1	Self-medication with antibiotics: Empirical evidence from
2	Nigerian rural population
3	
4	<u>Abstract</u>
5	
6	<b>Background:</b> Self-medication is a strong determinant of antimicrobial overuse as well as a
7	causative of drug resistance. Irrational antibiotic use among patients has led to antibiotic
8	resistance—a serious health problem globally.
9	<b>Objective:</b> The objectives of the present study were to estimate the prevalence of self-
10	medication with antibiotics in a sample of rural population presenting in primary health care
11	centers in Northern Nigeria and evaluate factors associated with the practice.
12	Methods: This is a cross-sectional survey using a validated questionnaire to collect data from
13	1,150 randomly selected clinic attendees (602 men/548 women, mean age $\pm$ 52.6 $\pm$ 16.5 years),
14	who visited the 25 Primary Health Centers in Niger State, Nigeria, between August 2014 and
15	February 2015.
16	Results: Use of antibiotics within the past 12 months was reported by 945 clinic attendees
17	(82.2%), while 689 (59.9%) reported that they had used antibiotics without medical prescription
18	at least one time. The major sources of antibiotic self-medication were drug stores, chemist shops
19	& pharmacy (89.5%). The antibiotics most frequently used for self-medication were Ampiclox –
20	Ampicillin/Cloxacillin combination (29.2%), Ampicillin (25.5%), Amoxicillin (23.3%), Septrin
21	(16.7%), and ciprofloxacin (5.3%). Cough with productive mucus (30.1%), Sore throat (23.7%),
22	Un-remitting fever (20.7%), dysuria (10.6%) skin sepsis (7.5%), and vaginal discharge (7.4%)
23	were the most frequent indications for the use of self-medicated antibiotics.
24	Conclusion: Nigerian rural population knowledge of antibiotics is insufficient. Despite the open
25	and rapid access to primary health care services, it appears that a high proportion of Nigerian
26	rural population use antibiotics without medical prescription. More information about antibiotic
27	use should be provided by physicians, pharmacists and chemists before prescribing and
28	dispensing antibiotics. Self-medication among Nigerian rural population is an important
29	public health problem and this may reflect the situation among rural population in the
30	whole of Nigeria. Self-medication with antibiotics is a serious problem in Nigeria and requires
31	considerable attention.

32 Keywords: Self-medication; antibiotics; Nigeria; antibiotic use

INTRODUCTION: Antibiotics are revolutionary therapeutic agents for microbial eradication<sup>1</sup>.
Unfortunately, despite public awareness and concern of health care providers, irrational use of
antibiotics is on a rise globally (50% to almost 100%)<sup>2,3</sup>. Rampant irrational use of
antimicrobials without medical guidance may result in greater probability of inappropriate,
incorrect, or undue therapy, missed diagnosis, delays in appropriate treatment, pathogen
resistance and increased morbidity<sup>4,5</sup>. Emergence of human pathogen resistance to antibiotics,
both due to over and under use, is potentially dangerous for both individuals and societies<sup>4,6,7</sup>.

40 'Self-medication has been defined as obtaining and consuming drugs without the advice

of a physician either for diagnosis, prescription or surveillance of treatment'<sup>3,8</sup>. Self-medication 41 42 with antibiotics constitute a major form of irrational use of medicine and can cause significant adverse effects such as resistance to microorganisms, treatment failures, drug toxicity, increase 43 in treatment cost, prolonged hospitalization periods and increase in morbidity<sup>9</sup>. In majority of 44 economically deprived countries, nearly 60- 80% of health related problems are treated through 45 self-medicated as lower cost alternative <sup>10, 11</sup>. Self-medication particularly with antimicrobials is 46 a phenomenon of increasing global relevance. The utilization of antibiotics without prescription 47 is motivated by a complex set of factors, worth mentioning are unchecked sales, economic and 48 time constrains, influence of family and friends, consumer attitudes and expectations and media 49 campaigns <sup>6,11,12,13</sup>. In Nigeria, like many other developing countries, antibiotics are easily 50 accessible to everyone without a prescription, a phenomenon seen in many economically 51 deprived countries<sup>14</sup>. In Nigeria, there are limited controls on the sale or advertisement of 52 antimicrobials, creating opportunities for misinformation and misperceptions that can exacerbate 53 improper antibiotic use 15.16. In addition, counterfeit drugs and poor pharmaceutical qualities of 54 55 available antimicrobials (containing no or substandard active ingredients) have been widely reported <sup>17,18,19</sup>. These factors often lead to higher rates of resistance to less-expensive first-line 56 57 regimens compelling subsequent changes in treatment protocols to include more expensive and sometimes more toxic drugs  $\frac{20}{10}$ . In addition, access to good and effective medical interventions is 58 59 often limited due to poor hospital facilities; service fees; poverty and hunger; and illiteracy <sup>15,16,21,22</sup>. Patronage of "quacks," untrained individuals providing unconventional and unhygienic 60 medical care, is therefore widespread and frequently becomes institutionalized as normal. 61 Previous studies have sought to understand patterns of self-medication with antibiotics in 62

63 developing and other countries  $^{23-27}$ . These studies have identified several indications for self-64 medication with antibiotics including the common cold,  $^{23,24,26}$  diarrhea or constipation,<sup>25</sup> and 65 sore throat  $^{26}$ .

While irrational use of antibiotics through self-medication tends to carry more significance in the developing world, the problem has been investigated in only a few of these countries. In Nigeria, a wide range of antibiotics are available on the market and acquiring drugs over the counter is a very common practice. This can facilitate self-medication which is thought to be highly common in Nigeria community, and a study like this is needed to support this assertion. Self-medication could result in treatment failures and several clinical complications. To help address these problems, and also provide a basis for relevant policy measures, the study was undertaken.

Antibiotics represent one of the most prescribed drugs worldwide and their resistance is a major public health threat, hence the need for research on antibiotic usage patterns to help develop appropriate interventions. The objectives of the study were to estimate the prevalence of selfmedication with antibiotics among Nigerian rural population and to identify factors associated with this practice.

#### 78 METHODOLOGY

Study setting: The study was carried out in Niger State, Nigeria, from August, 2014 to Feburary, 2015. Niger State is located in North Central Nigeria and has a population of above four million people <sup>28</sup>. The State has 25 General hospitals, 275 Primary health care centers (PHCs) and more than a thousand pharmacy and chemist shops, each of which is normally manned by a qualified pharmacist, pharmacy technician or primary health care worker.

Study design: A prospective cross-sectional study was designed based on a validated anonymous self-administered questionnaire. Approval was obtained from the officer-in-charges of the PHC facilities and informed consent from the participants. To be eligible for this study, participants had to provide signed or thumb printed informed consent. The study was conducted in 25 PHCs in the State (one per LGA). Selected PHCs were chosen by simple random sampling technique. Respondents were recruited by the researchers. All the patients who came to the selected PHCs during the study period were asked to fill out the questionnaire at the PHCs,

92 regardless of antibiotic acquisition at the time of visit or antibiotic use at any time in life.

93 Respondents under 18 and those with occupation related to health care were not included in this

study. A total of 1150 respondents were eligible for the study. No incentive was offered for

95 participation in the study. It was completely optional.

96 Study instrument: Information was collected using validated questionnaire (in English language but translated to local language) containing both open- and close-ended (multiple-choice) 97 questions. The questionnaire was developed based on a previously conducted literature review <sup>29-</sup> 98  $\frac{36}{2}$  and specific cultural considerations. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire were 99 ascertained through a pilot study, in a sub-sample of 50 participants, to ensure that the 100 questionnaire would be appropriate, comprehensive, and understandable among prospective 101 102 respondents. The pilot testing allowed quality improvement of several questions by wording modification and achieved high internal consistency and reliability In this study, self-medication 103 was considered as selection and use of antibiotics by the study participants (or their family 104 members) to treat self-recognized or self-diagnosed condition at any time in life without 105 prescription. 106

**Sample size:** A sample size calculation was performed using the following equation:  $n = (Z^2 P(1-P))/(d^2)$ , where n = sample size, Z = Statistic corresponding to a chosen level of confidence,

P = expected prevalence, and d = precision <sup>37</sup>. In our calculation, we used Z = 1.96, P = 0.5 and d 109 = 0.05. This calculation resulted in a sample size of 385. As the study was conducted in rural 110 community PHCs, and to increase reliability of sampling and sampling-based generalizability, 111 the required sample size was doubled resulting in a sample size of 670. In order to account for 112 non-responses, the sample size was increased by 10% thus resulting into n=737. A total of 1200 113 questionnaires were distributed to the selected PHCs. In total, 1150 respondents completed the 114 115 questionnaire and were included in the study. Therefore 1150 were finally used as the study sample size 116

Statistical analyses: Reported data were collated, checked, coded, and entered into a Microsoft Access database. The data were then cleaned and analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. A descriptive and comparative statistical data analysis was processed with the SPSS 17.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Simple and multiple logistic regression models were used to evaluate associations between participant characteristics and reported usage of antibiotics. Odds ratios (OR), 95% confidence intervals (CI), and *p*-values were calculated for each

- independent variable. Continuous data were presented as means, along with their 95%
- 124 confidence intervals (CIs). A *p*-value less than 0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.
- 125 **RESULT**

126 *Study population characteristics*: A total of 1150 out of 1225 administered questionnaires

127 (93.9% response rate) were completed and returned by the participants from the 25 LGAs in

128 Niger State, Nigeria. Out of 1150 participants, majority (61.1%) were males. Median age of the

participants was 25 years (range 19-38). Majority of participants (58.2%) belonged to Zone C

- 130 (39.1%). Very few participants (11.8%) had tertiary education. Majority of the participants
- 131 categorized their health status as excellent (36.7%) and good (34.5%). The characteristics of the
- 132 study population are summarized in Table 1.

**Past experiences with antibiotics self-Medication**: Use of antibiotics within the past 12 months

134 was reported by 945 (82.2%) clinic attendees without medical prescription. Among 82.2%

participants who had used antibiotics in their lifetime, almost every day (53.4%) reported un-

136 prescribed use. A little more than half (50.8%) participant cited that they had used antibiotics through

self-medication to treat their illnesses. About one quarter (24.3%) participants claimed that they

rarely used antibiotic through self-medication when they were sick. More than one-third (35.8%)

139 were completely satisfied with their experience of self-medication with antibiotics. Only 10% of

- 140 participants ever encountered side effects with antibiotic self-medication, and of these majority
- 141 (46.4%) experienced gastrointestinal system related side effects. Less than ten percent were un-

decisive, most of the time, on their own whether they need antibiotic for illness or not. About half

143 (48.2%) of the participants were of the view that self-medication with antibiotics was good while

144 51.8% were not sure about it. Just over one-third (34.7%) participants were not sure whether self-

145 medication is safe or not. Percentage differences in those who experienced self-medication as safe

146 (22.1%) and unsafe (24.8%) were not appreciable. Less than five percent (3.9%) participants were

147 aware of the fact that self-medication with antibiotics may result in adverse effects. More than one-

third (36.2%) of the participants reported that they would use antibiotics through self-medication in

149 future.

150 *Sources of Information:* The major sources of antibiotic for self-medication without prescription

151 were drug stores (91.5%), chemist shops (85.7%) & pharmacy (89.5%)

152 *Prevalence of self-medication:* This study demonstrated that an appreciably high percentage

153 (59.9%) of Nigerians in the study area had self-medicated themselves with antibiotics

- 154 When asked about the self-medicated use of antibiotics, 82.2% reported that they had used
- antibiotics without medical prescription at least one time in the past 12 months.
- 156 *Types of antibiotics and indications for self-medication:* The antibiotics most frequently used
- 157 for self-medication were Ampiclox Ampicillin/Cloxacillin combination (24.1%), Ampicillin
- 158 (20.3%), Amoxicillin (10.7%), Septrin- Sulphadiazole/Methoprin combination (14.2%),
- 159 Ciprofloxacin (3.7%), Metronidazole (13.9%) and Tetracycline (13.1%) (Table 2). Cough with
- productive mucus (30.1%), Sore throat (23.7%), Un-remitting fever (20.7%), dysuria (10.6%)
- skin sepsis (7.5%), and vaginal discharge (7.4%) were the most frequent indications for the use
- 162 of self-medicated antibiotics (Table 3).
- 163 **Reasons for Antibiotic self-medication:** Several reasons were cited for practicing self-
- medication (Table 4). The most important reasons for practicing self-medication were
- that it was less expensive compared to medical care in the health facility (79.3%), and
- secondly, medical care in health facility were associated with easy accessibility (68.4%).
- Difficulty in accessing health facility was the least reason for self-medication (18.7%).
- 168
- Treatment of specific symptom/infection: Table 5 summarizes the types of antibiotics that 169 170 were used to treat specific infection and provides estimates of the prevalence of use for each antibiotic. Ampiclox, Ampicillin, Amocixillin, Cotrimoxazole, ciprofloxacin, metronidazole and 171 tetracycline were used to treat the symptoms/infections (6 infections/symptoms) like productive 172 cough, sore throat dysuria, skin sepsis, vaginal discharge and unremitting fever. The higher the 173 prevalence under each symptom/infection the more likelihood the preferred antibiotic for such 174 symptom/infection . Generally Ampiclox seems to be most preferred antibiotic for self-175 176 medication for various ailments encountered by the participants. If a preferred antibiotic was not 177 available, 21.3% (95% CI: 15.7% to 26.9) of study participants reported that they would use another type of antibiotic to treat the specific symptom/infection. The antibiotics were said to be 178 effective in relieving symptoms/infections, a number of participants reported that the drugs 179 180 relieved each of the symptoms/infections, of which the largest proportions indicated that antibiotics relieved cough with productive sputum, (16%, 95% CI: 12% to 20%), sore throat 181 (15%, 95% CI: 11% to 19%), dysuria(21%, 95% CI: 17% to 25%), skin sepsis (13%, 95% CI: 182 9% to 17%), vaginal discharge (18%, 95% CI: 14% to 22%) and unremitting fever (20%, 95% 183
- 184 CI: 16% to 24%).
- 185
- 186 There was no significant difference between the self-medication practices of participants
- based on ethnicity (p=0.07) and having stock of antibiotics (p=0.08). Self-medication
- practices of participants were significantly affected by level of education (p=0.0.03), current
- health status (p=0.42), gender (p=0.7), and duration of stay in the study area (p=0.4). Ironically,
- self-medication rates were not significantly lower in participants who were aware of its harmful
- effects (p=0.2) and those who think it is not safe (p=0.2). There was statistically significant

- 192 difference between self-medication practices of those who got sick during last 6 months and
- those who did not (p=0.04), healthcare and non-healthcare related professionals (p=0.005).
- 194 Only 17.8% (205/1150) of the participants, who did not report self-medication with antibiotics,
- had stored drugs at home compared to 59.2% (401/689) of the participants who reported self-
- medication (P < 0.05). About one-quarter 388 (25.9%) of the participants reported earlier
- discontinuation of antibiotics when symptoms improved and 175 (15.2%) continued to use
- 198 antibiotics as preventive measure even when the symptoms have completely disappeared or
- 199 when they engaged in un-protected sex.

#### 200 DISCUSSION

The response rate in this study was 93.9%. Over the years, the response rate in surveys has always 201 been a matter of concern for investigators. Response rate varies a lot, especially, in internet-based 202 surveys <sup>38, 39</sup> It has been reported that response rate is an important indicator of level of success of a 203 survey in collecting information from all eligible in a population or sample. Inability of some sample 204 members to give the required information, disentitlement of some sample members, non-existence of 205 206 some members of the sample, refusal to participate due to any reason, failure to find and contact targeted members, physical and language limitations could be the grounds resulting in failure to get 207 required information in a survey. Additionally, reluctance, stigma and shame associated with self-208 perceived low performance or dispersal of information may result in refusal to participate and 209 nonresponse <sup>(40)</sup>. 210

To the best of our knowledge, this study represents the first published work on irrational

antibiotic use through self-medication among rural dwellers in the study area.

213 This study aimed to estimate prevalence/magnitude of self-medication. The study further assessed

self-reported use of non-prescribed antibiotics, as well as sources for obtaining antibiotics, reasons

for self-medication and type of antibiotics. This study also assessed common types of illnesses,

216 frequently used antibiotics and determinants of self-medication. The long-term aim of the study was

- to get an overview of antibiotic self-medication among Nigerian rural dwellers in order to help in
- 218 planning future interventions to address this issue. Indirectly, this study also determined the reasons
- for self-medication with antibiotics. Self-medication would be acceptable and justified in real
- 220 urgent/emergency situation and in treating minor ailments that do not require physician consultation
- and thus a way to cut down burden on healthcare system especially in resource-poor Countries like
- 222 Nigeria. However, certain pre-conditions should be met to guarantee user safety like indication to use

the drug must be recognized, and user must know the right use and possible side effects/interactionswith other drugs.

Unrestricted sales at pharmacies, experience with similar illness, good experience with
antibiotic, assumed knowledge about antibiotics, earlier use of prescribed antibiotics,
wrong prescription of antibiotic, compulsive antibiotic prescribing, saving time, problem
too trivial, socioeconomic factors, emergency need, access to literature, leftovers, lifestyle
and a potential to manage certain illnesses through self-care were the common factors
triggering antibiotic self-medication.

231 Self-medication with antibiotics, a phenomenon practiced globally, is affecting both

developing and developed countries. Worldwide, such human malpractice has resulted in

inadequate dosing, incomplete courses and indiscriminate antimicrobial use and thus is

thought to be associated with increase in the probability of inappropriate, incorrect, or

undue therapy, adverse reactions, missed diagnosis, delays in proper treatment and

pathogen resistance. Resultantly, the phenomenon has contributed to prolonged human

sufferings in terms of morbidity and mortality <sup>41-46</sup>. Emerging pathogen resistance to antimicrobial,

fueled by self-medication, is a real global problem  $\frac{46}{10}$  To combat microbial resistance issues, new

antibiotics are under development. Development of new and even more expensive drugs to fight

resistant microbes will further add to the problems of unprivileged particularly in resource-poor

241 countries such as Nigeria

This study demonstrated that an appreciably high percentage (59.9%) of Nigerian rural dwellers had 242 self-medicated themselves with antibiotics, whereas the percentage of those who ever did so is even 243 higher (82.2%). To the best of our knowledge no study like this exist before this in the study area, so 244 far, thus no data is available for comparisons. High prevalence of self-medication in general and with 245 antibiotics in particular is a universal problem and variations regarding such medications in terms of 246 prevalence vary across the globe; Hong Kong (72.1%-94%)<sup>47</sup>, Sudan (79.5% to 48%)<sup>40</sup>, Lithuania 247 (39.9%)<sup>48</sup>, Ethiopia (38.5%)<sup>49</sup>, Interestingly, some lower rates have been reported in Malta (19.2%) 248  $\frac{50}{10}$ , Mexico (5%)  $\frac{51}{10}$  and Sweden (3%)  $\frac{52}{10}$ . These variations could be due to differences in attitudes, 249 literacy, environment, culture and legislation in these countries. Evidence from the various studies 250 including ours indicate that self- medication appears to be relatively higher in the developing 251

world compared to the developed which is not surprising given the free access and marketing of

antibiotics in the former. Prevalence rate in this study is much lower compared to some other

countries but still high enough to be taken seriously.

Our study showed that self-medication practices among participants were significantly influenced by 255 level of education (p < 0.05). Another Nigerian study identified level of education as a major factor 256 that influenced self-medication patterns  $\frac{53}{2}$ . Sapkota et al further showed that a higher level of 257 education is inversely associated with self-medication of antibiotics  $\frac{42}{2}$ . Another study contended that 258 respondents with low education are less aware of consequences of self-medication and thus more 259 prone to practice it 54. Findings from this study are consistent with the findings of other studies (53, 55). 260 where age was not significantly associated with antibiotic self-medication. On the other hand, in 261 Lithuania, self-medication was found to be reasonably affected by age 48, 53, 55. 262 In this study males seemed more prone to self-medication than females. Our finding is similar to that 263 of other studies where antibiotic usage is associated with gender  $\frac{48,56}{2}$ . Chemist and Pharmacy shops 264 were the most common source of antibiotics. Previous studies conducted in Africa have also 265 identified pharmacies as important sources of self-administered drugs <sup>46, 57</sup>. Understanding the 266 sources of information and sources of drugs for antibiotic self-medication can help in the 267 formulation of community-based interventions that can help to reduce self-medication practices. 268 Many medical conditions are predisposing factors to antibiotic self-medication. In this study, 269 self-medication was as a result of participants having cough with productive mucus (30.1%), 270 Sore throat (23.7%), Un-remitting fever (20.7%), dysuria (10.6%) skin sepsis (7.5%), and 271 vaginal discharge (7.4%). These ailments were the most frequent indications for the use of self-272 medicated antibiotics. The indications for self-medication in this study was similarly found and 273 reported in other previous studies <sup>47, 56, 58</sup>. Unfortunately, majority of the medical 274 conditions/symptoms are of viral origin and usually need no antibiotic treatment for cure. The study 275 by Afolabi et al <sup>53</sup> also reported dental symptoms as indications for antibiotic self-medication. 276 Ampiclox is the most commonly self-medicated antibiotic in this study. This finding is in contrast to 277 that of other studies<sup>59-61</sup> that reported Amoxicillin as the most frequently used antibiotic for self-278 medication. Amoxicillin is the most frequent used antibiotic because of low-cost across the globe and 279 its wide-spread prescription by health care providers, thus making it well-known to public <sup>59-61</sup>. Other 280 antibiotics used for self medication in this study include Ampicillin, Tetracycline, Ciprofloxacin and 281 *Metronidazole*. *This finding is consistent with* earlier studies <sup>55, 61</sup> as participants consumed 282 283 antibiotics for self-medication belonging to five different types/classes and among those of *Penicillin* group were on the top. The diversities in selection of antibiotics among different study groups might 284 be because of their different knowledge and attitude towards such medication. 285

Self- medication in this study appears to be more driven by economic factors meaning that the 286 participants were unable to pay for the cost of health facility care and therefore resulted into self-287 288 medication which they considered to be cheaper and affordable. This finding agrees with studies done in Sudan  $\frac{27}{10}$  and Bogotá  $\frac{62}{10}$ . This therefore implies that providing affordable health care 289 services may be crucial for dealing with the problem of irrational antibiotic associated with self-290 291 medication. However the medical services should also be convenient for patients in terms of 292 waiting periods, as delays at hospitals/clinics was another major factor associated with selfmedication<sup>63</sup>. The participants surveyed in this study represent a small but very important segment 293 294 of Nigerian population. Thus, it is unclear whether the responses of the surveyed participants are representative of other Nigerians who did not participate in the survey. 295

**CONCLUSION:** This study has shown that irrational use of antibiotics through self- medication 296 appears to be a common practice among Nigerian rural dwellers. This finding provides a vivid 297 evidence about the abuse of antibiotics in Nigeria and explains the escalating trend of antibiotic 298 resistance in the country. Despite easy accessibility to primary care services, it appears that a 299 high proportion of rural adult population prefers to use antibiotics without medical prescription. 300 The high prevalence of self-medication with antibiotics in Nigerian rural population underscores 301 the role of the primary care physician in advising patients about the correct use of the prescribed 302 antibiotics. Another important intervention to stem the tide of self-medication with antibiotics is 303 304 effective legislation banning unregulated sale of antibiotics without medical prescription. Efforts should be made by appropriate health organizations to conduct annual Antibiotic Awareness 305 306 campaign emphasizing the importance of using antibiotics responsibly. By targeting rural dwellers, this study addresses a population with fewer resources than the general population. 307 308 Future research should include other populations of Nigerian to determine the overall prevalence of self-medication with antibiotic. 309 310 LIMITATIONS: Some limitations were identified and research ethics demands that they better

- 311 acknowledged. These limitations include the following:
- Recall bias: This is a cross-sectional study that utilized a self-administered survey to
   estimate the prevalence of self-medicated antibiotic use in the past. Therefore, by design,
   recall bias cannot be ruled out.
- Definition of terms: Defining and explaining 'self-medication' and 'antibiotic' for the
   participants seemed somewhat complicated. In their responses, some participants

regarded non-antibiotics as antibiotics, this shows that either definition was not clear
to them or they were not knowledgeable enough to differentiate the two Although
questionnaire did not contain much difficult terms, irrespective of this fact, there is a
theoretical possibility that participants' encountered difficulties in understanding,
interpreting and answering few questions due to some medical and unfamiliar terms
used. This might be due their educational background and language limitations.

#### **Table 1: Study Population Characteristics**

Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Geopolitical distribution		
Zone A	400	34.8
Zone B	300	26.1
Zone C	450	39.1
Education level		
Primary	623	54.3
Secondary	390	33.9
Tertiary	135	11.8
-		
Age (Years)		
<18	44	3.8
18-22	206	17.9
23-27	417	36.3
28-32	323	28.1
33-37	100	8.7
>38	60	5.2
Sex		
Male	602	52.3
Female	548	47.7
Marital Status		
Single	301	26.2
Married	609	53
Separated	150	13
Divorce	90	7.8

Antibiotic		Prevalence		Confidence Interv
Ampiclox (Ampici	llin + Clocacillii	n) 24.1		0.20-0.27
Ampicillin		20.3		0.18-0.26
Amoxicillin		10.7		0.80-0.15
Cotrimoxazole		14.2		0.10-0.18
Ciprofloxacin		3.7		0.01-0.06
Metronidazole		13.9		11.6-15.8
Tetracycline		13.1		0.10 -0.16
Table 3: Multivariate	e analysis of factors t	hat may influence self-med	ication with anti	biotics for treatment of ailment
Independent Variable	Odd ratio	95% Confidence Interval	P-value	
Productive Cough				
No (n=267)	1.00	-		
Yes (n=883)	0.68	0.32-096	0.03	
Sore throat				
No (n=160)	1.00	_		
Yes (990)	0.84	0.47-1.24	0.02	
Dysuria				
No (152)	1.00	-		
Yes (998)	0.76	0.34-1.38	0.02	
Strin Consis				
Skin Sepsis Vos (275)	1.00			
Yes (275)	1.00	-	0.05	
	1.00 0.62	0.29-1.17	0.05	
Yes (275) No (875		0.29-1.17	0.05	
Yes (275)		- 0.29-1.17	0.05	
Yes (275) No (875 Vaginal Discharge	0.62	0.29-1.17	0.05	
Yes (275) No (875 <b>Vaginal Discharge</b> No (245) Yes (905)	0.62	-		
Yes (275) No (875 <b>Vaginal Discharge</b> No (245) Yes (905) <b>Unremitting fever</b>	0.62 1.00 0.71	-		
Yes (275) No (875 <b>Vaginal Discharge</b> No (245) Yes (905) <b>Unremitting fever</b> No (n=352	0.62 1.00 0.71 1.00	0.31-1.35	0.04	
Yes (275) No (875 <b>Vaginal Discharge</b> No (245) Yes (905) <b>Unremitting fever</b>	0.62 1.00 0.71	-		
Yes (275) No (875 <b>Vaginal Discharge</b> No (245) Yes (905) <b>Unremitting fever</b> No (n=352 Yes (n=798)	0.62 1.00 0.71 1.00	0.31-1.35	0.04	
Yes (275) No (875 Vaginal Discharge No (245) Yes (905) Unremitting fever No (n=352 Yes (n=798) Age (yrs)	0.62 1.00 0.71 1.00 0.48	0.31-1.35	0.04	
Yes (275) No (875 Vaginal Discharge No (245) Yes (905) Unremitting fever No (n=352 Yes (n=798) Age (yrs) <20	0.62 1.00 0.71 1.00 0.48 1.00	0.31- 1.35 0.22-0.96	0.04 0.005	
Yes (275) No (875 Vaginal Discharge No (245) Yes (905) Unremitting fever No (n=352 Yes (n=798) Age (yrs) <20 21-29	0.62 1.00 0.71 1.00 0.48 1.00 1.07	0.31- 1.35 0.22-0.96 - 0.52-1.64	0.04 0.005 0.89	
Yes (275) No (875 Vaginal Discharge No (245) Yes (905) Unremitting fever No (n=352 Yes (n=798) Age (yrs) <20 21-29 >30	0.62 1.00 0.71 1.00 0.48 1.00	0.31- 1.35 0.22-0.96	0.04 0.005	
Yes (275) No (875 Vaginal Discharge No (245) Yes (905) Unremitting fever No (n=352 Yes (n=798) Age (yrs) <20 21-29 >30 Education	0.62 1.00 0.71 1.00 0.48 1.00 1.07 1.59	0.31- 1.35 0.22-0.96 - 0.52-1.64	0.04 0.005 0.89	
Yes (275) No (875 <b>Vaginal Discharge</b> No (245) Yes (905) <b>Unremitting fever</b> No (n=352 Yes (n=798) <b>Age (yrs)</b> <20 21-29 >30 <b>Education</b> Primary (n=623)	0.62 1.00 0.71 1.00 0.48 1.00 1.07 1.59 1.00	0.31- 1.35 0.22-0.96 0.52-1.64 0.27-0.83	0.04 0.005 0.89 0.63	
Yes (275) No (875 <b>Vaginal Discharge</b> No (245) Yes (905) <b>Unremitting fever</b> No (n=352 Yes (n=798) <b>Age (yrs)</b> <20 21-29 >30 <b>Education</b> Primary (n=623) Secondary (n=390)	0.62 1.00 0.71 1.00 0.48 1.00 1.07 1.59 1.00 0.24	0.31- 1.35 0.22-0.96 0.52-1.64 0.27-0.83 0.23-0.87	0.04 0.005 0.89 0.63 0.046	
Yes (275) No (875 <b>Vaginal Discharge</b> No (245) Yes (905) <b>Unremitting fever</b> No (n=352 Yes (n=798) <b>Age (yrs)</b> <20 21-29 >30 <b>Education</b> Primary (n=623)	0.62 1.00 0.71 1.00 0.48 1.00 1.07 1.59 1.00	0.31- 1.35 0.22-0.96 0.52-1.64 0.27-0.83	0.04 0.005 0.89 0.63	
Yes (275) No (875 <b>Vaginal Discharge</b> No (245) Yes (905) <b>Unremitting fever</b> No (n=352 Yes (n=798) <b>Age (yrs)</b> <20 21-29 >30 <b>Education</b> Primary (n=623) Secondary (n=390) Tertiary (n=135)	0.62 1.00 0.71 1.00 0.48 1.00 1.07 1.59 1.00 0.24	0.31- 1.35 0.22-0.96 0.52-1.64 0.27-0.83 0.23-0.87	0.04 0.005 0.89 0.63 0.046	
Yes (275) No (875 <b>Vaginal Discharge</b> No (245) Yes (905) <b>Unremitting fever</b> No (n=352 Yes (n=798) <b>Age (yrs)</b> <20 21-29 >30 <b>Education</b> Primary (n=623) Secondary (n=390)	0.62 1.00 0.71 1.00 0.48 1.00 1.07 1.59 1.00 0.24	0.31- 1.35 0.22-0.96 0.52-1.64 0.27-0.83 0.23-0.87	0.04 0.005 0.89 0.63 0.046	

Table 4				
Reasons Frequ	uency	Percentage	95% CI	
Affordability (Less expensive) 84.3	912	79.3	74.2	
Accessibility 72.9 (Antibiotics are easily obtained)	787	68.4	65.2	
Application of previous prescription 63.5	695	60.4	57.2-	
Imitating others in drug usage 55.2	584	50.8	46.4-	
Hospital/Clinics delays 59.8	634	55.1	50.4-	
Previous knowledge of antibiotics 44.4	481	41.8	39.2-	
Difficulty in accessing Health Facility 22.2	215	18.7	15.2-	
Health workers attitude	603	52.4	48.3 - 56.5	

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Table 5: Prevalence of each antibiotic to treat specific Infection/Disease

Antibiotic	Productive cough		Sore throat	Dysuria	Skin sepsis	Vagina discharge	Unremitting fever	
	Prev	95% CI	Prev 95% CI	Prev 95% CI	Prev 95% CI	Prev 95% CI	Prev 95% CI	
Ampiclox	80.6	2.62-9.87	87.4 3.46-10.56	95.8 4.54-12.8	68.4 0.74-1.12	98.3 5.32-13.86	64.5 0.58-0.94	
Ampicillin	71.5	0.78-1.46	81.3 2.90-11.32	88.7 2.68-13.49	66.8 0.66-092	72.8 0.82-1.36	58.4 0.36-0.79	
Amoxicillin	75.2	0.94-1.86	94.8 4.22-1.34	69.5 0.75-1.14	58.1 0.39-071	60.3 0.42-0.69	52.3 0.27-061	
Cotrimoxazole	83.6	2.86-10.75	82.8 2.99-10.68	78.0 1.73-8.42	52.5 0.26-0.64	51.2 0.19-0.48	69.4 0.29-0.78	
Ciprofloxacin	91.8	2.94-10.43	85.6 2.97-11.66	97.8 5.27-13.59	70.5 0.93-1.58	96.7 4.59-12.44	57.9 0.27-0.69	

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F	Metronidazole	53.7 0.28-0.72	51 0.18 0.46	73.6 0.85-1.46	50.3 0.18-0.52	85.3 2.48-11.86	67.5	0.25-0.62		
-	Tetracycline	50.1 017-0.56	51.4 0.19 0.49	82.4 0.82-1.77	50.7 0.22-0.64	60.7 0.66-0.82	64.3	0.84-1.46		
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