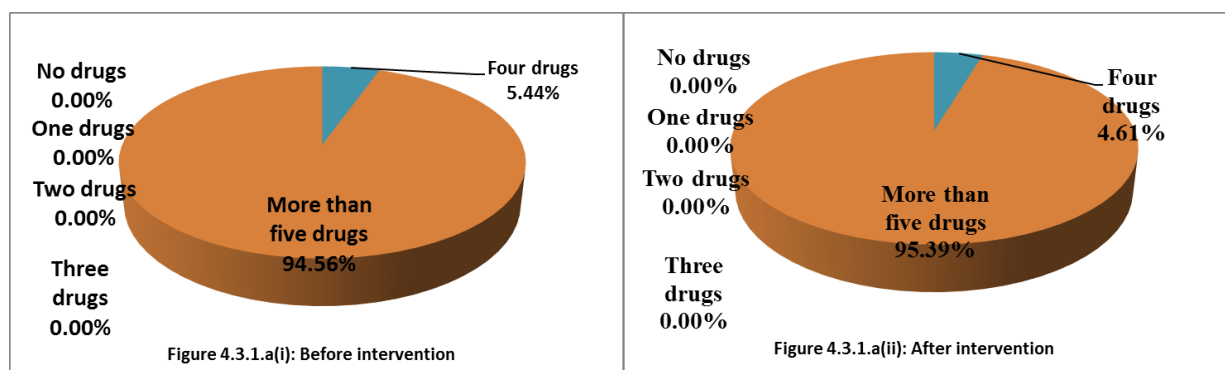
All data have been indicated both in tables and graphs showed Tables 4.3.1A, 4.3.2A, 4.3.3A, 4.3.4A, 4.3.5A, 4.3.6A, 4.3.7A, 4.3.8A and Figures 4.3.1a(i), 4.3.1a(ii), 4.3.2a(i), 4.3.2a(ii), 4.3.3a(i),4.3.3a(ii), 4.3.4a(i), 4.3.4a(ii), 4.3.5a(i), 4.3.5a(ii), 4.3.6a(i), 4.3.6a(ii), 4.3.7a(i), 4.3.7a(ii), 4.3.8a(i), 4.3.8a(ii).

4.3.1. Less than 4 years of age in public sector

In public sectors only 5% patients having less than 4 years received “4 drugs” and 94% patient received “5 or more than 5 drugs” before intervention. After intervention, it is decreased to 4% and 93% respectively which is shown in **Table 4.3.1A**. And **Figure 4.3.1a**.

Table 4.3.1A: Number of drugs per case of Tuberculosis by age group less than 4 years in public sector

	Before intervention		After intervention	
	No. of case	Percentage %	No. of case	Percentage
No drugs	0	0	0	0
One drugs	0	0	0	0
Two drugs	0	0	0	0
Three drugs	0	0	0	0
Four drugs	27	5.44	21	4.61
More than five drugs	469	94.56	435	95.39

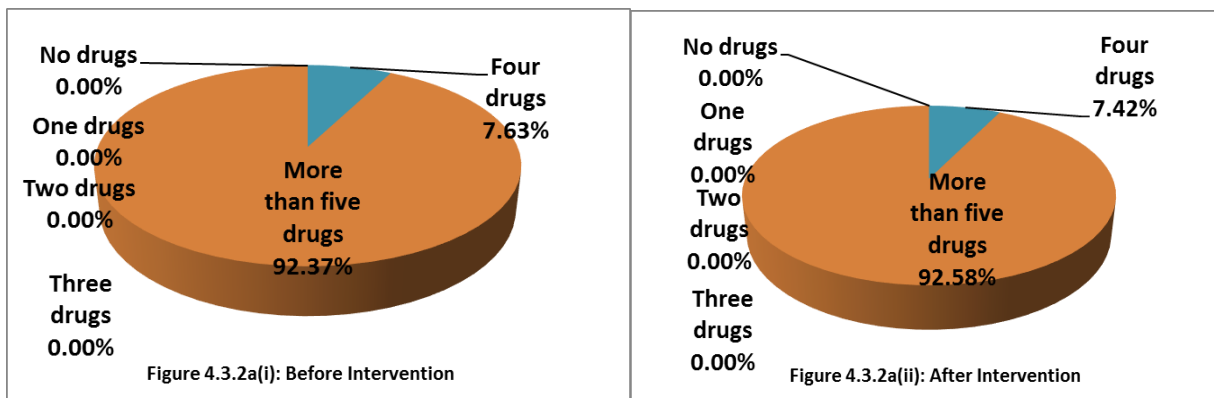


4.3.2. Less than 18 years of age public sector

In public health care sectors the tendencies of receiving multiple numbers of drugs in patients having less than 18 years are shown In **Table 4.3.2A:** and **Figure 4.3.2a.** It was seen that before intervention and after intervention patient having “4 drugs” is 7%. Surprisingly there is no change after intervention of those patients received “5 or more than 5 drugs” and it was 92%.

Table 4.3.2A: Number of drugs per case of Tuberculosis by age group less than 18 years in public sector

	Before intervention		After intervention	
	No. of case	Percentage %	No. of case	Percentage
No drugs	0	0	0	0
One drugs	0	0	0	0
Two drugs	0	0	0	0
Three drugs	0	0	0	0
Four drugs	19	7.63	21	7.42
More than five drugs	230	92.37	262	92.58

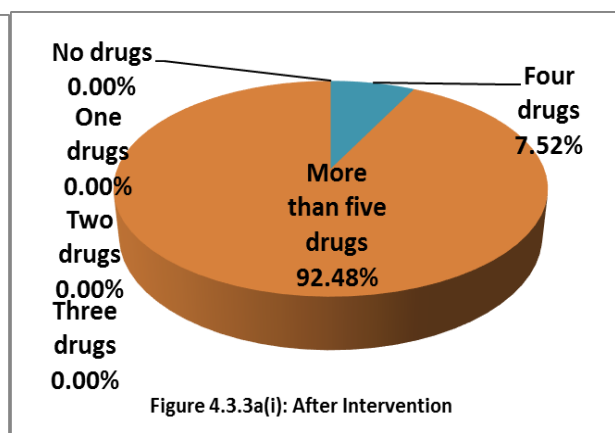
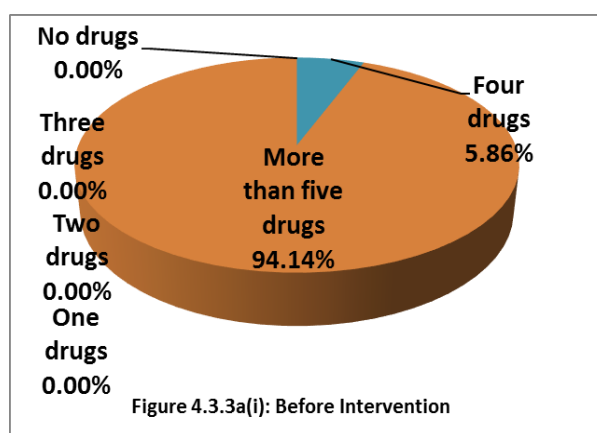


4.3.3. Less than 35 years of age public sector

There is no significant change in prescribing of number of drugs per prescription in public sectors before and after intervention. It has been assessed that patients receiving “4 drugs” after intervention is 5% and before intervention it was 7%. Patients consumed “5 or more than five drug” is 95% before intervention and 92% after intervention.

Table 4.3.3A: Number of drugs per case of TB by age group less than 35 years in Public Sector

	Before intervention		After intervention	
	No. of case	Percentage	No. of case	Percentage
No drugs	0	0%	0	0%
One drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Two drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Three drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Four drugs	13	5.86%	17	7.52%
More than five drugs	209	94.14%	209	92.48%

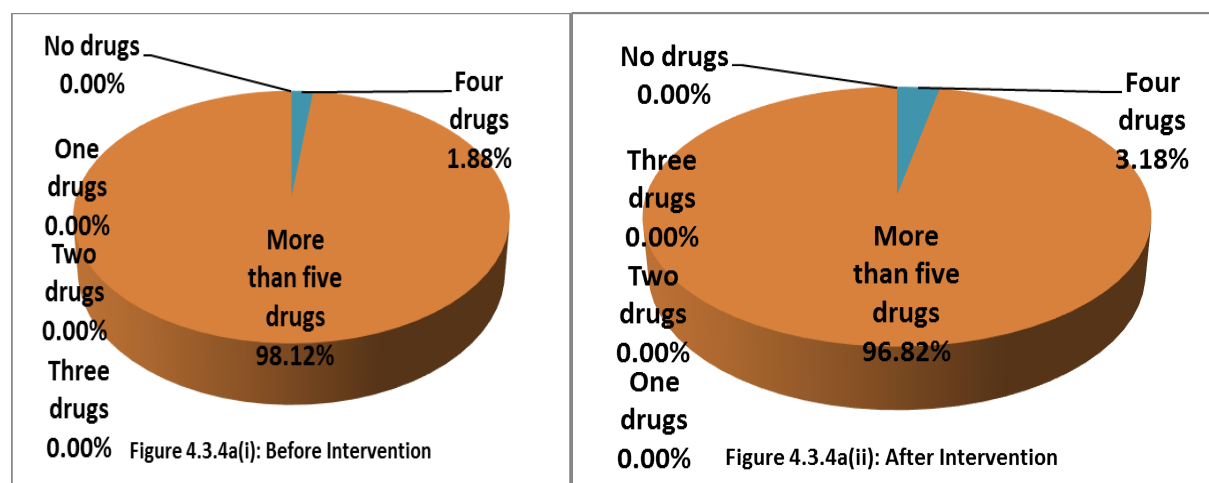


4.3.4. More than 35 years of age public sector

Patients having TB age more than 35 years intake “4 drugs” before intervention is 2% which showed slight increase and it was 3% after intervention. In case of “5 or more than 5 drugs” it was 90% and 97% before and after intervention respectively.

Table 4.3.4A: Number of drugs per case of TB by age group more than 35 years in Public Sector

	Before intervention		After intervention	
	No. of case	Percentage	No. of case	Percentage
No drugs	0		0	0%
One drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Two drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Three drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Four drugs	10	1.88%	17	3.18%
More than five drugs	523	98.12%	518	96.82%

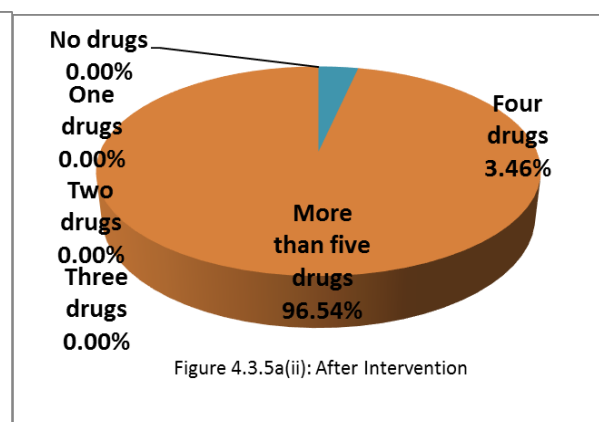
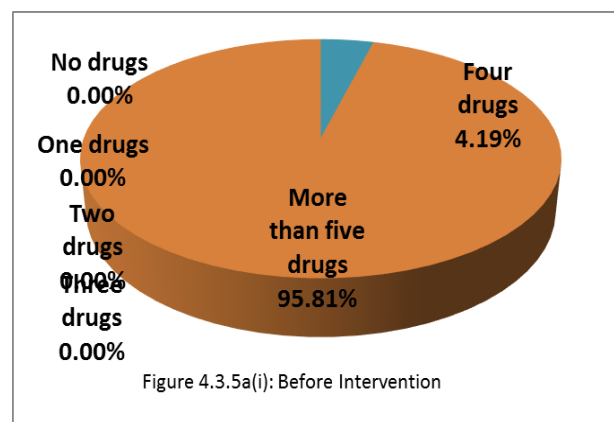


4.3.5. Less Than 4 years in Private Sector

Patients having less than 4 years received 5% of “4 drugs” regimen before intervention and it decreased by 1% after intervention. But In case of “5 or more drugs” majority drugs has been consumed by patients that is 95% and after intervention it showed the same manner as it occurred in case of “4 drugs”.

Table 4.3.5A: Number of drugs per case of TB by age group less than 4 years in Private Sector

	Before intervention		After intervention	
	No. of case	Percentage	No. of case	Percentage
No drugs	0	0%	0	0%
One drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Two drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Three drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Four drugs	21	4.19%	17	3.46%
More than five drugs	480	95.81%	475	96.54%

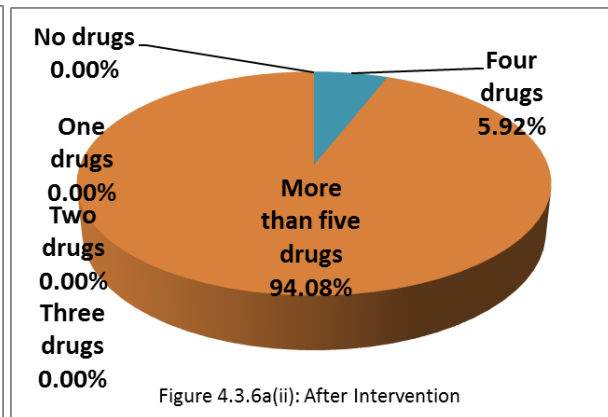
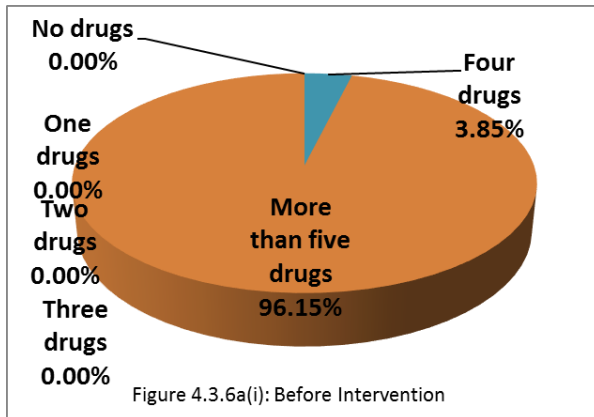


4.3.6. Less than 18 years of age private sector

In case of less than 18 years a bit increase occurred. 4% drugs are prescribed in case of “4 drugs” and after intervention there is a jump of 2%. In case of “5 or more than five drugs” there are dissimilarities. Here before intervention the percentage of drugs prescribes is 96 which after intervention not improved rather it exhibit a reduction by 2%.

Table 4.3.6A: Number of drugs per case of TB by age group less than 18 years in Private Sector

	Before intervention		After intervention	
	No. of case	Percentage	No. of case	Percentage
No drugs	0	0%	0	0%
One drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Two drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Three drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Four drugs	12	3.85%	19	5.92%
More than five drugs	300	96.15%	302	94.08%

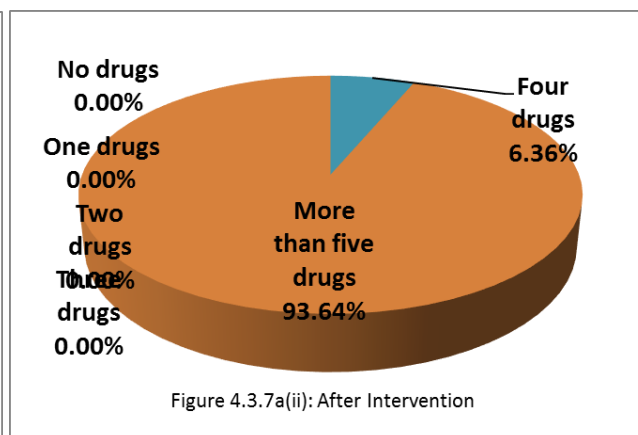
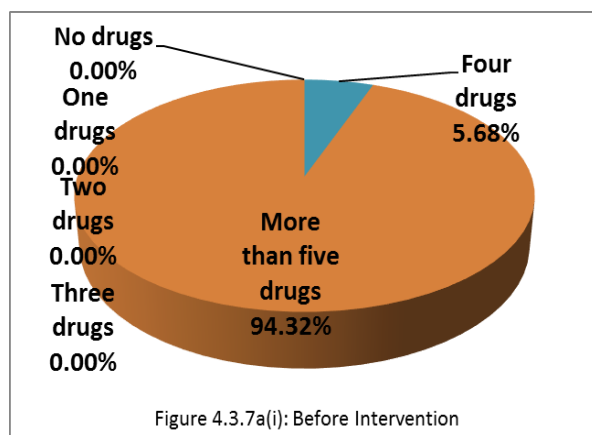


4.3.7. Less than 35 years of age private sector

Both in two cases that is “4 drugs” and “5 or more drugs” exhibited the same percentage of growth after intervention and it was 1%.

Table 4.3.7A: Number of drugs per case of TB by age group less than 35 years in Private Sector

	Before intervention		After intervention	
	No. of case	Percentage	No. of case	Percentage
No drugs	0	0%	0	0%
One drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Two drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Three drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Four drugs	18	5.68%	21	6.36%
More than five drugs	299	94.32%	309	93.64%

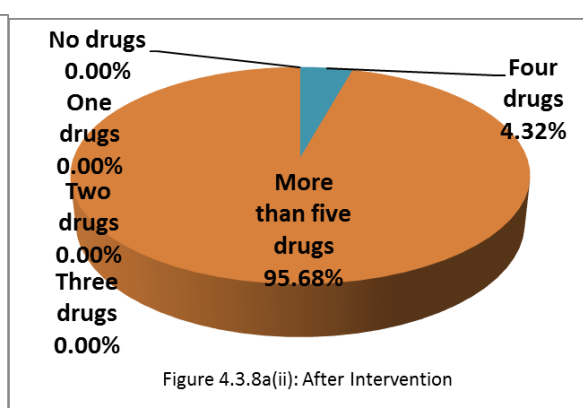
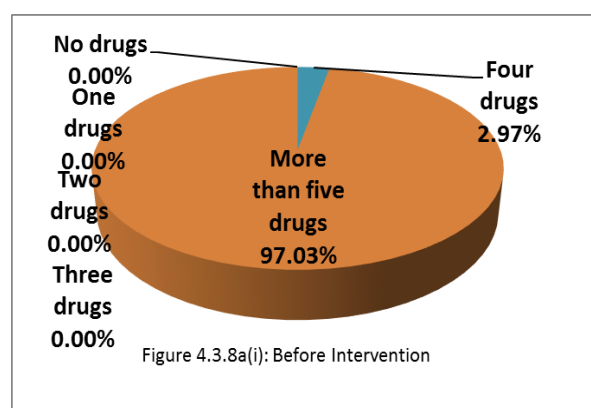


4.3.8. More than 35 years of age private sector

In private sectors, the patients having age greater than 35 receiving “4 drugs” before intervention the percentage of number of drugs is 3% and after intervention it showed a leap of 3%. But patients receiving “5 or more than 5 drugs” showed a percentage of 97% but after intervention the percentage is 94.

Table 4.3.8A: Number of drugs per case of TB by age group more than 35 years in Private Sector

	Before intervention		After intervention	
	No. of case	Percentage	No. of case	Percentage
No drugs	0	0%	0	0%
One drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Two drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Three drugs	0	0%	0	0%
Four drugs	11	2.97%	18	4.32%
More than five drugs	359	97.03%	399	95.68%



4.4. Average Number of Antibiotics Received by Age Group of Patients in Public Sectors

Before intervention, average number of antibiotics consumed by children in public sectors under 4 years and >35 years was 3.7 and 2.4 respectively. Similarly patients with age range 4-<18years and 18-35years intake same average number of drugs and it is 3.4 before intervention. This value decreased to an average number of 2.85 and 2.2 after the intervention for less than 4 years and greater than 35 years of patients. For children less than 4 years of age the average number of drugs per prescription is high. This is shown in Table 4.4A, 4.4B and Figure 4.4a and 4.4b

Table 4.4.A: Average number of antibiotics received by Age Group of patients in public sectors

	Less than 4 years		4-18 years		18-35 years		35 years above	
	Total Cases	Antibiotics	Total cases	Antibiotics	Total Cases	Antibiotics	Total Cases	Antibiotics
Before Intervention	496	1526	249	850	2.22	756	533	1304
Average Number of antibiotic per prescription		3.7		3.41		3.4		2.44
After Intervention	456	1303	283	733	2.26	668	535	1180
Average Number of antibiotic per prescription		2.85		2.56		2.95		2.20

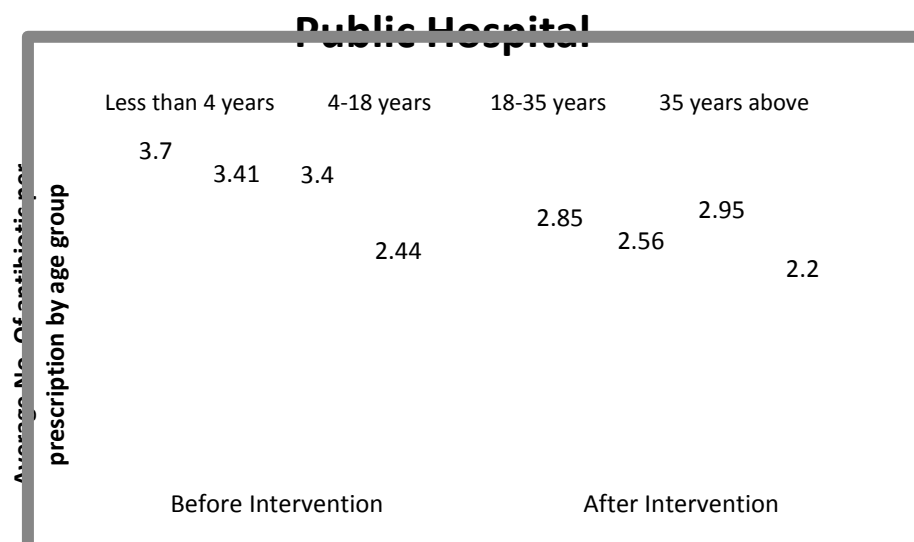


Figure 4.4a: Average Number of antibiotic per prescription before and after intervention in public sectors by age group

Table 4.4B: Average number of antibiotics received by Age Group of various patients in private sectors

	Less than 4 years		4-18 years		18-35 years		35 years above	
	Total Cases	Antibiotics	Total cases	Antibiotics	Total Cases	Antibiotics	Total Cases	Antibiotics
Before Intervention	501	1780	312	1204	317	1368	370	1598
Number of drugs per prescription		3.55		3.85		4.31		4.31
After Intervention	492	1688	321	1103	330	1298	357	1478
Number of drugs per prescription		3.43		3.43		3.93		4.14

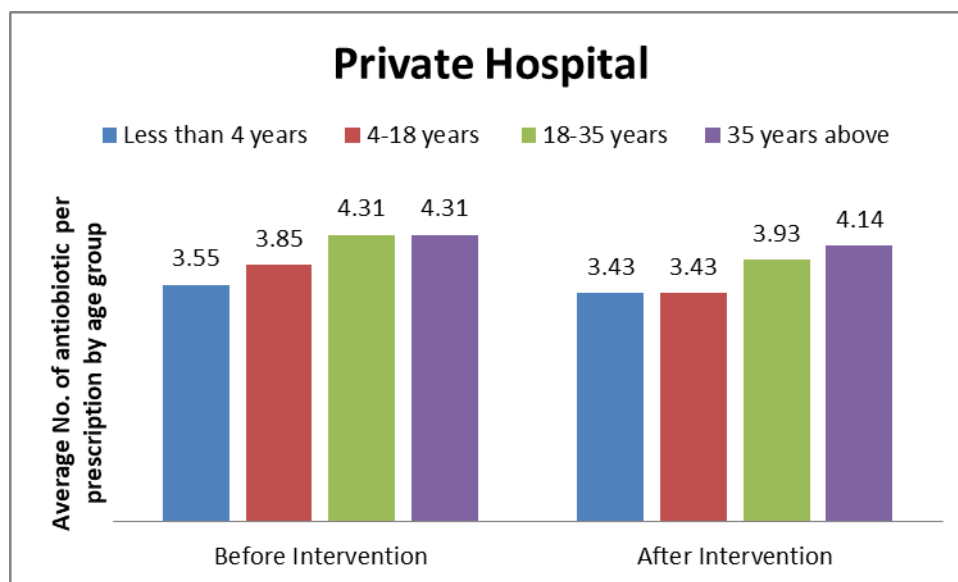


Figure 4.4b: Average Number of antibiotic per prescription before and after intervention in private sectors by age group

4.5. Improvement of Average Number of Drugs after Encounter in TB Treatment both in Public and Private Sectors

In Public sector, total number of drugs prescribe before intervention is 8196 and after intervention 6653. In Private sector total number of drugs written on prescription before intervention is 11026 and after intervention 10498. Here it is shown that more number of drugs prescribed in private sector rather than public sector. But after intervention the number of drug is reduced by 18 % in public sectors and 5% in private sectors.

Table 4.5.A: Improvement of average number of drugs after encounter in TB treatment both in Public and Private sectors

Public Sector		Private Sector	
Total Number of Drugs Before Intervention	Total Number of Drugs After Intervention	Total Number of Drugs Before Intervention	Total Number of Drugs After Intervention
8196	6653	11026	10498
Total reduced	18%		5%

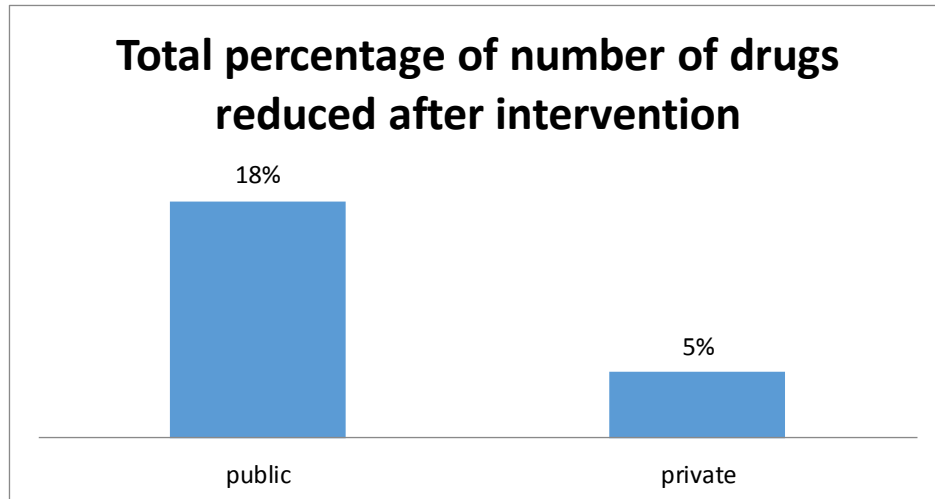


Figure 4.5.a: Total % of number of drugs reduced after intervention

4.6. Average Number of Antibiotic per Prescription Before and After Intervention both in Public and Private Sectors

The table shows that percentage of use of antibiotics in Public sectors was less than in Private sector. It was 2.95 in Public whereas in Private sector it was 3.97 before intervention. After intervention, average number of antibiotic reduction both in public and private sectors are 2.58 and 3.71 respectively. It is reflected in Table 4.6A and Figure 4.6a.

Table 4.6.A: Average number of antibiotic per prescription before and after intervention both in public and private sectors.

Public Sector			Private Sector		
Antibiotic Before Intervention	2.95		Antibiotic Before Intervention	3.97	
Antibiotic After Intervention	2.58		Antibiotic After Intervention	3.71	

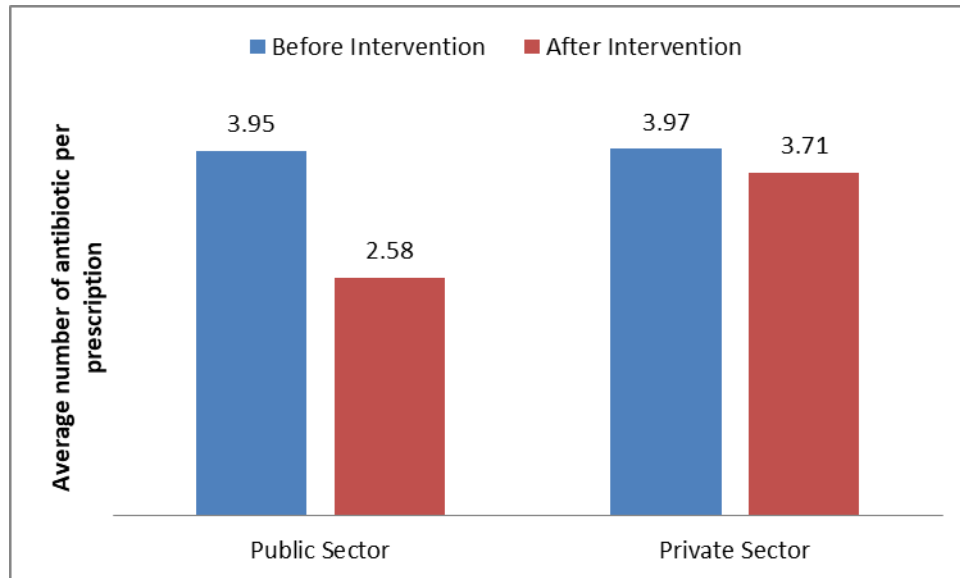


Figure 4.6a: Average number of antibiotic received by patient before and after intervention both in public and private sectors.

4.7. Check List for Clinical Encounter both in Public and Private Sector in the Treatment of TB

In public sector more than 69% do not ask about duration of present illness where as it is bit less here in private sectors and it was 62%.

Physicians do not take any history of 82% patients' past illness in private sectors but in private sectors it is not so improved and it was 70 %.

Only 2% patient got the opportunity to tell their previously taken drug history in public sectors where as in private sectors it is only 4%.

Only 4% patient got investigation advice in public sectors and this situation is comparative good in private sectors, where 33% patients get advice.

64% patients do not get any instruction regarding taking the drugs in public sectors, where as in private sectors 52% patients get instruction.

Comparatively private sector is more careful to the patients than public sector.

Table 4.7.A: Check list for clinical encounter both in Public and Private sector in the treatment of TB

Indication	Public Sector			Private Sector		
	Yes	No	Not Applicable	Yes	No	Not Applicable
Asking about duration of present illness	36%	69%	2%	41%	62%	0%
Taking history of past illness	3%	82%	15%	21%	70%	9%
Taking previous drug history	2%	92%	6%	4%	90%	6%
Investigation advised	4%	96%		33%	67%	
Instruction about taking drugs	36%	64%		52%	20%	26%
Instruction about diet	3%	97%		46%	3%	49%

4.8. Patient Satisfaction and Percentage of Patients' Satisfaction Inquiry of TB Treatment

In private sector 33% patients showed very satisfaction to the treatment pattern where as in public very high satisfied patient is only 10%. is higher than public sector 10%. Dissatisfaction is also very less (only 5%) in private than public sector where it is 12%. 73% patient is little satisfied in public sectors on the other hand 55% patient of private sectors shows the same tendency. But private sectors serve the patient better than public sectors.

Table 4.8.A: Percentage of patient satisfaction data TB treatment

Patient Satisfaction Percentage	Public Sector				Private Sector			
	Very Satisfied (vl)	Little Stisfied (I)	Little Dissatisfied (Id)	Very Dissatisfied (vd)	Very Satisfied (vl)	Little Stisfied (l)	Little Dissatisfied (ld)	Very Dissatisfied (vd)
	10%	73%	5%	12%	33%	50%	12%	5%

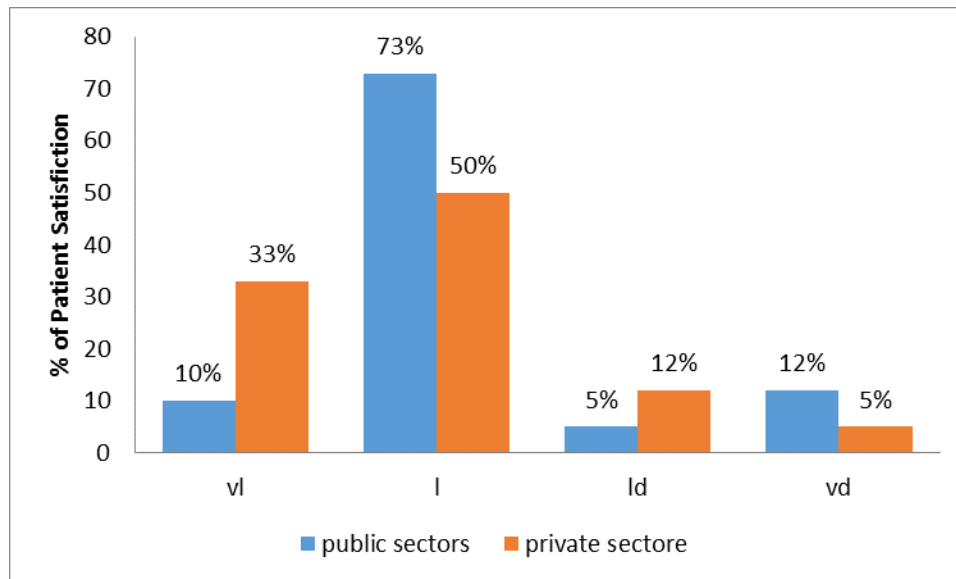


Figure 4.8a: % of patient satisfaction in Public and Private sector

4.9. Percentage of Patients' Hearing during TB Treatment

Physicians in public sectors are not so much attentive to patient's objections, diseases condition hearing. Nearly 60% physicians are not hear anything from patients at all in public sectors but in private sectors the hear 36%. Adequete hearing occure in private sectors which is 27% in private sectors but in public it was only below one fourth of total.

Table:4.9.A. Percentage of patient hearing in public and private sector

Patient hearing public					Patient hearing private			
Patient Hearing	Not hearing	Adequate	Fair	Little Hearing	Not Hearing	Adequate	Fair	Little Hearing
	59%	10%	19%	12%	36%	27%	13%	24%

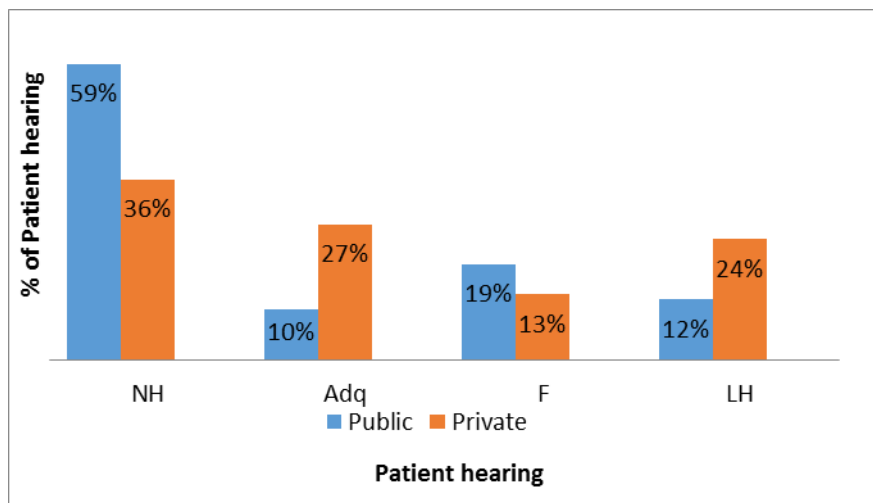


Figure 4.9a: % of patient hearing in Public and Private sector

4.10. Percentage of Drugs Dispensed from Hospitals and Outside of Hospitals

In public health care provider system 65% drugs has been dispensed whereas in private hospitals no drugs dispensed. Moreover 100% had to buy from outside pharmacy in private hospitals which is only 37% in case of public hospitals.

Table: 4.10A: Percentage of drugs dispensed from hospitals and outside of hospitals

		Public sectors		Private Sectors	
		Yes	No	Yes	No
Drugs from Hospitals		63%	37%	0%	100%

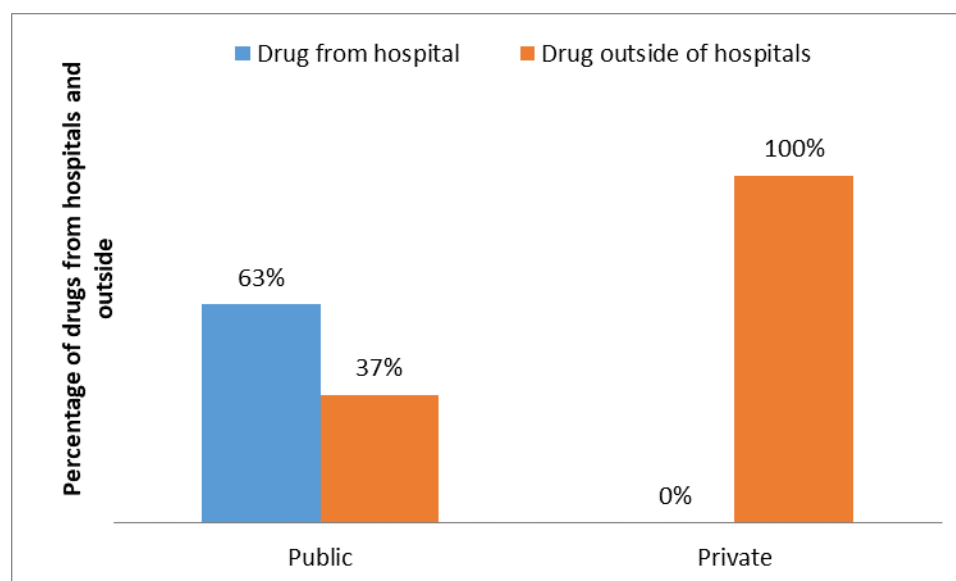


Figure: 4.10a Percentage of drugs dispensed from hospitals and outside of hospitals

4.11. Percentage of Patient for Asking of Follow Up

Private sector emphasized for follow up of the patients, where 90% were asked to for follow up checking where in public sectors it is only 11%.

Table 4.11.A Percentage of patient for asking of follow up

	Public Sectors		Private Sectors	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Asking for follow up	11%	89%	90%	10%

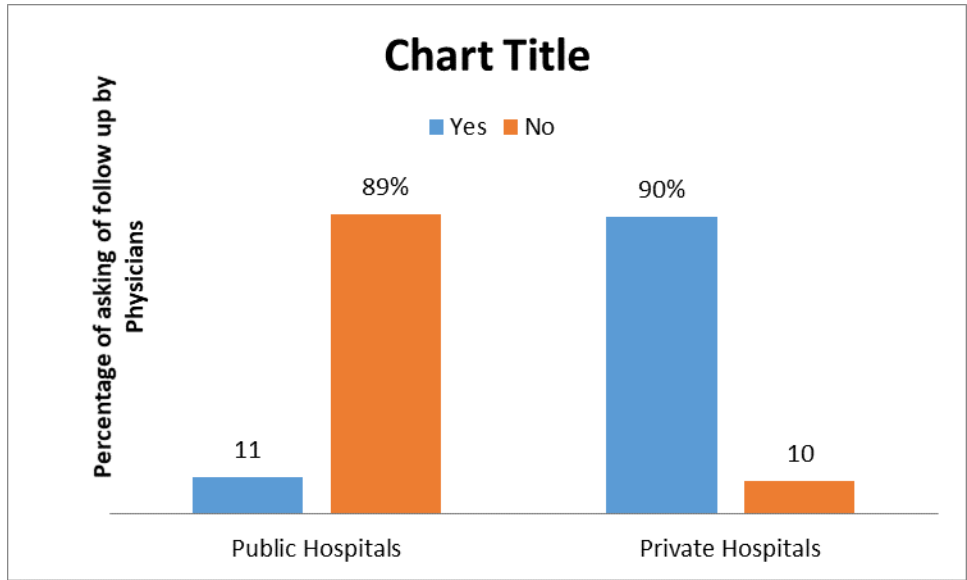


Figure 4.11.a: Percentage of patient for asking of follow up

4.12. Percentage of physical examination done in private and public hospitals

Near about 90% experiences physical examination when they go for consultation with doctors in private hospitals but it is significantly less in public hospitals and it is only 63%.

Table 4.12.A: Percentage of physical examination done in private and public hospitals

	Public Hospitals		Private Hospitals	
	Done	Not Done	Done	Not Done
Physical examination	69%	31%	89%	11%

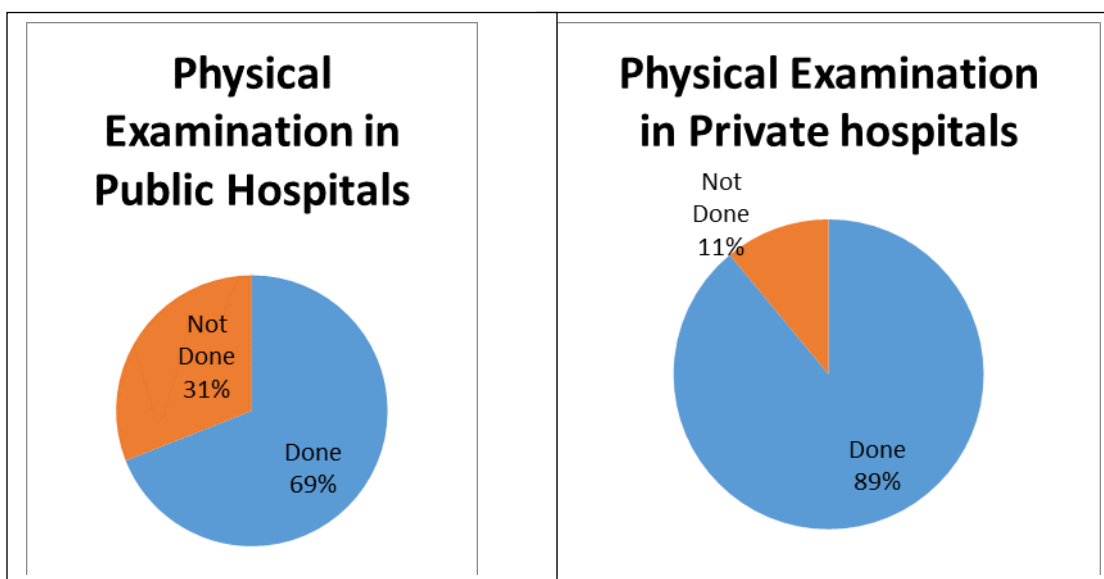


Figure 4.12.a: Percentage of physical examination done in private and public hospitals

4.13.A Percentage of physical examination done in private and public hospitals

For TB patients mostly respiration rate is monitored. There is no definite pattern of percentage of physical test. It shows an unpredicted pattern depended on diseases conditions.

Table 4.13.A: Table 4.12.A Percentage of physical examination done in private and public hospitals

Physical examination	Done In public Hospitals	Done In Private Hospitals
Respiration	89%	70%
Percussion	14%	56%
Temperature	30%	40%
Inspection	39%	52%
Weight	18%	51%

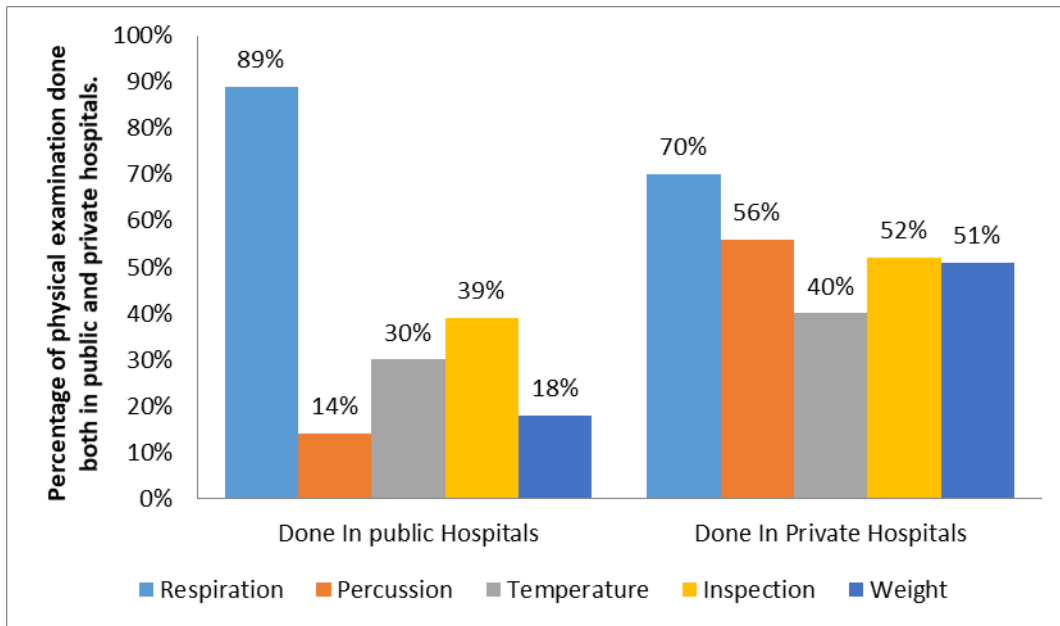


Figure 4.13.a: Percentage of physical examination done in private and public hospitals

4.14. Summary of the effects of intervention on different aspects in public and private sectors in TB Treatment Dhaka Metropolitan

In public sector 91% of drug prescribed is listed on EDL which is higher than private sector (87%) before intervention. After intervention 97% prescribed in public sectors could be listed on EDL but only 86% prescribed in private sector can be listed on EDL.

In private hospitals average consulting time around 236 seconds but 125 seconds in public before intervention. After intervention private health care sector showed an increase manner in consulting time which is 249 seconds which and higher than public health care sector (136 seconds). Only 12% of patients have correct dosing knowledge in private sectors. Both sectors have very poor dosing knowledge before and after intervention. Adequate labeling is only obtained in public sector.

Table 4.14A: Summary of the effects of intervention on different aspects in public and private sectors in TB treatment Dhaka Metropolitan

Indicators	Public sector		Private sector	
	Before int.	After int.	Before int.	After int.
% of drug from EDL	91	97	82	86
Avg. consulting time (sec)	125	136	236	249
% of patient knowing correct dosing	3	9	11	12
% of drug adequately labelled	69	78	0 (N.A)	0 (N.A)

4.15. Comparative study of basic information of prescription in case of TB treatment both for public and private sectors

In public sectors a total of 14849 drugs is prescribe in 3000 prescription before and after intervention which is in an average 4 drugs per prescription. On the other hand a total of 21524 drugs are prescribed in private sectors before and after intervention and the average number of drugs per prescription is 7. Both sectors contain 100% diagnostic test within prescription.

In public sectors 91% prescription contain more than four diagnostic tests which is 2730 of a total case 3000. In private sectors it is 97%.

In public sectors 93% prescription contain multivitamins on the other hand in private sectors it is 100%.

A prescription in public sectors for the treatment of TB cost for 293BDT per prescription. But the expenditure in private sectors is 529BDT which is much higher than public sectors.

Table 4.15.A: Comparative study of basic information of prescription in case of TB treatment both for public and private sectors

Category of hospitals	Average Numbers of drug per prescription	Prescription contains diagnostic history	Prescription contains more than 4 diagnostic test	Presence of multivitamins	Expenditure of per prescription (Excluding diagnostic test)
Govt. Hospitals	5 Total prescribed drugs= 14849 Total prescriptions = 3000	100% Total case 3000	91% Total case 2730 of 3000	93% Total case 2790 of 3000	293 Tk.
Private Hospitals	7.17 Total prescribe drugs =21524 Total prescriptions= 3000	100% Total case=3000	97% Total case 2910 of 3000	100% Total case3000 of 3000	529Tk.

4.16. % of Patient Date Missing in Public and Private Sector

In prescription assessment we observed that in total 6000 prescription age missing is very less only 1% and age missing is only 4%.

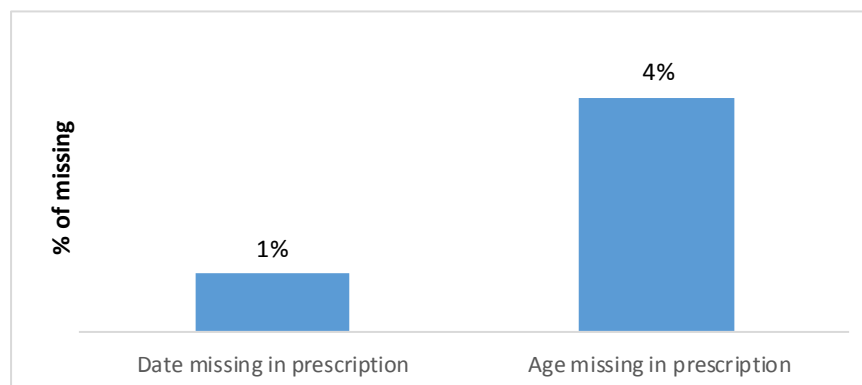


Figure 4.16.a: % of patient date missing in Public and Private sector

4.17. Limitations of the Study:

We had to collect data from some selected locations and selected persons for which the results might have minor fluctuation from the original findings.

Conclusion

Irrational prescribing pattern is a habit which cure is troublesome. But everything is possible. Physicians need to be clarified in their conception about rational prescription pattern, clinical pharmacology, and pharmacotherapy to improve prescription practice rather. Doctors, pharmacists and nurses all together should need to build triangle health care committee to minimize health problem. Though this trend is not turned on in our country yet but it's highly expected.

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