

BMJ Open

Antibiotic prescriptions to the inpatients having non-bacterial diagnosis at medicine departments of two private sector hospitals in Madhya Pradesh, India: a cross sectional study

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2016-012974
Article Type:	Research
Date Submitted by the Author:	07-Jun-2016
Complete List of Authors:	Landstedt , Kristoffer; Karolinska Institutet, Public Health Sciences Lundborg, Cecilia; Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden Sharma, Ashish; R. D. Gardi Medical College, Medicine Johansson, Fredrik; Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden Sharma, Megha; R. D. Gardi Medical College, Pharmacology; Karolinska Institutet, Public Health Sciences
Primary Subject Heading:	Public health
Secondary Subject Heading:	Epidemiology, Global health, Infectious diseases, Public health, Health services research
Keywords:	Antibiotics, Private sector hospitals, Medicine department, Inpatients, India, Non-Bacterial infections

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

Only

1
2
3 **Antibiotic prescriptions to the inpatients having non-bacterial diagnosis at medicine**
4 **departments of two private sector hospitals in Madhya Pradesh, India: a cross sectional**
5 **study**
6

7 **Authors list:**

8 Kristoffer Landstedt¹, Cecilia StålsbyLundborg¹, Ashish Sharma², Fredrik Johansson¹, Megha
9 Sharma^{1, 3§}
10

11 ¹ Public Health Sciences, Global Health, Karolinska Institutet, Tomtebodavägen 18A, 17177
12 Stockholm, Sweden

13 ²Department of Medicine, Ruxmaniben Deepchand Gardi Medical College, Ujjain, India

14 ³ Department of Pharmacology, Ruxmaniben Deepchand Gardi Medical College, Ujjain, India
15
16
17
18
19
20

21 §Corresponding author: Megha Sharma

22 Department of Pharmacology, Ruxmaniben Deepchand Gardi Medical College, Ujjain, India,
23
24

25 Mobile: +91-98273-61961, Office- +91-7368-261288
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39

40 **Keywords:** Antibiotics, Non-bacterial infections, Inpatients, Medicine department, Private
41 sector hospitals, India
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

61 **Email addresses:**

62 Kristoffer L: Landstedt_N@hotmail.com

63 CSL: cecilia.stalsby.lundborg@ki.se

64 AS: ashishricha2001@yahoo.co.in

65 FJ: fredrik.johansson@stud.ki.se

66 MS: meghasharma27@rediffmail.com

Abstract

Objectives: To present and compare antibiotic prescribing among inpatients among most common non-bacterial diagnoses group at medicine departments of a teaching (TH) and a non-teaching hospital (NTH) in Central India.

Setting: An observational cross-sectional study was conducted at two tertiary care settings at Ujjain district, Madhya Pradesh, India.

Participants: The data was collected manually, using a customized form. All inpatients, who stayed at-least for one night in either of the hospitals during 2008-2011, with complete records were included.

Outcome measures: Inpatients were grouped based on the presence or absence of a bacterial infectious diagnosis along with viral or malaria fever or cardiovascular diseases. Classes of antibiotics prescribed to these groups, and adherence to the available prescribing guidelines were compared between the hospitals using WHO anatomical therapeutic chemical classification and International Classification of Diseases-10.

Results: Of total 20303 inpatients included in the study, 66% were prescribed antibiotics. Trade name prescribing and use of broad spectrum antibiotics were more frequent at the NTH compared to the TH ($p<0.001$). At the TH, significantly higher proportion of patients in 'fever without registered bacterial infection' group; were prescribed antibiotics (82%) compared with the NTH (71%, $p<0.001$). Patients admitted with 'cardiovascular diagnosis without bacterial infections' received antibiotics prescriptions at both hospitals; (NTH- 47% and TH- 37%) which was significantly higher at the NTH ($p<0.001$).

Conclusions: Antibiotic prescribing to the inpatients without bacterial infections i.e. viral fever, malaria and cardiovascular diseases and use of broad spectrum antibiotics for non-indicated episodes were common at both hospitals. Treatment of non-bacterial infections with

1
2
3 antibiotics might be a potential risk for the development of bacterial resistance, a global
4
5 public health threat. Taking account of unnecessary prescribing in the hospitals, development
6
7 and implementation of local prescribing guidelines, followed by prescription analysis with
8
9 antibiotic stewardship programs are the main recommendations for the settings.
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For peer review only

Strengths and limitations

- Prospective study over a long time period of three years and inclusion of all patients, irrespective to their age and sex strengthens the representativeness of the results.
- Data collecting tools were same at both study locations and the staff who collected the data was trained by the same person at both locations to minimize the variances.
- An observational non-interventional study design would have minimized the steering effect to the prescribers.
- Some data may have been lost in translation from analogue to digital records however large number of patients included in the study is likely to minimize the effect.
- The grouping of diagnoses might have produced false low antibiotic prescribing, specifically in suspected bacterial diagnosis groups however, in absence of confirmed etiology this was indispensable.

BACKGROUND

Increasing morbidity and mortality due to infectious diseases, despite of the availability of the lifesaving antibiotics is an alarming situation, globally,[1]. These incidences of mortalities due to infections are higher in low- and middle-income countries than in high-income countries,[2–4]. WHO has reported a high burden of communicable diseases in India, and infections are responsible for 28% of the total mortality in the country,[5, 6]. Additionally, antibiotic resistance in India is reported to be high. However, figures cannot be generalized to all Indian settings as the bacterial resistance patterns widely vary between its regions and settings,[7].

Irrational (both over- and under-) use of antibacterials, is of global concern. It results in unnecessary treatment costs, is a potential risk for the development of antibiotic resistance and side effects such as antibiotic associated diarrhoea caused by *C. Difficile* or gastroenteritis,[8]. According to a report, the global consumption of antibiotics increased by 36% between 2000 and 2010 of which five countries including India (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) accounted for 76% of this increase,[9]. Despite of the paucity of studies that describe antibiotic prescribing from India, Van Boeckel et al presented India on the top of the list of antibiotic consumption with 12.9×10^9 units in 2010 where one unit indicates a pill, capsule or ampoule,[1,9]. However, this increase might also have meant that segments of the population that previously had no access to antibiotics can now access antibiotics yet it cannot be disregarded that antibiotic resistance is a sequel of antibiotic use,[10].

It is thus imperative to map the prescribing patterns of antibiotics on a local level to address the potential need of improvement and to counter the consequences of inappropriate prescription of antibiotics. Indian private sector facilities are the major healthcare providers but are usually not included in these base line surveys,[11,12].

OBJECTIVES

The study was conducted to present, analyse and compare antibiotic prescribing to the inpatients enrolled for most common non-bacterial diagnoses at the medicine departments of a teaching (TH) and a non-teaching hospital (NTH) in Central India.

METHODS

Study design

A cross sectional observational design was selected to conduct the study.

Setting

The study was conducted at the medicine departments of two tertiary care hospitals from private sector in Ujjain district, India. The hospitals are addressed as teaching hospital (TH) and non-teaching hospital (NTH). Both hospitals are run by the same trust. The TH is located in a rural area of Ujjain district and had 570 beds at the time of the study. The NTH is located in the central part of Ujjain city and had 350 beds at the time of the study. The TH provides medical services including medical treatment and free of charge medicines to all patients while the NTH charges for the medical facilities on a 'no profit-no loss' basis. Patients from the NTH have to buy prescribed medicines from pharmacies inside or outside of the hospital. The physicians at the TH are salary paid and do not have any direct exposure with the sales representatives of pharmaceutical companies. Furthermore, the management at the TH is responsible for the purchase and supply of the drugs. Essential medicine list was available at the TH but was not implemented during the study period while prescribing guidelines were not present in any of the hospitals. Almost all physicians practicing at the NTH also had private practice and could be contacted by the representatives of pharmaceutical companies easily. The payments of the physicians at the NTH increase above par according to the number of patients they admit in the hospital and the number of visits made to the inpatients.

1
2
3 A well-equipped microbiology laboratory was present to process the samples free of cost for
4
5 all from the TH and with nominal charges from the NTH.
6
7

8 **Participants**

9 **Inclusion and exclusion criteria**

10
11
12 Patients who stayed for at least one night at medicine departments of either of the two
13
14 hospitals were considered as inpatients and included in the study. Patients who had
15
16 incomplete records or admitted to the medical intensive care units within the medicine
17
18 departments were not included in the analysis. Treatment recommendations including dose
19
20 and frequency varies for the patients under 15 years of age and the DDD measurement is not
21
22 applicable to them, thus were also excluded,[14].
23
24

25 **Variables**

26
27
28 The patient information was analysed for age, sex, diagnosis, duration of hospitals stay, if
29
30 they received antibiotic treatment, and duration of antibiotic treatment. The prescriptions were
31
32 analysed for the type of antibiotics prescribed, its dose, and frequency. The antibiotics were
33
34 classified according to the Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical (ATC) classification given by
35
36 the WHO Collaborating Centre for Drug Statistics Methodology (WHOCC),[13]. Defined
37
38 Daily Doses (DDD) were calculated for all prescribed antibiotics,[13]. DDD is a technical
39
40 unit for comparative purposes and is the average daily dose of the specific drug for its main
41
42 indication in adults,[14]. Fixed dose combinations of antibiotics (FDCs) that did not have an
43
44 ATC code assigned by WHOCC were assigned the code 'J01RA*' according to Sharma et
45
46 al,[15]. FDCs that did not have a DDD were assigned one by examining the constituents and
47
48 the proportions in which they were found in one unit dose. DDD was then calculated on the
49
50 basis of number of units and converted to dose in gram.
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 The NLEMI is based on the WHO list of essential medicines (WHOLEM) and adapted to the
4 disease panorama of India,[16]. These lists serve as guidelines to promote the prescribing of
5 safe, cheap and effective drugs to the population,[16, 17]. Adherence to these lists was
6 evaluated for all prescriptions.
7
8
9
10

11 **Data sources and considerations**

12
13
14
15 The data collection process is described in detail earlier,[11, 12]. In brief, the data was
16 collected prospectively between April 1st, 2008 and March 31st, 2011, for all patients admitted
17 to the medicine departments at the TH and the NTH. This would have minimized the chances
18 of any selection bias. The data was collected manually by the nurses on a specially designed
19 form which was attached to the patient's file. The nurses and new recruits were trained
20 regularly for the data collection by the last author.
21
22
23
24
25
26
27

28
29 Inpatients were categorized based on registered diagnoses in the patient file, using the
30 'International Classification of Diseases' (ICD-10). The patients could have multiple
31 registered diagnoses. Following the aim of the study, best possible efforts were done to
32 distinguish the patients who had any indications for secondary antibiotic prophylaxis from
33 those who did not,[18, 19, 20]. To obtain a better overview of the diseases the patients were
34 categorized into 3 main groups; (a) cardiovascular, (b) non-infectious fevers and (c) other
35 diagnoses. The group (c) included patients having either indicated or confirmed bacterial
36 infections; 75% of all patients in the NTH and 67% in the TH. The groups (a) and (b) with
37 non-infectious diseases were purposefully selected for detail study (Figure 1).
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

50 **Figure 1. The process of selection and grouping of inpatients admitted in medicine departments** 51 **of the TH and the NTH based on their diagnosis.**

52
53 In order to identify and analyse the patients without any suspected bacterial infection as per
54 the aim, these groups were further divided into four sub-groups as presented in Figure 1. The
55 cardiovascular group was divided in two sub-groups; sub-group 1: 'cardiovascular diseases
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 with no registered bacterial infection', sub-group 2: 'cardiovascular diseases with suspected
4 bacterial infection'. Similarly, the non-infectious fever group was divided as sub-group 3:
5 'malaria or viral fever with no registered bacterial infection' and sub-group 4: 'malaria or viral
6 fever with suspected bacterial infection' (Figure 1).
7
8
9

10
11
12 All cases of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) were included in the bacterial
13 infection groups since the aetiology of disease was seldom specified but these patients should
14 receive less restricted antibiotic treatment. All patients with rheumatic heart disease (RHD)
15 were categorized among patients with suspected bacterial infection, since the WHO
16 guidelines for secondary prevention after rheumatic fever sets the duration of preventive
17 antibiotic treatment from five years up to life-long, depending on a number of factors e.g.
18 Time since last episode of rheumatic fever and severity of valve engagement,[19]. It also
19 supports an individual assessment in every patient case. An antibiotic prescribed for a day
20 was considered as one prescribing occasion and prescribed DDDs were calculated per 1000
21 patients for the four sub-groups. According to WHOCC, oral metronidazole (P01AB01) is
22 coded as an antiprotozoal drug, but in the National List of Essential Medicines of India
23 (NLEMI) oral metronidazole is coded as an antibacterial drug and was therefore considered as
24 an antibacterial in this study,[16].
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41

42 **Ethics statement**

43
44 Being an observational study, the data collection did not interfere with the treatment or caused
45 any extra risks for the patients. Moreover, the names of the prescribers were not recorded to
46 rule out the effect of being observed. All patients were assigned a unique code during the data
47 entry to maintain anonymity of the inpatients. This unique code was used to compare details
48 of patient information and antibiotic prescriptions for the analysis. The ethics committee of
49 Ruxmaniben Deepchand Gardi Medical College, Ujjain, approved the study with approval
50 number: 41/2007.
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Statistical Methods

All frequency and percentage of categorical values were calculated. Sum, median, mean, range and standard deviation were calculated for continuous numerical values. Values were rounded off to the closest whole number for percentage, prescription tables and in the text. The independent t-test was used for comparison of normal distributed and continuous variables. The chi-square test was used for comparison of categorical values. Fischer's exact test was used for expected <0.05 and Pearson chi-square test was used for expected values >0.05. Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons was used and p-values <0.001 were chosen for significance level to minimize the risks of type one errors. The data were analysed with Excel, SPSS version 22 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) and STATA version 13.1 (Stata Corp, College station, TX, USA).

RESULTS

During the study period, totally 21558 patients were admitted in the two medicine departments, 7177 patients were admitted in the TH and 14381 in the NTH (Figure 1). As per the inclusion criteria, 20303 (94%) patients qualified as inpatients (6961 in the TH and 13342 in the NTH) and were included for further analysis.

In the TH 4540/6961 inpatients (65%) and in the NTH, 8900/13342 inpatients (67%) were prescribed antibiotics. An average of eight prescribing occasions were found per patient at the TH whereas in the NTH five antibiotic prescriptions were found per patient. Overall significantly higher proportion of the antibiotics prescribed in the TH adhered to the NLEMI; 77% prescriptions (27649/35732) than in the NTH; 60% (24683/41068, $p < 0.001$).

Seven percent of all antibiotic prescriptions were made by using generic names in the TH which was significantly higher compared with the NTH (2%, $p < 0.001$). At the TH, trade names; 'Cipro', 'Doxy', Genta' and 'Metrogyl' were used as local abbreviations for ciprofloxacin, doxycycline, gentamycin and metronidazole respectively. Longer duration of

1
2
3 stay and longer duration of antibiotic treatment was observed at the TH (mean days; 6 and 6
4
5 respectively) compared to the NTH (mean days; 3 and 4 respectively, $p<0.001$).
6
7

8 **Distribution of inpatients in diagnosis groups and antibiotic prescription patterns**

9
10 The most common diagnoses differed at the two hospitals. At department level in the TH,
11 chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) (10%), viral fever (7%) and hypertension
12 (5%) were more common and at the NTH; viral fever (10%), malaria (6%) and COPD (5%,
13 Table 1). Among the non-infectious diagnoses group; cardiovascular (ICD-10 codes
14 beginning with 'I') accounted for 48% of the group at the TH and 30% at the NTH. In the
15 fever group, malaria was significantly more common at the NTH (74% patients) and viral
16 infection was significantly more common at the TH (66% patients, $p<0.001$). Totally at the
17 NTH broad-spectrum antibiotics such as third-generation cephalosporins (J01DD) and FDCs
18 (J01RA*) comprised 52% of prescribing occasions of which FDCs accounted for 23% of
19 occasions. At the TH these classes accounted for 13% of the total prescribing occasions with
20 FDCs<1%. Demographic details and class wise distribution of prescribed antibiotic among all
21 selected diagnoses groups of patients is presented in Table 2 and 3 respectively.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37

38 At the NTH, cephalosporin (J01D) was the most commonly prescribed class in the
39 cardiovascular group (>35%), where third-generation cephalosporins (J01DD) constituted a
40 major part of it (>30%) followed by FDCs (>20%). Fluoroquinolones (J01M) was the most
41 commonly prescribed antibiotic class in the TH in both cardiovascular and fever groups
42 (>30%, and >40% respectively).
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Table 1: Diagnoses of the four groups of inpatients at medicine departments at one teaching and one non-teaching hospitals in Ujjain, India

Cardiovascular with no registered bacterial infection			Cardiovascular with suspected bacterial infection			Malaria or Viral Fever with no registered bacterial infection			Malaria or Viral Fever with suspected bacterial infection		
Diagnosis group	TH	NTH	Diagnosis group	TH	NTH	Diagnosis group	TH	NTH	Diagnosis group	TH	NTH
	n(%)	n(%)		n(%)	n(%)		n(%)	n(%)		n(%)	n(%)
Total	1068	1738	Total	438	254	Total	693	1177	Total	55	28
Hypertension	328(31)	470(27)	COPD	209(48)	77(30)	Malaria	237(34)	872(74)	COPD	10(18)	5(18)
Cerebro vascular accident	126(12)	383(22)	Rheumatic Heart Disease	130(30)	102(40)	Cerebral smalaria caused by P. Falciparum	4(1)	11(1)	Urinarytrac tinfection	5(9)	7(25)
Acute Myocardial Infarction	28(3)	202(12)	Pulmonary Tuberculosis	19(4)	18(7)	Malaria caused by P. Falciparum UNS	9(1)	9(1)	Tyfoild fever	8(15)	2(7)
Chronic Ischemic Heart Disease	17(2)	189(11)	Urinarytract infection	17(4)	15(6)	Malaria caused by P. Vivax UNS	16(2)	61(5)	Acute gastroenteritis	4(7)	6(21)
Coronary Artery Disease	98(9)	101(6)	Acute Gastroenteritis	14(3)	12(5)	Malaria UNS	208(30)	791(67)	Disease of airways UNS	8(15)	0(0)
Left Ventricle Failure	44(4)	69(4)	Lower airway infection UNS	13(3)	0(0)	Viral fever	456(66)	305(26)	Disease of upper airways UNS	7(13)	0(0)
Congestive Heart Failure	56(5)	39(2)	Sepsis	0(0)	5(2)				Pulmonary Tuberculosis	4(7)	2(7)
Dilated Cardiomyopathy	79(7)	6(<1)	HIV with infection	8(2)	1(<1)				HIV with infection	2(4)	0(0)
Unspecified Cardiomyopathy	21(2)	54(3)	Rheumatic Fever	1(<1)	4(2)				Rheumatic Heart Disease	2(4)	1(4)
Multiple Valve Disease	61(6)	7(<1)	Endocarditis	0(0)	4(2)				Pelvic Inflammatory Disease	2(4)	0(0)
Angina Pectoris	10(1)	35(2)	Pneumonia	1(<1)	4(2)				Pneumonia	0(0)	1(4)
Acute Ischemic Heart Disease	31(3)	11(1)	Others	26(6)	12(5)				Other diagnoses	3(5)	4(14)
Deep Vein Thrombosis UNS	13(1)	19(1)									
Mitral Stenosis	21(2)	2(<1)									
Hypertensive Heart Disease	20(2)	1(<1)									
Cardiac arrest	2(<1)	16(1)									
Other	113(11)	134(8)									

Abbreviations: n(%)- Number of patients (percentage in that diagnosis group), NTH-non-teaching hospital, TH-teaching hospital, COPD-chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, UNS-unspecified, P.-plasmodium, HIV-human immunodeficiency virus.

Table 2: Demographic details and antibiotic prescribing information of the inpatients at medicine departments at one teaching and one non-teaching hospitals in Ujjain, India

	Medicine Department			Cardiovascular with no registered bacterial diagnosis			Cardiovascular with suspected bacterial infection			Malaria or Viral Fever with no registered bacterial diagnosis			Malaria or Viral Fever with suspected bacterial infection		
	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value
Inpatients; n	6961	13342		1068	1738		438	254		693	1177		55	28	
Age; mean years (SD)	45 (17)	43 (18)	<0.001	53 (14)	55 (15)	<0.001	49 (17)	51 (17)	0.222	36 (15)	35 (16)	0.387	37 (14)	40 (20)	0.440
Inpatients prescribed AB; n (%)	4540 (65)	8900 (67)	0.034	392 (37)	808 (47)	<0.001	299 (68)	179 (71)	0.545	569 (82)	831 (71)	<0.001	53 (96)	21 (75)	0.006 ^a
Duration of hospital stay; mean days (SD)	6 (5)	3 (3)	<0.001	6 (5)	3 (3)	<0.001	7 (5)	4 (3)	<0.001	4 (4)	3 (2)	<0.001	5 (3)	4(2)	0.796
Duration of AB treatment; mean days (SD)	6 (4)	4 (2)	<0.001	6 (4)	4 (2)	<0.001	7 (4)	4 (2)	<0.001	5 (3)	4 (2)	<0.001	5 (2)	5(2)	0.419
Total AB prescription; n	35732	41068		2741	3366		2388	855		3210	3451		316	128	
Prescriptions per patient	7.8	4.6		7	4		8	4.8		5.6	4.2		6	6.1	
AB prescriptions by generic name; n (%)	2341 (7)	685 (2)	<0.001	175 (6)	47 (1)	<0.001	282 (12)	46 (5)	<0.001	61 (2)	52 (2)	0.214	19 (6)	5 (4)	0.374 ^a
Prescriptions of AB found in NLEMI; n (%)	27640 (77)	24683 (60)	<0.001	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Abbreviations: AB-antibiotics, NTH: non-teaching hospital, SD-standard deviation, TH: teaching hospital. Significant p-values are shown in bold. Independent sample t-test was used to compare age, duration of hospital stay and duration of antibiotic treatment. Pearson chi-square was used to compare prescription details with expected value >5. ^aFischer's exact test was used to compare expected values <5.

Table 3: Class wise distribution of prescribed antibiotics in four selected diagnoses groups at one teaching and one non-teaching hospitals in Ujjain, India

Name of AB; ATC-code	Cardiovascular with no registered bacterial infection			Cardiovascular with suspected bacterial infection			Malaria or Viral with no registered bacterial infection			Malaria or Viral Fever with suspected bacterial infection		
	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value
Total prescriptions	n (%)	n (%)		n (%)	n (%)		n (%)	n (%)		n (%)	n (%)	
	2741	3366		2388	855		3210	3451		316	128	
Tetracyclines; J01A: J01AA	284 (10)	5 (0)	<0.001	243 (10)	0 (0)		553 (17)	75 (2)	<0.001	83 (26)	0 (0)	
Beta-lactam ABs, penicillin; J01C	458 (17)	498 (15)	0.041	622 (26)	184 (22)	0.009	111 (3)	245 (7)	<0.001	12 (4)	7 (5)	0.431
Extended-spectrum penicillins; J01CA	83 (3)	99 (3)	0.843	122 (5)	99 (12)	<0.001	19 (1)	51 (1)	<0.001	0 (0)	2 (2)	
Combination of penicillin incl. Beta-lactamase AB; J01CR	373 (14)	399 (12)	0.040	500 (21)	85 (10)	<0.001	92 (3)	194 (6)	<0.001	12 (4)	5 (4)	1.0 ^a
Other Beta-lactam; J01D	488 (18)	1391 (41)	<0.001	353 (15)	304 (36)	<0.001	665 (21)	1792 (52)	<0.001	40 (13)	39 (30)	<0.001
1st gen. cephalosporins; J01DB	7 (0)	16 (1)	0.163	0 (0)	5 (1)		0 (0)	9 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
2nd gen. cephalosporins; J01DC	0 (0)	98 (3)		0 (0)	27 (3)		0 (0)	168 (5)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
3rd gen. cephalosporins; J01DD	481 (18)	1254 (37)	<0.001	353 (15)	272 (32)	<0.001	665 (21)	1606 (47)	<0.001	40 (13)	39 (30)	<0.001
4th gen. cephalosporins; J01DH	8 (0)	23 (1)	0.032	0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	9 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Sulfonamide with timethoprim; J01E: J01EE	8 (0)	0 (0)		18 (1)	0 (0)		8 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Macrolides, lincosamides J01F	16 (1)	2 (0)	<0.001	4 (0)	6 (1)	0.025*	15 (0)	7 (0)	0.060	3 (1)	4 (3)	0.110 ^a
Macrolides; J01FA	12 (0)	2	0.002	4 (0)	6 (1)		15 (0)	7 (0)		3 (1)	4 (3)	
Lincosamides; J01FF	4 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Aminoglycoside; J01G: J01GB	78 (3)	73 (2)	0.090	149 (6)	46 (5)	0.364	17 (1)	60 (2)	<0.001	11 (3)	9 (7)	0.102
Quinolones; J01M: J01MA	1031 (38)	301 (9)	<0.001	731 (31)	112 (13)	<0.001	1526 (48)	464 (13)	<0.001	126 (40)	37 (29)	0.030
Fixed dose combination of ABs; J01R: J01RA*	12 (0)	929 (28)	<0.001	31 (1)	170 (20)	<0.001	34 (1)	669 (19)	<0.001	6 (2)	17 (13)	<0.01
Other ABs; J01X	167 (6)	176 (5)	0.145	132 (6)	30 (4)	0.020	149 (5)	138 (4)	0.197	20 (6)	15 (12)	0.056
Glycopeptide ABs; J01XA	15 (1)	176 (5)	<0.001	0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Imidazole derivatives; J01XD	152 (6)	0 (0)		132 (6)	30 (4)	0.020	149 (5)	137 (4)	0.176	20 (6)	15 (12)	0.056
Other ABs; J01XX	0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	1 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Drugs for treatment of tuberculosis; J04A	0 (0)	0 (0)		24 (1)	0 (0)		0	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Antibiotics; J04AB (Treatment for Tuberculosis)	0 (0)	0 (0)		6 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Hydrazides; J04AC	0 (0)	0 (0)		6 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Other drugs for treatment of tuberculosis; J04AK	0 (0)	0 (0)		12 (1)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Nitroimidazole derivatives; P01AB (Oral Metronidazole)	201 (7)	0 (0)		81 (3)	3 (0)	<0.001	132 (4)	1 (0)	<0.001	15 (5)	0 (0)	

Abbreviations: : n(%)- Number of patients (percentage in antibiotic class),AB-antibiotics, ATC-WHO anatomic therapeutic chemical classification, NTH: non-teaching hospital, TH: teaching hospital. Significant p-values shown in bold. Pearson chi-square and ^aFischer's exact test were used to compare antibiotic prescribing details, gen- generation.

1
2
3 Third-generation cephalosporins (J01DD) constituted 47% and 30% prescriptions among sub-
4
5 group 3 and 4 at the NTH, followed by FDCs in 19% and 29% prescriptions respectively.
6
7 Overall, antibiotic prescriptions were significantly more common among the patients in
8
9 'malaria or viral fever with no registered bacterial infections group' than in the 'cardiovascular
10
11 diseases with no registered bacterial infections' ($p < 0.001$). None of the records from the four
12
13 sub-groups had requisition for sending samples for bacterial culture.
14
15

16
17 The most frequently prescribed antibiotic substance measured in DDD/1000 patients at
18
19 department level of the TH was ciprofloxacin (J01MA02) and at the NTH was ceftriaxone
20
21 (J01DD04). DDDs calculated as DDD per 1000 patients in four sub-groups are described in
22
23 Table 4. Ciprofloxacin had highest prescribed DDDs/1000 patient followed by doxycycline
24
25 and ceftriaxone in both hospitals (Figure 2).
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Table 4: Most commonly prescribed antibiotics among the selected diagnoses groups presenting the prescribing occasions in DDDs/1000 patients at sixth level of the ATC classification

Name; ATC-code	Cardiovascular with no registered bacterial infection n (%)		Cardiovascular with suspected bacterial infection n (%)		Malaria or Viral Fever with no registered bacterial infection n (%)		Malaria or Viral Fever with suspected bacterial infection n (%)	
	TH	NTH	TH	NTH	TH	NTH	TH	NTH
Total DDDs/1000 patients	2062 (99)	1456 (100)	4514 (99)	3421 (100 [#])	4480 (100 [#])	3048 (100 [#])	5432 (100 [#])	5827 (100)
Doxycycline, J01AA02	491 (24)		1030 (23)		1463 (33)	296 (10)	2745 (51)	
Ampicillin, J01CA01	68 (3)		170 (4)					
Amoxicillin, J01CA04		81 (6)		435 (13)				
Amoxicillin + Clavulanic acid, J01CR02				566 (17)		88 (3)		
Piperacillin + Tazobactam, J01CR05						34 (1)		
Ampicillin + Cloxacillin, J01CR50	217 (11)		774 (17)				191 (4)	
Cefuroxime, J01DC02				95 (3)		136 (4)		
Cefprozil, J01DC10		75 (5)						
Cefotaxime, J01DD01	172 (8)	46 (3)	298 (7)	59 (2)	199 (4)	96 (3)	295 (5)	
Ceftriaxone, J01DD04	133 (6)	558 (38)	244 (5)	907 (27)	560 (13)	1052 (35)	164 (3)	1402 (24)
Azithromycin, J01FA10								476 (8)
Gentamicin, J01GB03	44 (2)		167 (4)	81 (2)				
Amikacin, J01GB06								321 (6)
Ofloxacin, J01MA01						202 (7)		
Ciprofloxacin, J01MA02	687 (33)	141 (10)	1057 (23)	527 (15)	1940 (43)	602 (20)	1185 (22)	2886 (50)
Norfloxacin, J01MA06			201 (4)				273 (5)	
Levofloxacin, J01MA12		73 (5)	202 (4)	129 (4)			145 (3)	
Cefoperazone + Sulbactam, J01RA*83		92 (6)		94 (3)		90 (3)		125 (2)
Ceftriaxone + Sulbactam, J01RA*84		228 (16)		277 (8)		199 (7)		
Ceftriaxone + Tazobactam, J01RA*85		162 (11)		156 (5)		162 (5)		250 (4)
Metronidazole, J01XD01	139 (7)		262 (6)	95 (3)	204 (5)	91 (3)	262 (5)	367 (6)
Metronidazole, P01AB01 (Oral)	111 (5)		109 (2)		114 (3)		172 (3)	

Abbreviations: : n(%)- Number of patients (percentage), AB: antibiotics, DDD: Defined Daily Dose, NTH: non-teaching hospital, TH: teaching hospital, [#] rounding off the percentages to nearest integer made the total more than 100%

1
2
3 **Figure 2. Top 90% of prescription in the four selected groups measured in DDD/1000 patients,**
4 **presented at fourth level of the ATC classification at one teaching and one non-teaching**
5 **hospitals in Ujjain, India**
6

7 **DISCUSSION**

8
9 To our knowledge this is the first study that presented antibiotic prescription practices at
10 medicine departments in Indian private sector hospitals focusing the non-bacterial infection
11 diseases. This also leads to a limitation as the results of present study could not be compared
12 with any other study thus the results were compared with most equivalent studies available.
13
14 Antibiotics were commonly prescribed to the inpatients at both study hospitals. Irrespective of
15 the indications, broad-spectrum antibiotics and third-generation cephalosporins that are to be
16 conserved for high risks co-morbidities and life-threatening bacterial infections were
17 prescribed frequently. The study also highlights high rates of antibiotic prescriptions for the
18 selected groups of non-bacterial infectious diseases such as cardiovascular disease, malaria
19 and viral fever.
20
21

22 **Antibiotic prescription in the cardiovascular and fever groups**

23
24 The average prescription rate at the medicine departments were higher (TH: 65% and NTH:
25 67%, $p < 0.001$) when compared with the rates at the medicine department of a Government
26 hospital at Bathalapalli, (Andhra Pradesh) India (63%),[21]. Cardiovascular diseases are
27 primarily non-infectious with a few exceptions such as rheumatic fever, endocarditis,
28 pericarditis and myocarditis (bacterial or viral). COPD and RHD are the common associated
29 diseases among the cardiovascular patients. Rheumatic fever is an immune response sequel to
30 an infection and may cause endocarditis,[19, 22]. Pericarditis and myocarditis are however
31 most commonly developed from viral pathogens where antibiotic treatment is not
32 recommended routinely,[23, 24].
33
34

35
36 Interestingly, more than 35% of inpatients among 'cardiovascular group with no registered
37 bacterial infection' were prescribed antibiotics in both hospitals. As per the treatment
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 guidelines and recommendations, only the patients who have confirmed infectious diagnosis
4
5 are expected to receive an antibiotic prescription,[15, 16]. Therefore, the practice of
6
7 prescribing antibiotics in absence of indications among the cardiovascular patients could be
8
9 termed as unnecessary. Among the COPD and RHD patients the aetiology of current episode
10
11 of hospitalization could be potentially expected to be non-bacterial e.g. viral infection.
12
13 Although could not be confirmed due to unclear patients' records, but prescribing antibiotics
14
15 to 35% cases in the group could not be justified.
16
17

18
19 FDCs were prescribed at higher extent to the cardiovascular patients at the NTH than at the
20
21 TH. Rationality of the newer FDCs coded with ATC-code: J01RA* is not established yet and
22
23 these combinations are neither listed in the NLEMI nor in the WHOLEM,[16, 17]. It is also
24
25 evident that the constituents of these combinations are often present in smaller quantities than
26
27 recommended which might lead to incept the development of antibiotic resistance,[25].
28
29

30
31 The sub-group 'malaria or viral fever with suspected bacterial infection' presented highest rate
32
33 of antibiotic prescriptions among all four sub-groups (TH: 96%, NTH 75%). Our result also
34
35 highlights that fever was perceived higher risk for the inpatients to receive antibiotic
36
37 prescriptions, than having cardiovascular diseases. Fever is a common symptom among
38
39 malaria, viral fever and bacterial infection. Therefore, the doctors might have prescribed
40
41 antibiotics as a 'prophylactic' treatment to treat bacterial infection, if any. The result was
42
43 higher yet comparable with a study at primary and secondary health care settings in Uttar
44
45 Pradesh, India. That study showed that 85% of the fever patients were prescribed
46
47 antibiotics,[26]. Additionally, in our study high percentage of patients with fever (malaria and
48
49 viral fever) with 'no registered bacterial infection' were prescribed antibiotics (TH: 82%,
50
51 NTH: 71%). An out-patient study from Uganda, a malaria endemic country, showed that 42%
52
53 malaria patients were prescribed antibiotics without any registered indication,[27]. Although
54
55 majority of the prescriptions in the study were empirical thus the rationality of the
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 prescriptions cannot be evaluated. However, prescribing antibiotics to non-bacterial infections
4
5 is termed as irrational practice and need an imperative attention.
6
7

8 **Adherence to the essential medicine lists and prescriptions by generic name**

9

10 According to WHO, prescribing by generic name is part of rational prescribing and the drug
11 policy applicable for both public and private Indian healthcare settings. Prescribing and
12 purchasing by generic name is cost effective and provide flexibility to buy the available
13 medicine of any company. However, the presumed adherence is higher at public hospitals,
14 followed at 'private non-profit' hospitals and lastly at the 'private for-profit' hospitals,[11, 12,
15 28]. In present study, antibiotic prescriptions made by generic names among the patients of
16 cardiovascular diseases with no registered bacterial infection (TH: 6%, NTH: 1% $p<0.001$)
17 and with suspected bacterial infection (TH: 12% NTH: 5% $p<0.001$) were significantly lower
18 at the NTH than at the TH. Third-generation cephalosporins (J01D, 29%) and FDCs (J01RA*,
19 23%) were most commonly prescribed classes at the NTH while quinolones were most
20 commonly prescribed at the TH during the study period (J01M, 37%, NTH: 13%). Previous
21 studies from Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh, India have also shown similar results for
22 academic and non-academic hospitals,[11, 12, 15]. High prescribing of these classes are
23 further supported by Van Boeckel et al, they observed a huge increase in the consumption of
24 fluoroquinolones and cephalosporins all over the globe over past decade. This increase was
25 mainly contributed by the rates of India and China,[9]. At the NTH prescriptions of FDCs
26 varied between 19 and 28% among the selected sub-groups (TH: $<2\%$) and the prescriptions
27 of third-generation cephalosporins varied between 30 and 47% (TH: $<22\%$). According to the
28 WHO, prescription of multiple drugs when not indicated, prescribed in inadequate doses
29 (often constituted in smaller quantity than recommended) and prescription of drugs that are
30 not in accordance to the local or national clinical guidelines are all examples of actions
31 deemed inappropriate,[29]. All these traits may be true for the prescriptions of the newer
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 FDCs (J01RA*) in present study, both study hospitals are from private sector and are
4 regulated by the same trust on 'not for-profit' basis. The differences in the prescribing
5 practices might be an influence of the fact that academic hospitals are a part of the educational
6 process and regular educational activities conducted at these hospitals reflects in better
7 adherence to the guidelines, as presented at the TH. Another reason for frequent prescribing
8 of broad-spectrum antibiotics, new FDCs and use of trade names at the NTH could be
9 explained by the results of a review by Blumenthal et al,[30]. The review concluded that
10 physicians who had received gifts or money from the pharmaceutical companies were more
11 likely to prescribe drugs produced by the company and less prone to use generic names. The
12 pressure from pharmaceutical companies could be anticipated on the doctors at the NTH, due
13 to unrestricted visits of pharmaceutical company representatives. Moreover, these new FDCs
14 of antibiotics are more expensive than regular and generic formulations and generate extra
15 earnings to the doctors. The restriction of these visits and the management control over the
16 purchase and supply of medicines could be seen as main reasons for low FDCs prescribing
17 and high use of generic names at the TH. Interestingly trade names were used as local
18 abbreviations for the four antibiotics namely ciprofloxacin, doxycycline, gentamycin and
19 metronidazole at the TH as discussed in method section. Only generic drugs were purchased
20 and dispensed at the TH due to administrative control over purchase and supply of the drugs.
21 Thus even if these antibiotics were prescribed by an abbreviation similar to the trade names
22 these were included in adherence to generic name prescribing.

47 **Duration of stay and duration of antibiotic treatment**

48
49
50 In present study both duration of stay and duration of antibiotic treatment were longer at the
51 TH compared to the NTH among all inpatients groups. This could be explained by the fact
52 that the charges of healthcare and drugs were supplied free at the TH, making the stay
53 economically feasible at the TH than at the NTH where they had to pay for all services and
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 medicines. This association of longer duration of stay and antibiotic treatment at TH has also
4
5 been observed in previous studies from India,[11, 15, 31]. However, it is evident that the
6
7 treatment given for both shorter or longer time period than recommended, is irrational and
8
9 substantially contributes to the development of antibiotic resistance,[1, 29].

11 **GENERALISABILITY**

12
13
14 The data collection method is robust and reliable. The data collection method and tool could
15
16 easily be adapted at other tertiary care hospitals that lack computerized patient records to suit
17
18 the needs of the hospitals. Recruitment of the nursing staff routinely working in the
19
20 department, for manual data collection would have helped to minimize the influence of study
21
22 on the prescribers. High prescribing rates of antibiotics and use of FDCs among inpatients in
23
24 these settings could broadly be considered as representative for similar health care settings in
25
26 low-middle income countries.
27
28
29

31 **CONCLUSION**

32
33 At the TH, higher percentage of prescribing occasions adhered to the guidelines than at the
34
35 NTH, however, the overall adherence was low. Fever was a risk factor to receive antibiotic
36
37 prescription at both hospitals. Patients with non-bacterial infections such as malaria or viral
38
39 fever or cardiovascular diseases were prescribed antibiotics at both medicine departments
40
41 which could not be justified. Broad spectrum antibiotics with irrational combinations of
42
43 antibiotics were commonly prescribed in the study hospitals in non-indicated conditions.
44
45
46

48 **FUTURE IMPLICATIONS**

49
50 Development and implementation of local diagnosis specific prescribing guidelines along
51
52 with continuous follow-up of prescriptions under antibiotic stewardship programs is needed
53
54 for the settings. The results from the TH indicate a promising effect of management control to
55
56 minimise antibiotic prescribing, for better adherence to the NLEMI and use of generic names
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 compared to the NTH and could be tested in other settings. Improving hygiene is another
4
5 recommendation for prevention of infections and to decrease the 'prophylactic' use of
6
7 antibiotics. Lack of 'culture of sending cultures' is another concern at the settings. Motivating
8
9 the physicians of both settings to send cultures before prescribing antibiotics is also
10
11 suggested.
12

13 14 **CONTRIBUTERSHIP STATEMENT**

15
16
17 MS and CSL designed, visualized the research question and developed the data collection
18
19 tool. MS conducted repeated training sessions for nursing personal for recording the data. MS
20
21 was also responsible for coordination with the nursing staff, monitoring and supervision of the
22
23 data collection and entry. CSL participated in planning the study design and the coordination
24
25 of the study. KL, CSL and MS participated in the conception and design of the present study
26
27 and revising the paper critically for substantial intellectual content. KL grouped and analyzed
28
29 the data, performed the statistical analysis and contributed in drafting the manuscript along
30
31 with MS, CSL, FJ and AS. KL, AS and MS were responsible for categorization of the
32
33 patients. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.
34
35
36
37

38 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

39
40 The authors have no competing interests to declare.
41
42

43 **FUNDING**

44
45
46 This study was supported by the Swedish Research Council (K2007-70X-20514-01-3) and
47
48 Asia Link (348-2006-6633). KL and FJ both received scholarships from Sida to visit the study
49
50 settings and perform the study. MS is a recipient of a scholarship from Erasmus Mundus
51
52 External Cooperation Window Lot-15, India.
53
54

55 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

1
2
3 The authors are thankful to all nurses and the management of both hospitals for their support
4
5 and help during the study.
6
7

8 DATA SHARING STATEMENT

9
10
11 As per the institutional policy, the data is available with the Institutional ethics committee.

12
13 This is to protect the patient's confidentiality and to ensure the electronic security of the data.

14
15 The data could be made available to all interested researchers upon request made to; The
16
17 Chairman, Ethics Committee, R.D. Gardi Medical College, Agar Road, Ujjain, Madhya
18
19 Pradesh, India 456006 (Email: iecrdgmcc@yahoo.in, uctharc@sancharnet.in), giving all details
20
21 of the article. The ethical approval number: 41/2007 needs to be quoted along with the
22
23 request.
24
25
26
27
28
29

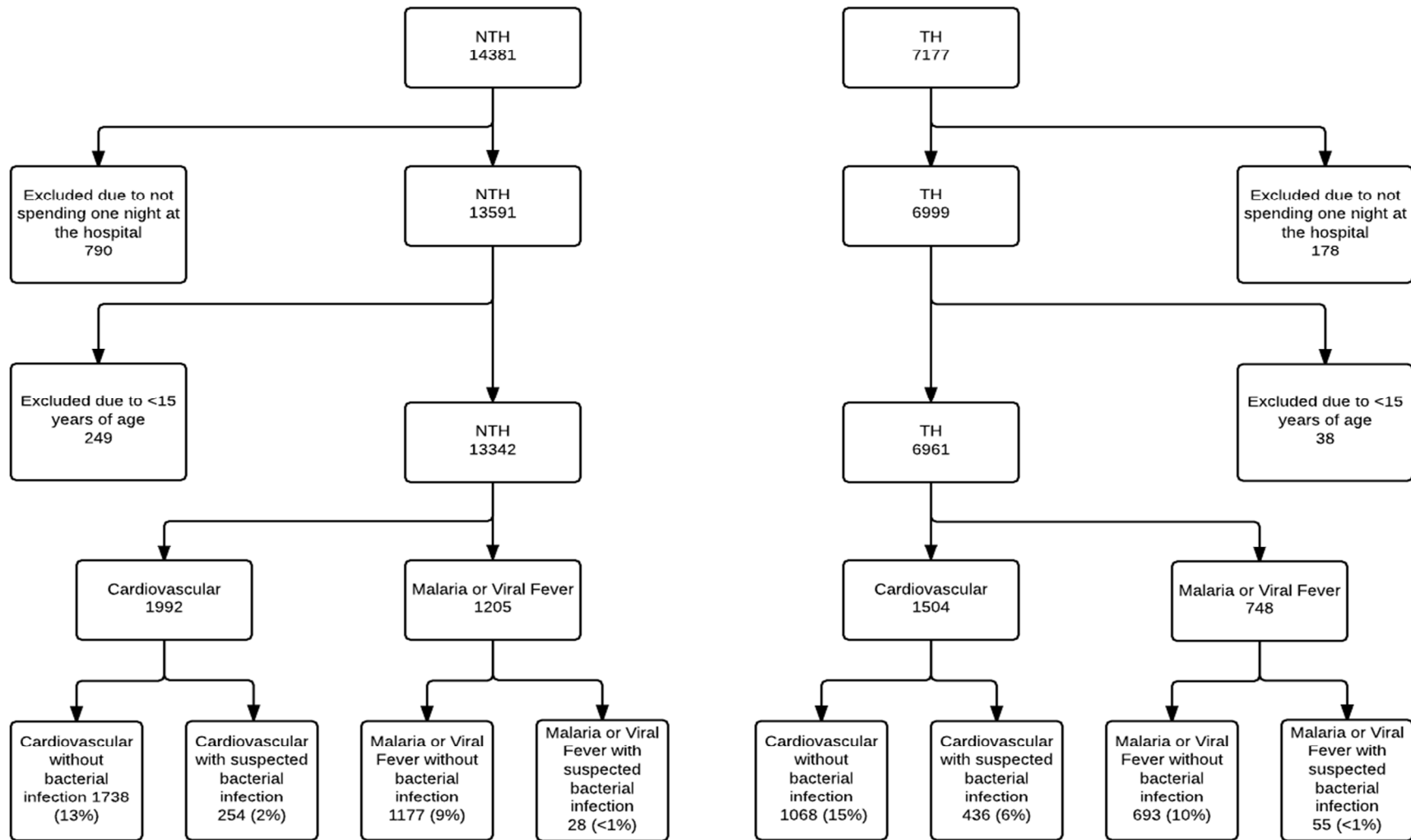
30 References

- 31
32
33 1. World Health Organization. The evolving threat of antimicrobial resistance: Options
34 for action. WHO Publications. Geneva; 2014;
35 http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2012/9789241503181_eng.pdf(accessed 2015
36 Mar 13)
37
38 2. World Health Organization. The top 10 causes of death. Geneva; 2014;
39 <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs310/en/>(accessed 2015 Mar 13)
40
41 3. Global Antibiotic Resistance Partnership (GARP) India Working Group. Rationalizing
42 antibiotic use to limit antibiotic resistance in India. *Indian J Med Res.* 2011.134:281–
43 94.
44
45 4. Bhutta Z a, Sommerfeld J, Lassi ZS, et al. Global burden, distribution, and
46 interventions for infectious diseases of poverty. *Infect Dis poverty.* 2014.3(1):21.
47
48 5. Global Antibiotic Resistance Partnership (GARP) India Working Group. Antibiotic
49 Use and Resistance in India. New Dehli; 2011;
50 [http://www.cddep.org/publications?page=1&f\[0\]=field_region:13](http://www.cddep.org/publications?page=1&f[0]=field_region:13)(accessed 2015 Mar
51 13)
52
53 6. World Health Organization. Disease and injury country estimates: Burden of disease.
54
55 Geneva;
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 http://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/estimates_country/en/index.html
4 (accessed 2015 Mar 13)
5
6
7 7. Kumar SG, Adithan C, Harish BN, et al. Antimicrobial resistance in India: A review. *J*
8 *Nat Sci Biol Med.* 2013.4(2):286–91.
9
10 8. Wilcox MH, Freeman J, Fawley W, et al. Long-term surveillance of cefotaxime and
11 piperacillin – tazobactam prescribing and incidence of *Clostridium difficile* diarrhoea.
12 *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2004.54(1):168–72.
13
14 9. Van Boeckel TP, Gandra S, Ashok A, et al. Global antibiotic consumption 2000 to
15 2010: An analysis of national pharmaceutical sales data. *Lancet Infect Dis.*
16 2014.14(April):742–50.
17
18 10. The World Bank. World development indicators, GNI per capita, Atlas method. 2015;
19 <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GNP.PCAP.CD>(accessed 2016 May 22)
20
21 11. Sharma M, Damlin AL, Sharma A, et al. Antibiotic prescribing in medical intensive
22 care units – a comparison between two private sector hospitals in Central India. *Infect*
23 *Dis (Auckl).* 2015.(February 2015):302–9.
24
25 12. Sharma M, Damlin A, Pathak A, et al. Antibiotic Prescribing among Pediatric
26 Inpatients with Potential Infections in Two Private Sector Hospitals in Central India.
27 *PLoS One.* 2015.10.
28 <http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0142317>
29
30 13. WHOCC. ATC/DDD Index. 2015; http://www.whooc.no/atc_ddd_index/(accessed
31 2015 Mar 13)
32
33 14. WHO Int WG for Drug Statistics Methodology. Introduction to Drug Utilization
34 Research. Oslo; 2003; p. 1–48.
35 http://www.whooc.no/filearchive/publications/drug_utilization_research.pdf(accessed
36 2015 Mar 13)
37
38 15. Sharma M, Eriksson B, Marrone G, et al. Antibiotic prescribing in two private sector
39 hospitals; one teaching and one non-teaching: A cross-sectional study in Ujjain, India.
40 *BMC Infect Dis.* 2012.12:155.
41
42 16. Organization CDSC. National List of Essential Medicines. New Dehli; 2011;
43 <http://pharmaceuticals.gov.in/nlem.pdf>(accessed 2015 Mar 13)
44
45 17. World Health Organization. Model List of Essential Medicines. Geneva; 2013; p. 1–43.
46 http://www.who.int/medicines/organization/par/edl/expcom13/eml13_en.pdf(accessed
47 2015 Mar 13)
48
49 18. Enzler MJ, Berbari E, Osmon DR. Antimicrobial prophylaxis in adults. *Mayo Clin*
50 *Proc.* 2011.86(1):686–701. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4065/mcp.2011.0012>
51
52 19. Bisno A, Butchart EG, Ganguly NK, et al. Rheumatic Fever and Rheumatic Heart
53 Disease. *Who Tech Rep Ser.* 2001.923(November 2001):1–122.
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

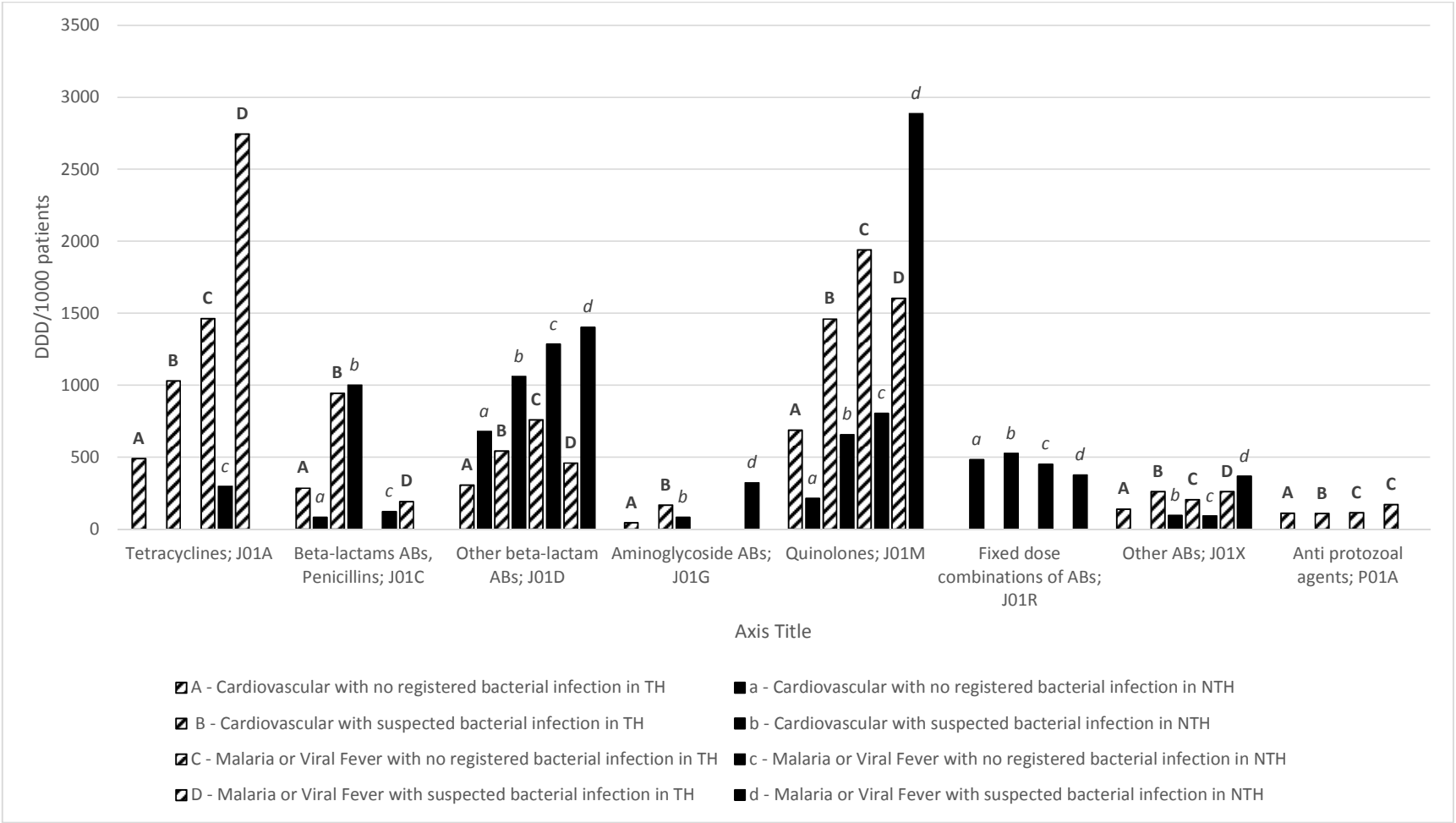
- 1
 - 2
 - 3
 - 4
 - 5
 - 6
 - 7
 - 8
 - 9
 - 10
 - 11
 - 12
 - 13
 - 14
 - 15
 - 16
 - 17
 - 18
 - 19
 - 20
 - 21
 - 22
 - 23
 - 24
 - 25
 - 26
 - 27
 - 28
 - 29
 - 30
 - 31
 - 32
 - 33
 - 34
 - 35
 - 36
 - 37
 - 38
 - 39
 - 40
 - 41
 - 42
 - 43
 - 44
 - 45
 - 46
 - 47
 - 48
 - 49
 - 50
 - 51
 - 52
 - 53
 - 54
 - 55
 - 56
 - 57
 - 58
 - 59
 - 60
20. World Health Organization. Guidelines for the treatment of malaria, 2nd edition. Geneva; 2010; p. 197p. http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2010/9789241547925_eng.pdf(accessed 2015 Mar 13)
21. Alvarez-uria G, Zachariah S, Thomas D. High prescription of antimicrobials in a rural district hospital in India. *Pharm Pr*. 2014.12(2):1–4.
22. Habib G, Hoen B, Tornos P, et al. Guidelines on the prevention, diagnosis, and treatment of infective endocarditis. *Eur Heart J*. 2009.30:2369–413.
23. Maisch B, Seferović PM, Ristić AD, et al. Guidelines on the Diagnosis and Management of Pericardial Diseases: Executive Summary. Vol. 25, *European Heart Journal*. 2004; p. 587–610.
24. Schultheiss HP, Khl U, Cooper LT. The management of myocarditis. *Eur Heart J*. 2011.32:2616–25.
25. Tripathi K. Essentials of Medical Pharmacology. Antimicrobial Drugs. 6th edition. 6th ed. New Dehli: Jaypee Brothers Medical Publishers; 2012;
26. Kumar R, Indira K, Rizvi a., et al. Antibiotic prescribing practices in primary and secondary health care facilities in Uttar Pradesh, India. *J Clin Pharm Ther*. 2008.33:625–34.
27. Means AR, Weaver MR, Burnett SM, et al. Correlates of inappropriate prescribing of antibiotics to patients with malaria in Uganda. *PLoS One*. 2014.9(2):1–7.
28. Pitaknetinan K, Tangcharoensathien V, Supachutikul a, et al. Profit, payment and pharmaceutical practices: perspectives from hospitals in Bangkok. *Health Policy*. 1999.46:179–94. <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10351667>
29. Who. Promoting rational use of medicines: core components. *WHO Policy Perspect Med*. 2002.:1–6. <http://apps.who.int/medicinedocs/pdf/h3011e/h3011e.pdf>
30. Blumenthal D. Doctors and Drug Companies. *N Engl J Med*. 2004.351:1885–7.
31. Pathak A, Mahadik K, Dhaneria SP, et al. Surveillance of antibiotic consumption using the “focus of infection” approach in 2 hospitals in Ujjain, India. *PLoS One*. 2012.7(6).

Figure 1. The process of selection and grouping of inpatients admitted in medicine departments of the TH and the NTH based on their diagnosis



Abbreviations: NTH: non-teaching hospital TH: teaching hospital

Figure 2: Top 90% of prescription in the four selected groups measured in DDD/1000 patients, presented at fourth level of the ATC classification at one teaching and one non-teaching hospitals in Ujjain, India



Abbreviations: AB-antibiotics NTH-non-teaching hospital, TH-teaching hospital, DDD- Defined Daily Doses

STROBE Statement—checklist of items that should be included in reports of observational studies

	Item No	Recommendation	Page number
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract	1
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found	2-3
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported	5
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any pre specified hypotheses	6
Methods			
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	6
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	6
Participants	6	(a) <i>Cohort study</i> —Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants. Describe methods of follow-up	7
		<i>Case-control study</i> —Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of case ascertainment and control selection. Give the rationale for the choice of cases and controls	
		<i>Cross-sectional study</i> —Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants	
		(b) <i>Cohort study</i> —For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and unexposed	
		<i>Case-control study</i> —For matched studies, give matching criteria and the number of controls per case	
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	7
Data sources/ measurement	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group	8
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	9
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	8

1	Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses.	8-10
2			If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why	
3				
4				
5	Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to	
6			control for confounding	
7				
8			(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and	
9			interactions	
10				
11			(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	
12				
13			(d) <i>Cohort study</i> —If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up	10
14			was addressed	
15				
16			<i>Case-control study</i> —If applicable, explain how matching of cases	
17			and controls was addressed	
18				
19			<i>Cross-sectional study</i> —If applicable, describe analytical methods	
20			taking account of sampling strategy	
21				
22			(e) Describe any sensitivity analyses	
23				
24				
25				
26				
27				
28				
29				
30				
31				
32				
33				
34				
35	Continued on next page			
36				
37				
38				
39				
40				
41				
42				
43				
44				
45				
46				
47				
48				
49				
50				
51				
52				
53				
54				
55				
56				
57				
58				
59				
60				

Continued on next page

Results			Page Number
Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed	10,12
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential confounders	10-12
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	
		(c) <i>Cohort study</i> —Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)	
Outcome data	15*	<i>Cohort study</i> —Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	11, 14-15
		<i>Case-control study</i> —Report numbers in each exposure category, or summary measures of exposure	
		<i>Cross-sectional study</i> —Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures	
Main results	16	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included (b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized (c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period	11,15,16 Figure 2
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses	
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	17
Limitations	19	Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias	17
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	18-20
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	21
Other information			
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	23

*Give information separately for cases and controls in case-control studies and, if applicable, for exposed and unexposed groups in cohort and cross-sectional studies.

BMJ Open

Antibiotic prescriptions to the inpatients having non-bacterial diagnosis at medicine departments of two private sector hospitals in Madhya Pradesh, India: a cross sectional study

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2016-012974.R1
Article Type:	Research
Date Submitted by the Author:	27-Sep-2016
Complete List of Authors:	Landstedt , Kristoffer; Karolinska Institutet, Global Health - Health Systems and Policy (HSP): Medicines, focusing antibiotics, Department of Public Health Sciences Sharma, Ashish; R. D. Gardi Medical College, Department of Medicine Johansson, Fredrik; Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden, Global Health - Health Systems and Policy (HSP): Medicines, focusing antibiotics, Department of Public Health Sciences Lundborg, Cecilia; Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden, Global Health - Health Systems and Policy (HSP): Medicines, focusing antibiotics, Department of Public Health Sciences Sharma, Megha; R. D. Gardi Medical College, Pharmacology; Karolinska Institutet, Global Health - Health Systems and Policy (HSP): Medicines, focusing antibiotics, Department of Public Health Sciences
Primary Subject Heading:	Public health
Secondary Subject Heading:	Epidemiology, Global health, Infectious diseases, Public health, Health services research
Keywords:	Antibiotics, Private sector hospitals, Medicine department, Inpatients, India, Non-Bacterial infections

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

1
2
3 **Antibiotic prescriptions to the inpatients having non-bacterial diagnosis at medicine**
4 **departments of two private sector hospitals in Madhya Pradesh, India: a cross sectional**
5 **study**
6

7 **Authors list:**

8 Kristoffer Landstedt¹, Ashish Sharma², Fredrik Johansson¹, Cecilia StålsbyLundborg^{1*}, Megha
9 Sharma^{1, 3*§}
10

11 ¹Global Health - Health Systems and Policy (HSP): Medicines, focusing antibiotics,
12 Department of Public Health Sciences, Karolinska Institutet, Tomtebodavägen 18A, 17177
13 Stockholm, Sweden
14

15 ²Department of Medicine, Ruxmaniben Deepchand Gardi Medical College, Ujjain, India
16

17 ³Department of Pharmacology, Ruxmaniben Deepchand Gardi Medical College, Ujjain, India
18
19

20
21
22 * Shared last authorship

23 §Corresponding author: Megha Sharma

24 Department of Pharmacology, Ruxmaniben Deepchand Gardi Medical College, Ujjain, India,
25 Mobile: +91-98273-61961, Office- +91-7368-261288
26
27

28
29 Global Health - Health Systems and Policy (HSP): Medicines, focusing antibiotics,
30 Department of Public Health Sciences, Karolinska Institutet, Tomtebodavägen 18A, 17177
31 Stockholm, Sweden
32
33

34
35
36
37
38 **Keywords:** Private sector hospitals, Medicine department, Antibiotics, Non-bacterial
39 infections, Inpatients, India
40
41
42
43
44

45 **Email addresses:**

46 KL: Landstedt_N@hotmail.com

47 AS: ashishricha2001@yahoo.co.in

48 FJ: fredrik.johansson@stud.ki.se

49 CSL: cecilia.stalsby.lundborg@ki.se

50 MS: meghasharma27@rediffmail.com
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Abstract

Objectives: To present and compare antibiotic prescribing among inpatients among most common non-bacterial diagnoses groups at medicine departments of a teaching (TH) and a non-teaching hospital (NTH) in Central India.

Setting: An observational cross-sectional study was conducted at two tertiary care settings at Ujjain district, Madhya Pradesh, India.

Participants: The data was collected manually, using a customized form. Complete records of all inpatients, who were >15 years of age and stayed at-least for one night in either of the hospitals during 2008-2011, were analysed.

Outcome measures: Inpatients were grouped based on the presence or absence of; a bacterial infectious diagnosis, viral/ malaria fever or cardiovascular diseases. Classes of antibiotics prescribed to these groups, and adherence to the available prescribing guidelines were compared between the hospitals using the notes from the patient files, and the diagnoses.

Results: Of 20303 inpatients included in the study, 66% were prescribed antibiotics. Trade name prescribing and use of broad spectrum antibiotics were more frequent at the NTH compared to the TH ($p<0.001$). At the TH significantly higher proportion of patients having fever without registered bacterial infection; were prescribed antibiotics (82%) compared with the NTH (71%, $p<0.001$). Patients admitted for cardiovascular diagnosis without registered bacterial infections received antibiotic prescriptions at both hospitals; (NTH- 47%and TH- 37%); it was significantly higher at the NTH ($p<0.001$). None of the diagnoses were confirmed by microbiology reports.

Conclusions: Prescribing antibiotic including broad spectrum antibiotics to the inpatients without bacterial infections i.e. viral fever, malaria and cardiovascular diseases were common

1
2
3 at both hospitals which increase the risk for development of bacterial resistance, a global
4 public health threat. Taking account of over prescribing of antibiotics, development and
5 implementation of local prescribing guidelines, encouragement to use laboratory facilities,
6 and prescription analysis, with antibiotic stewardship programs are the main
7 recommendations for the settings.
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For peer review only

Strengths and limitations

- Prospective study over a long time period of three years and inclusion of all patients, irrespective of their age and sex strengthens the representativeness of the results and overcome the seasonal variations.
- Data collecting tools were same at both study hospitals and the staff who collected the data was trained by the same person at both locations to minimize the variances.
- An observational non-interventional study design might have minimized the effect on the prescribers of being observed and audited.
- All possible efforts were made to minimize the risk of missing data by continuous monitoring and cross checking of the data. However, some data, for example few diagnoses might have been lost during translation from analogue to digital records.
- A big proportion of patients were categorised in the suspected bacterial diagnosis groups. Some of these diagnoses could have been categorised in non-bacterial diagnoses group if confirmed aetiology, i.e. microbiology reports, was present. This could have contributed to even higher antibiotic prescribing rates in the non-bacterial diagnoses group. However, due to absence of confirmed aetiology and observational study design this was indispensable.

BACKGROUND

Increasing morbidity and mortality due to infectious diseases, despite of the availability of the lifesaving antibiotics is an alarming situation, globally,[1]. These incidences of mortalities due to infections are higher in low- and middle-income countries than in high-income countries,[2–4]. The WHO has reported a high burden of communicable diseases in India, and infections are responsible for 28% of the total mortality in the country,[5,6]. Additionally, antibiotic resistance in India is reported to be high. However, figures cannot be generalized to all Indian settings as the bacterial resistance patterns widely vary between its regions and settings and most studies so far have been relatively limited in scope,[7].

Irrational (both over- and under-) use of antibacterials, is of global concern. It results in unnecessary treatment costs, is a potential risk for the development of antibiotic resistance and side effects such as antibiotic associated diarrhoea caused by *Clostridium difficile* or gastroenteritis,[8]. According to a report, the global consumption of antibiotics increased by 36% between 2000 and 2010 of which five countries including India (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) accounted for 76% of this increase,[9]. Despite of the paucity of studies that describe antibiotic prescribing from India, Van Boeckel et al presented India on the top of the list of antibiotic consumption with 12.9×10^9 units in 2010 where one unit indicates a pill, capsule or ampoule,[1,9]. However, this increase might also have meant that segments of the population that previously had no access to antibiotics can now access antibiotics yet it cannot be disregarded that antibiotic resistance is a sequel of antibiotic use,[10].

It is thus imperative to map the prescribing patterns of antibiotics on a local level to address the potential need of improvement and to counter the consequences of inappropriate prescription of antibiotics. Indian private sector are the major healthcare providers but little is known about prescribing patterns in this sector,[11–14].

OBJECTIVES

The study was conducted to present, analyse and compare antibiotic prescribing to the inpatients enrolled for most common non-bacterial diagnoses at the medicine departments of a teaching (TH) and a non-teaching hospital (NTH) in Central India.

METHODS

Study design

A cross sectional observational design was selected to conduct the study.

Setting

The study was conducted at the medicine departments of two tertiary care hospitals from private sector in Ujjain district, India. The hospitals are addressed as teaching hospital (TH) and non-teaching hospital (NTH). Both hospitals are run by the same trust. The TH is located in a rural area of Ujjain district and had 570 beds at the time of the study. The NTH is located in the central part of Ujjain city and had 350 beds at the time of the study. The TH provides medical services including medical treatment and free of charge medicines to all patients while the NTH charges for the medical facilities on a 'no profit-no loss' basis. Patients from the NTH have to buy prescribed medicines out-of-pocket from the pharmacies inside or outside the hospital. The physicians at the TH are salary paid and do not have any direct exposure to the sales representatives of pharmaceutical companies. Furthermore, the management at the TH is responsible for the purchase and supply of the drugs.

Hospital level Essential medicine list was available in written form at the TH but no specific implementation activities were conducted during the study period. Local prescribing guidelines were not present in any of the hospitals. Almost all physicians practicing at the NTH also had private practice and could be contacted by the representatives of pharmaceutical companies easily. The payments of the physicians at the NTH increase above

1
2
3 par according to the number of patients they admit in the hospital and the number of visits
4
5 made to the inpatients. Both hospitals are tertiary care hospitals with a number of specialty
6
7 departments such as; Pediatrics, Obstetrics and Gynecology, Surgery, Orthopedics,
8
9 Pulmonary Medicine, and so on to treat specific patients. For example; patients presenting
10
11 with complaints related to lungs and chest (other than heart) visit the Pulmonary Medicine
12
13 department. A well-equipped microbiology laboratory was present to process the samples free
14
15 of cost for all from the TH and with nominal charges from the NTH.
16
17

18 19 **Participants**

20 21 **Inclusion and exclusion criteria**

22
23 Patients who stayed for at least one night at medicine departments of either of the two
24
25 hospitals were considered as inpatients and included in the study. Patients who had
26
27 incomplete records or admitted to the medical intensive care units within the medicine
28
29 departments were not included in the analysis. Treatment recommendations including dose
30
31 and frequency is different for patients under 15 years of age and the DDD measurement is not
32
33 applicable to them, thus they were also excluded,[15].
34
35
36

37 38 **Variables**

39
40 The patient information was analysed for age, sex, diagnosis, duration of hospitals stay, if
41
42 they received antibiotic treatment, and duration of antibiotic treatment. The prescriptions were
43
44 analysed for the type of antibiotics prescribed, its dose, and frequency. The antibiotics were
45
46 classified according to the Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical (ATC) classification given by
47
48 the WHO Collaborating Centre for Drug Statistics Methodology (WHOCC),[16]. Defined
49
50 Daily Doses (DDD) were calculated for all prescribed antibiotics,[16]. DDD is a technical
51
52 unit for comparative purposes and is the average daily dose of the specific drug for its main
53
54 indication in adults,[15]. Fixed dose combinations of antibiotics (FDCs) that did not have an
55
56 ATC code assigned by WHOCC were assigned the code 'J01RA*' according to Sharma et
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 al,[17]. FDCs that did not have a DDD were assigned one by examining the constituents and
4
5 the proportions in which they were found in one unit dose. DDD was then calculated on the
6
7 basis of number of units and converted to dose in gram. Total number of antibiotics
8
9 prescribed during hospital stay was counted per patient and was termed as prescribing
10
11 occasions.

12
13
14 The List of Essential Medicines of India (NLEMI) is based on the WHO list of essential
15
16 medicines (WHOLEM) and adapted to the disease panorama of India,[18]. These lists serve
17
18 as guidelines to promote the prescribing of safe, cheap and effective drugs to the
19
20 population,[18,19]. Adherence to these lists was evaluated for all prescriptions.
21
22

23 24 **Data sources and considerations**

25
26
27 The data collection process is described in detail elsewhere,[13,14]. In brief, the study was
28
29 conducted prospectively between April 1st, 2008 and March 31st, 2011. Patient throughput in
30
31 the TH and the NTH amounted to 29026 and 41561 patients respectively. The data were
32
33 manually collected by the nurses using a specially designed form attached to the patient's file
34
35 at the medicine department of the TH and the NTH. All patients were included to minimize
36
37 the possibility of selection bias. Every admission in the department was considered as a new
38
39 patient. The nurses and new recruits were trained regularly for the data collection by the last
40
41 author (MS). The data collection form was updated daily based on patient's day to day
42
43 progress. All notes written in the patient files by the treating consultant were recorded and
44
45 included for the analysis. It was possible that a patient could have more than one diagnosis.
46
47 Therefore all indications, diagnoses and/or symptoms recorded in the patient files, were
48
49 transferred to the data collection form. The data was translated to digital data files using EPI
50
51 Info 3.1 and Microsoft Excel. Two specifically trained data entry operators translated the
52
53 diagnoses as per 'International Classification of Diseases' (ICD-10 codes),[20,21] and the
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 generic names of the prescribed antibiotics were translated to WHO assigned ATC-codes and
4
5 Defined Daily Doses (DDDs) per day,[15].
6
7

8 In order to exclude all clinically suspected cases of bacterial infection and following the aim
9
10 of the study, best possible efforts were made to distinguish the patients who had any
11
12 indications even for secondary antibiotic prophylaxis from those who did not,[22–24]. The
13
14 patients were categorized into three main groups using the diagnoses registered in the patient
15
16 files and the ICD-10 codes; Group (a) cardiovascular diseases, (b) non-bacterial fevers and (c)
17
18 all diagnoses other than Group (a) and (b) including all types of bacterial infections. Sixty
19
20 seven percent of patients in the TH and 75% in the NTH were included in Group (c). All
21
22 cases of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) were also included in Group c.
23
24 Although aetiology of the disease was seldom specified in the records but these patients
25
26 should receive less restricted antibiotic treatment.
27
28

29
30
31 Groups (a) and (b) were selected for detail study of the antibiotic prescribing for non-bacterial
32
33 diagnoses as per the study aim. In 'Group (a)', hypertension, acute myocardial infarction and
34
35 valvular heart disease were the most common diagnoses. In 'Group (b)' different types of
36
37 malaria and cases of viral fever were included. These non-bacterial fevers were common in
38
39 both study settings. It has previously been reported that antibiotics are prescribed to a high
40
41 extent to patients having malaria or viral fever in malaria endemic countries like Uganda
42
43 (Figure 1),[25]. Moreover, Groups (a) and (b) comprised the largest homogenous patient
44
45 groups in our study settings.
46
47

48
49 **Figure 1. The process of selection and grouping of inpatients admitted in medicine departments**
50 **of the TH and the NTH based on their diagnosis.**
51

52 These groups were further divided into four sub-groups to identify and analyse the patients
53
54 exclusively having non-bacterial diagnoses corresponding to our study aim. The
55
56 cardiovascular group (Group a) was divided in two sub-groups; 'cardiovascular diseases with
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 no registered bacterial infection' (sub-group 1), 'cardiovascular diseases with suspected
4 bacterial infection' (sub-group 2). Similarly, the non-infectious fever group (Group b) was
5 divided 'malaria or viral fever with no registered bacterial infection' (sub-group 3) and
6
7 'malaria or viral fever with suspected bacterial infection' (sub-group 4, Figure 1).
8
9

10
11
12 All patients with rheumatic heart disease (RHD) were categorized in sub-group 2, since the
13 WHO guidelines for secondary prevention after rheumatic fever sets the duration of
14 preventive antibiotic treatment from five years up to life-long, depending on a number of
15 factors e.g. time since the last episode of rheumatic fever and severity of valve engagement
16 and supports an individual assessment of every case,[22,23].
17
18
19

20
21 An antibiotic prescribed for a day was considered as one prescribing occasion. Prescribed
22 DDDs were calculated per 1000 patients. According to WHOCC, oral metronidazole
23 (P01AB01) is coded as an antiprotozoal drug, but is coded as an antibacterial in the NLEMI.
24
25 Therefore it was considered as an antibacterial in this study,[18].
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 **Ethics statement**

34
35 Being an observational study, the data collection did not interfere with the treatment or caused
36 any extra risks for the patients. Moreover, the names of the prescribers were not recorded to
37 minimize the effect of being observed. All patients were assigned a unique code during the
38 data entry to maintain anonymity of the inpatients. This unique code was used to compare
39 details of patient information and antibiotic prescriptions for the analysis. The ethics
40 committee of Ruxmaniben Deepchand Gardi Medical College, Ujjain, approved the study
41 with approval number: 41/2007.
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50

51 **Statistical Methods**

52
53 All frequency and percentage of categorical values were calculated. Sum, median, mean,
54 range and standard deviation were calculated for continuous numerical values. Values were
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 rounded off to the closest whole number for percentage, prescription tables and in the text.
4
5 The independent t-test was used for comparison of normally distributed and continuous
6
7 variables. The chi-square test was used for comparison of categorical values. Fischer's exact
8
9 test was used for expected values below 5 and Pearson chi-square test was used for expected
10
11 values above 5. Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons was used and p- values
12
13 <0.001 were chosen for significance level to minimize the risks of type one errors. The data
14
15 were analysed with Excel, SPSS version 22 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) and STATA
16
17 version 13.1 (Stata Corp, College station, TX, USA).
18
19

20 21 **RESULTS**

22
23
24 During the study period, totally 21557 patients were admitted to the two medicine
25
26 departments, 7176 patients in the TH and 14381 in the NTH (Figure 1). Of the admitted
27
28 patients, records of 20 patients were incomplete, 949 (5%) stayed less than one night and 285
29
30 patients (1%) were aged <15 years. Therefore, as per the inclusion criteria 1254 patient
31
32 records were excluded and 20303 (94%) records were included for further analysis (6961 at
33
34 the TH and 13342 at the NTH, Figure 1).
35
36

37
38 Most common diagnoses in the TH were chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD,
39
40 10%), viral fever (7%) and hypertension (5%) while in the NTH were viral fever (10%),
41
42 malaria (6%) and COPD (5%, Table 1). Antibiotics were prescribed to 4540/6961 inpatients
43
44 (65%) in the TH and 8900/13342 (67%) in the NTH (Table 2). An average of eight and five
45
46 prescribing occasions was found per patient at the TH and the NTH respectively. Overall a
47
48 significantly higher proportion of the antibiotics prescribed in the TH adhered to the NLEMI;
49
50 77% prescriptions (27649/35732) than in the NTH; 60% (24683/41068, p<0.001).
51
52

53
54 Seven percent of antibiotics in the TH were prescribed using generic names it was
55
56 significantly higher compared to the NTH (2%, p<0.001). Some antibiotics were prescribed
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 using trade names at the TH e.g., "Cipro", "Doxy", "Genta" and "Metrogyl". However, these
4
5 were local abbreviations devised by the staff for ciprofloxacin, doxycycline, gentamycin and
6
7 metronidazole respectively. Even though these four antibiotics were prescribed using trade
8
9 names, generic antibiotics were dispensed from the hospital pharmacy. A longer duration of
10
11 stay and longer duration of antibiotic treatment was observed at the TH (mean days; 6 and 6
12
13 respectively) compared to the NTH (mean days; 3 and 4 respectively, $p < 0.001$).

14 15 16 17 **Distribution of inpatients in Groups a and b, and antibiotic prescription patterns**

18
19 Cardiovascular diseases accounted for 48% of patients in Group (a) and (b) at the TH and
20
21 30% at the NTH. In the non-bacterial fever group, malaria was significantly more common at
22
23 the NTH (74%) and viral fever was significantly more common at the TH (66%, $p < 0.001$,
24
25 Table 1).

26
27
28
29 Broad-spectrum antibiotics such as third-generation cephalosporins (J01DD) and FDCs
30
31 (J01RA*) comprised 52% of the prescribing occasions at the NTH of which FDCs accounted
32
33 for approximately half (Table 3). These classes accounted for 13% of total prescribing
34
35 occasions and <1% FDCs. At the NTH, cephalosporins (third-generation cephalosporins
36
37 J01DD, >30%) were most commonly prescribed for the cardiovascular diseases (>35%),
38
39 followed by FDCs (>20%). Fluoroquinolones (J01M) was the most commonly prescribed
40
41 antibiotic class in the TH in both (a) and (b) groups (>30% and >40% respectively).
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Table 1: Diagnoses of the four groups of inpatients at medicine departments at one teaching and one non-teaching hospitals in Ujjain, India

Group (a): Cardiovascular diseases						Group (b): Malaria or Viral fever					
Cardiovascular with no registered bacterial infection Sub-group 1			Cardiovascular with suspected bacterial infection Sub-group 2			Malaria or Viral Fever with no registered bacterial infection Sub-group 3			Malaria or Viral Fever with suspected bacterial infection Sub-group 4		
Diagnosis group	TH	NTH	Diagnosis group	TH	NTH	Diagnosis group	TH	NTH	Diagnosis group	TH	NTH
	n(%)	n(%)		n(%)	n(%)		n(%)	n(%)		n(%)	n(%)
Total	1068	1738	Total	438	254	Total	693	1177	Total	55	28
Hypertension	328(31)	470(27)	COPD	209(48)	77(30)	Malaria	237(34)	872(74)	COPD	10(18)	5(18)
Cerebro vascular accident	126(12)	383(22)	Rheumatic Heart Disease	130(30)	102(40)	Cerebral malaria caused by <i>P. falciparum</i>	4(1)	11(1)	Urinarytract infection	5(9)	7(25)
Acute Myocardial Infarction	28(3)	202(12)	Pulmonary Tuberculosis	19(4)	18(7)	Malaria caused by <i>P. falciparum</i> UNS	9(1)	9(1)	Tyfooid fever	8(15)	2(7)
Chronic Ischemic Heart Disease	17(2)	189(11)	Urinarytract infection	17(4)	15(6)	Malaria caused by <i>P. vivax</i> UNS	16(2)	61(5)	Acute gastroenteritis	4(7)	6(21)
Coronary Artery Disease	98(9)	101(6)	Acute Gastroenteritis	14(3)	12(5)	Malaria UNS	208(30)	791(67)	Disease of airways UNS	8(15)	0(0)
Left Ventricle Failure	44(4)	69(4)	Lower airway infection UNS	13(3)	0(0)	Viral fever	456(66)	305(26)	Disease of upper airways UNS	7(13)	0(0)
Congestive Heart Failure	56(5)	39(2)	Sepsis	0(0)	5(2)				Pulmonary Tuberculosis	4(7)	2(7)
Dilated Cardiomyopathy	79(7)	6(<1)	HIV with infection	8(2)	1(<1)				HIV with infection	2(4)	0(0)
Unspecified Cardiomyopathy	21(2)	54(3)	Rheumatic Fever	1(<1)	4(2)				Rheumatic Heart Disease	2(4)	1(4)
Multiple Valve Disease	61(6)	7(<1)	Endocarditis	0(0)	4(2)				Pelvic Inflammatory Disease	2(4)	0(0)
Angina Pectoris	10(1)	35(2)	Pneumonia	1(<1)	4(2)				Pneumonia	0(0)	1(4)
Acute Ischemic Heart Disease	31(3)	11(1)	Others	26(6)	12(5)				Other diagnoses	3(5)	4(14)
Deep Vein Thrombosis UNS	13(1)	19(1)									
Mitral Stenosis	21(2)	2(<1)									
Hypertensive Heart Disease	20(2)	1(<1)									
Cardiac arrest	2(<1)	16(1)									
Other	113(11)	134(8)									

Abbreviations: n (%): Number of patients (percentage in that diagnosis group), NTH: non-teaching hospital, TH: teaching hospital, COPD: chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, UNS: unspecified, *P.-plasmodium*, HIV: human immunodeficiency virus.

Table 2: Demographic details and antibiotic prescribing information of the inpatients at medicine departments at one teaching and one non-teaching hospitals in Ujjain, India

	Group (a): Cardiovascular diseases						Group (b): Malaria or Viral Fever								
	Medicine Department			Cardiovascular with no registered bacterial diagnosis (Sub-group 1)			Cardiovascular with suspected bacterial infection (Sub-group 2)			Malaria or Viral Fever with no registered bacterial diagnosis (Sub-group 3)			Malaria or Viral Fever with suspected bacterial infection (Sub-group 4)		
	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value
Inpatients; n	6961	13342		1068	1738		438	254		693	1177		55	28	
Age; mean years (SD)	45(17)	43 (18)	<0.001	53 (14)	55 (15)	<0.001	49 (17)	51 (17)	0.222	36 (15)	35 (16)	0.387	37 (14)	40 (20)	0.440
Inpatients prescribed AB; n (%)	4540 (65)	8900 (67)	0.034	392 (37)	808 (47)	<0.001	299 (68)	179 (71)	0.545	569 (82)	831 (71)	<0.001	53 (96)	21 (75)	0.006 ^a
Duration of hospital stay; mean days (SD)	6 (5)	3 (3)	<0.001	6 (5)	3 (3)	<0.001	7 (5)	4 (3)	<0.001	4 (4)	3 (2)	<0.001	5 (3)	4(2)	0.796
Duration of AB treatment; mean days (SD)	6 (4)	4 (2)	<0.001	6 (4)	4 (2)	<0.001	7 (4)	4 (2)	<0.001	5 (3)	4 (2)	<0.001	5 (2)	5(2)	0.419
Total AB prescription; n	35732	41068		2741	3366		2388	855		3210	3451		316	128	
Prescriptions per patient	7.8	4.6		7	4		8	4.8		5.6	4.2		6	6.1	
AB prescriptions by generic name; n (%)	2341 (7)	685 (2)	<0.001	175 (6)	47 (1)	<0.001	282 (12)	46 (5)	<0.001	61 (2)	52 (2)	0.214	19 (6)	5 (4)	0.374 ^a
Prescriptions of AB found in NLEMI; n (%)	27640 (77)	24683 (60)	<0.001	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Abbreviations: AB: antibiotics, NTH: non-teaching hospital, SD: standard deviation, TH: teaching hospital. Significant p-values are shown in bold. Independent sample t-test was used to compare age, duration of hospital stay and duration of antibiotic treatment. Pearson chi-square was used to compare prescription details with expected value >5. ^aFischer's exact test was used to compare expected values <5.

Table 3: Class wise distribution of prescribed antibiotics in four selected diagnoses groups at one teaching and one non-teaching hospitals in Ujjain, India

Name of AB; ATC-code	Group (a): Cardiovascular diseases						Group (b): Malaria or Viral fever					
	Cardiovascular with no registered bacterial infection (Sub-group 1)			Cardiovascular with suspected bacterial infection (Sub-group 2)			Malaria or Viral Fever with no registered bacterial infection (Sub-group 3)			Malaria or Viral Fever with suspected bacterial infection (Sub-group 4)		
	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value
	n (%)	n (%)		n (%)	n (%)		n (%)	n (%)		n (%)	n (%)	
Total prescriptions	2741	3366		2388	855		3210	3451		316	128	
Tetracyclines; J01A: J01AA	284 (10)	5 (0)	<0.001	243 (10)	0 (0)		553 (17)	75 (2)	<0.001	83 (26)	0 (0)	
Beta-lactam ABs, penicillin; J01C	458 (17)	498 (15)	0.041	622 (26)	184 (22)	0.009	111 (3)	245 (7)	<0.001	12 (4)	7 (5)	0.431
Extended-spectrum penicillins; J01CA	83 (3)	99 (3)	0.843	122 (5)	99 (12)	<0.001	19 (1)	51 (1)	<0.001	0 (0)	2 (2)	
Combination of penicillin incl. Beta-lactamase AB; J01CR	373 (14)	399 (12)	0.040	500 (21)	85 (10)	<0.001	92 (3)	194 (6)	<0.001	12 (4)	5 (4)	1.0 ^a
Other Beta-lactam; J01D	488 (18)	1391 (41)	<0.001	353 (15)	304 (36)	<0.001	665 (21)	1792 (52)	<0.001	40 (13)	39 (30)	<0.001
1st gen. cephalosporins; J01DB	7 (0)	16 (1)	0.163	0 (0)	5 (1)		0 (0)	9 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
2nd gen. cephalosporins; J01DC	0 (0)	98 (3)		0 (0)	27 (3)		0 (0)	168 (5)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
3rd gen. cephalosporins; J01DD	481 (18)	1254 (37)	<0.001	353 (15)	272 (32)	<0.001	665 (21)	1606 (47)	<0.001	40 (13)	39 (30)	<0.001
4th gen. cephalosporins; J01DH	8 (0)	23 (1)	0.032	0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	9 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Sulfonamide with timethoprim; J01E: J01EE	8 (0)	0 (0)		18 (1)	0 (0)		8 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Macrolides, lincosamides J01F	16 (1)	2 (0)	<0.001	4 (0)	6 (1)	0.025*	15 (0)	7 (0)	0.060	3 (1)	4 (3)	0.110 ^a
Macrolides; J01FA	12 (0)	2	0.002	4 (0)	6 (1)		15 (0)	7 (0)		3 (1)	4 (3)	
Lincosamides; J01FF	4 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Aminoglycoside; J01G: J01GB	78 (3)	73 (2)	0.090	149 (6)	46 (5)	0.364	17 (1)	60 (2)	<0.001	11 (3)	9 (7)	0.102
Quinolones; J01M: J01MA	1031 (38)	301 (9)	<0.001	731 (31)	112 (13)	<0.001	1526 (48)	464 (13)	<0.001	126 (40)	37 (29)	0.030
Fixed dose combination of ABs; J01R: J01RA*	12 (0)	929 (28)	<0.001	31 (1)	170 (20)	<0.001	34 (1)	669 (19)	<0.001	6 (2)	17 (13)	<0.01
Other ABs; J01X	167 (6)	176 (5)	0.145	132 (6)	30 (4)	0.020	149 (5)	138 (4)	0.197	20 (6)	15 (12)	0.056
Glycopeptide ABs; J01XA	15 (1)	176 (5)	<0.001	0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Imidazole derivatives; J01XD	152 (6)	0 (0)		132 (6)	30 (4)	0.020	149 (5)	137 (4)	0.176	20 (6)	15 (12)	0.056
Other ABs; J01XX	0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	1 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Drugs for treatment of tuberculosis; J04A	0 (0)	0 (0)		24 (1)	0 (0)		0	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Antibiotics; J04AB (Treatment for Tuberculosis)	0 (0)	0 (0)		6 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Hydrazides; J04AC	0 (0)	0 (0)		6 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Other drugs for treatment of tuberculosis; J04AK	0 (0)	0 (0)		12 (1)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Nitromidazole derivatives; P01AB (Oral Metronidazole)	201 (7)	0 (0)		81 (3)	3 (0)	<0.001	132 (4)	1 (0)	<0.001	15 (5)	0 (0)	

Abbreviations: n(%): Number of patients (percentage in antibiotic class), AB: antibiotics, ATC: WHO anatomic therapeutic chemical classification, NTH: non-teaching hospital, TH: teaching hospital. Significant p-values shown in bold. Pearson chi-square and ^aFischer's exact test were used to compare antibiotic prescribing details, generation.

1
2
3 Third-generation cephalosporins (J01DD) constituted 47% and 30% of the prescriptions in
4 sub-group 3 and 4 at the NTH, followed by FDCs (19% and 29% of the prescriptions
5 respectively). Overall, antibiotic prescriptions were significantly more common for the
6 patients in sub-group 3 than in the sub-group 1' ($p < 0.001$). The type of malaria was verified
7 by blood samples reports in some cases of sub-group 3 (TH: 4% and NTH: 7%). None of the
8 records from the four sub-groups had requisition for sending samples for bacterial culture and
9 susceptibility test.
10
11

12
13
14 Ciprofloxacin (J01MA02) was the most frequently prescribed antibiotic substance measured
15 in DDD/1000 patients at the TH and ceftriaxone (J01DD04, Table 4) at the NTH. The highest
16 number of prescribed DDDs/1000 patients was recorded for ciprofloxacin, followed by
17 doxycycline and ceftriaxone in both hospitals (Figure 2).
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Table 4: Most commonly prescribed antibiotics among the selected diagnoses groups presenting the prescribing occasions in DDDs/1000 patients at sixth level of the ATC classification

Name; ATC-code	Group (a): Cardiovascular diseases				Group (b): Malaria or Viral fever			
	Cardiovascular with no registered bacterial infection (Sub-group 1) n (%)		Cardiovascular with suspected bacterial infection (Sub-group 2) n (%)		Malaria or Viral Fever with no registered bacterial infection (Sub-group 3) n (%)		Malaria or Viral Fever with suspected bacterial infection (Sub-group 4) n (%)	
	TH	NTH	TH	NTH	TH	NTH	TH	NTH
Total DDDs/1000 patients	2062 (99)	1456 (100)	4514 (99)	3421 (100 [#])	4480 (100 [#])	3048 (100 [#])	5432 (100 [#])	5827 (100)
Doxycycline, J01AA02	491 (24)		1030 (23)		1463 (33)	296 (10)	2745 (51)	
Ampicillin, J01CA01	68 (3)		170 (4)					
Amoxicillin, J01CA04		81 (6)		435 (13)				
Amoxicillin + Clavulanic acid, J01CR02				566 (17)		88 (3)		
Piperacillin + Tazobactam, J01CR05						34 (1)		
Ampicillin + Cloxacillin, J01CR50	217 (11)		774 (17)				191 (4)	
Cefuroxime, J01DC02				95 (3)		136 (4)		
Cefprozil, J01DC10		75 (5)						
Cefotaxime, J01DD01	172 (8)	46 (3)	298 (7)	59 (2)	199 (4)	96 (3)	295 (5)	
Ceftriaxone, J01DD04	133 (6)	558 (38)	244 (5)	907 (27)	560 (13)	1052 (35)	164 (3)	1402 (24)
Azithromycin, J01FA10								476 (8)
Gentamicin, J01GB03	44 (2)		167 (4)	81 (2)				
Amikacin, J01GB06								321 (6)
Ofloxacin, J01MA01						202 (7)		
Ciprofloxacin, J01MA02	687 (33)	141 (10)	1057 (23)	527 (15)	1940 (43)	602 (20)	1185 (22)	2886 (50)
Norfloxacin, J01MA06			201 (4)				273 (5)	
Levofloxacin, J01MA12		73 (5)	202 (4)	129 (4)			145 (3)	
Cefoperazone + Sulbactam, J01RA*83		92 (6)		94 (3)		90 (3)		125 (2)
Ceftriaxone + Sulbactam, J01RA*84		228 (16)		277 (8)		199 (7)		
Ceftriaxone + Tazobactam, J01RA*85		162 (11)		156 (5)		162 (5)		250 (4)
Metronidazole, J01XD01	139 (7)		262 (6)	95 (3)	204 (5)	91 (3)	262 (5)	367 (6)
Metronidazole, P01AB01 (Oral)	111 (5)		109 (2)		114 (3)		172 (3)	

Abbreviations: n (%): Number of patients (percentage), AB: antibiotics, DDD: Defined Daily Dose, NTH: non-teaching hospital, TH: teaching hospital, [#] rounding off the percentages to nearest integer made the total more than 100%

1
2
3 **Figure 2. Top 90% of prescription in the four selected groups measured in DDD/1000 patients,**
4 **presented at fourth level of the ATC classification at one teaching and one non-teaching**
5 **hospitals in Ujjain, India**
6

7 **DISCUSSION**

8
9 To our knowledge this study is the first to investigate and present antibiotic prescription
10 practices at medicine departments in Indian private sector hospitals by focusing on non-
11 bacterial infectious diseases. This also leads to a limitation, as the results of the present study
12 could not be compared with the findings of any other study. Thus the results of present study
13 were compared with the most equivalent studies available globally.
14
15

16
17
18
19
20 Antibiotics were commonly prescribed to inpatients at both study hospitals. Irrespective of the
21 indications, broad-spectrum antibiotics and third-generation cephalosporins that should be
22 conserved for high risks co-morbidities and life-threatening bacterial infections were
23 prescribed frequently. This study also highlights the high rates of antibiotic prescriptions used
24 to treat the selected groups of non-bacterial infectious diseases such as cardiovascular disease,
25 malaria, and viral fever.
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 **Antibiotic prescriptions in the cardiovascular and fever groups**

34
35
36 The average percentage of patients that were prescribed antibiotics in the medicine
37 departments were similar (TH: 65% and NTH: 67%, $p < 0.001$) in comparison to the rates in
38 the medicine department of a public hospital at Bathalapalli, Andhra Pradesh, India
39 (63%),[26]. With a few exceptions, such as rheumatic fever, endocarditis, pericarditis and
40 myocarditis (bacterial or viral), cardiovascular diseases are primarily non-infectious. COPD
41 and RHD are the common associated diseases in cardiovascular patients. Rheumatic fever is
42 an immune response sequel to an infection and it may cause endocarditis,[23,27]. However,
43 pericarditis and myocarditis most commonly develop from viral pathogens where antibiotic
44 treatment is not a routine recommendation,[28,29].
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Interestingly, more than 35% of inpatients among the 'cardiovascular group with no registered
4 bacterial infection' were prescribed antibiotics at both hospitals. As per treatment guidelines
5 and recommendations, only patients who have confirmed infectious diagnosis are expected to
6 receive an antibiotic prescription,[30–32]. Nonetheless, empirical or presumptive antibiotic
7 therapy is also accepted when the clinical diagnosis, based on the presence of a strong clinical
8 suspicion of bacterial infection, is substantiated by relevant medical history and clinical
9 findings,[30]. According to the WHO and the Indian National Treatment Guidelines for
10 Antimicrobial Use; presumptive therapy is typically a one-time treatment given for clinically
11 presumed infection while waiting for the culture report,[31,32]. In combination of clinical
12 findings laboratory and radiological reports are considered to confirm the diagnosis and lead
13 to the definitive therapy,[32].
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28

29 Microbiology laboratories were highly under-utilized in both study hospitals. None of the
30 patient records in the selected four sub-groups included notes about sending samples for
31 culture and susceptibility testing. Therefore, the practice of prescribing antibiotics to the
32 patient groups with no registered bacterial infection in absence of laboratory confirmation
33 could not be considered to be rational. Among the COPD and RHD patients the aetiology of
34 the current episode of hospitalization could potentially be expected to be non-bacterial (e.g.
35 viral infection). However, this could not be confirmed due to the absence of laboratory
36 investigations. It is worth mentioning here that prolonged empiric antibiotic treatment without
37 a clear evidence of infection is one of the causes of the development of antibiotic resistance.
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48

49 More FDCs were prescribed to the cardiovascular patients at the NTH than at the TH.
50 Rationality of the newer FDCs coded with ATC-code: J01RA* has not been established yet
51 and these combinations are not listed in either the NLEMI or the WHOLEM,[18,19]. It is also
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 evident that the constituents of these combinations are often present in lower quantities than is
4 recommended which might lead to the development of antibiotic resistance,[33].
5
6

7
8 The sub-group 'malaria or viral fever with suspected bacterial infection' was found to have the
9 highest rate of antibiotic prescriptions among all the four sub-groups (TH: 96%, NTH: 75%).
10
11 Our result also highlight that patients with fever were more likely to receive antibiotic
12 prescriptions, than patients with cardiovascular diseases. Fever is a common symptom among
13 malaria, viral fever and bacterial infection. Therefore, the doctors might have prescribed
14 antibiotics as a 'prophylactic' treatment to treat bacterial infection, if any. In our study the rate
15 of antibiotic prescriptions for the patients with fever was higher than, yet comparable with a
16 study at primary and secondary health care settings in Uttar Pradesh, India where 85% of the
17 fever patients were prescribed antibiotics,[34]. Additionally, in our study a high percentage of
18 patients with fever (malaria or viral fever) with 'no registered bacterial infection' were
19 prescribed antibiotics (TH: 82%, NTH: 71%). An out-patient study from Uganda, a malaria
20 endemic country, showed that 42% of malaria patients were prescribed antibiotics without
21 any registered indication,[25]. As the majority of the prescriptions in our study were
22 empirical, the rationale for using the antibiotics cannot be evaluated. However, prescribing
23 antibiotics to treat non-bacterial infections is considered to be an irrational practice. Thus it is
24 imperative that this matter be addressed.
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

43 44 **Adherence to the essential medicine lists and prescriptions by generic name**

45
46 A higher proportion of prescribed antibiotics at the TH (77%) were from the NLEMI
47 compared with the NTH (60%, $p < 0.001$). This could be attributed to the presence of a
48 management policy to purchase and supply medicines at the TH. However, there is a need to
49 improve adherence to the NLEMI at both hospitals. According to WHO, prescribing by their
50 generic name is; part of rational prescribing, cost effective and provides flexibility to buy the
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 available medicine of any company. This policy is equally applicable for both public and
4
5 private healthcare settings. However, adherence to this policy is higher at public hospitals,
6
7 followed by 'private non-profit' hospitals and by the 'private for-profit' hospitals,[13,14,35]. In
8
9 the present study, significantly lower antibiotic prescriptions were made by generic names to
10
11 the patients of sub-group 1 (TH: 6%, NTH: 1% $p<0.001$) or sub-group 2 (TH: 12% NTH: 5%
12
13 $p<0.001$) at the NTH than at the TH. Third-generation cephalosporins (J01D, 29%) and FDCs
14
15 (J01RA*, 23%) were the most commonly prescribed classes of antibiotics at the NTH while
16
17 quinolones were most commonly prescribed at the TH (J01M, 37%, NTH: 13%). Previous
18
19 studies from Uttar Pradesh, India and Madhya Pradesh, India have also shown similar results
20
21 for academic and non-academic hospitals,[13,14,17]. The high incidence of prescribing these
22
23 classes is further supported by Van Boeckel et al, who observed a significant increase in the
24
25 consumption of fluoroquinolones and cephalosporins globally over the past decade. This
26
27 increase was mainly attributed to the increased rates in India and China,[9]. At the NTH,
28
29 prescriptions of FDCs varied between 19% and 28% among the selected sub-groups (TH:
30
31 $<2\%$) and the prescriptions of third-generation cephalosporins varied between 30% and 47%
32
33 (TH: $<22\%$). According to WHO, prescribing multiple antibiotics when not indicated, often
34
35 combined in inadequate doses (smaller or larger quantity than recommended) and prescription
36
37 of drugs other than local or national guidelines are all examples of actions deemed
38
39 inappropriate,[36]. All these practices could be seen in prescribing newer FDCs (J01RA*);
40
41 both of the study hospitals are from the private sector and are regulated by the same trust on a
42
43 'not for-profit' basis. The differences in the prescribing practices might be due to each
44
45 hospital's policy and the fact that academic hospitals are part of the educational process, and
46
47 regular educational activities conducted at these hospitals results in better adherence to the
48
49 guidelines, as seen at the TH. Another reason for the frequent prescribing of broad-spectrum
50
51 antibiotics, new FDCs and use of trade names at the NTH could be explained by the results of
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 a review conducted by Blumenthal et al,[37]. That review concluded that physicians who had
4 received gifts or money from pharmaceutical companies were more likely to prescribe drugs
5 produced by the brand names and less prone to use the generic names. The pressure from
6 pharmaceutical companies could be anticipated on the doctors at the NTH, due to unrestricted
7 visits from pharmaceutical company representatives,[37]. Moreover, these new FDCs of
8 antibiotics are more expensive than the regular and generic formulations,[13,14,37]. The
9 restriction of these visits and the management control over the purchase and supply of
10 medicines can be seen as main reasons for low incidence of prescribing FDCs prescribing and
11 high use of generic names at the TH.
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22

23 Interestingly trade names were used as local abbreviations to prescribe four most commonly
24 prescribed antibiotics; ciprofloxacin, doxycycline, gentamycin and metronidazole at the TH,
25 as discussed in result section. However, only generic drugs were purchased and dispensed at
26 the TH due to administrative control over the purchase and supply of the drugs. Thus even if
27 these antibiotics were prescribed using an abbreviation similar to the trade name, they were
28 included in adherence to the generic name prescribing category.
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36

37 **Duration of hospital stay and duration of antibiotic treatment**

38
39
40 In the present study both the duration of hospital stay and the duration of antibiotic treatment
41 were longer at the TH than the NTH among all inpatients groups. This could be due to the fact
42 that the patients at the TH received free healthcare services and drugs, making their stay
43 economically feasible. In contrast, at the NTH the patients had to pay for all the services and
44 drugs they received. This association of longer duration of stay and antibiotic treatment at TH
45 has also been observed in previous studies from India,[13,14,17]. However, it is evident that
46 the treatment given for a time period that is either shorter or longer than recommended, is
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 inappropriate and it substantially contributes to the development of antibiotic
4
5 resistance,[1,36].
6
7

8 9 **STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS**

10
11
12 A high number of patients were screened over a three year period this overcomes seasonal
13
14 variations in infectious aetiology which would affect antibiotic prescribing. Same form was
15
16 used for the data collection and the process was supervised and monitored by same person at
17
18 both hospitals to improve the reliability of the data. The diagnoses were not verified
19
20 externally being a limitation of the study. However, external verification is virtually
21
22 inapplicable to studies that rely upon the routine collection of data. The results of the study
23
24 were based on the notes included in the patient files. Extensive efforts were made to
25
26 document all notes including diagnoses written in the patient files. However, the possibility of
27
28 missing a few diagnoses and losing some data during the transition from the forms to the
29
30 digital storage cannot be excluded.
31
32
33
34

35 **CONCLUSION**

36
37
38 A higher number of prescribing occasions were recorded at the TH, and not at the NTH, with
39
40 regard to adherence to the guidelines. However, overall adherence was low. Fever was a risk
41
42 factor to receive antibiotic prescription at both hospitals. Patients with non-bacterial infections
43
44 such as malaria or viral fever or with cardiovascular diseases were prescribed antibiotics at
45
46 both medicine departments which could not be justified. Broad spectrum antibiotics with
47
48 irrational combinations of antibiotics were commonly prescribed in the study hospitals for
49
50 non-indicated conditions. A large proportion of patients were categorised as suspected
51
52 bacterial diagnoses (sub-groups 2 and 4). In the presence of confirmed aetiology, according to
53
54 microbiology reports, some of these could have been categorised in non-bacterial group and
55
56 could have contributed to higher antibiotic prescribing rates in the non-bacterial diagnoses
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 (sub-groups 1 and 3). However, this was unavoidable due to absence of confirmed aetiology
4
5 and the nature of the study design (observational).
6
7

8 **GENERALISABILITY AND FUTURE IMPLICATIONS**

9
10 The data collection method used in the study is robust and reliable. In accordance with one of
11
12 the WHO goals of "Global-action-plan" and in view of limited knowledge of antibiotic
13
14 utilization and resistance patterns our study findings suggest that there is a need to conduct
15
16 and share similar long term surveillance studies globally. The data collection method and
17
18 tested tool used in the study could easily be adapted in other settings that lack computerized
19
20 patient records. The management in the TH had a policy to control the purchase and supply of
21
22 medicines. This control shows positive effects at the TH compared to the NTH; to minimise
23
24 antibiotic prescribing, in better adherence to the NLEMI and in use of generic names. This
25
26 control could be implemented and tested in other constrained settings. The recruitment of
27
28 nursing staff for manual data collection who routinely work in the department would have
29
30 helped to minimize the influence on the prescribers. High prescribing rates of antibiotics and
31
32 use of FDCs among inpatients in these settings could broadly be considered as representative
33
34 for similar health care settings in low-middle income countries. Lack of culture of sending
35
36 cultures is another important issue raised by the study. The need to develop and implement
37
38 local diagnosis specific prescribing guidelines in conjugation with continuous follow-up is
39
40 also emphasized by our study. The physicians should be motivated to send samples for
41
42 cultures before prescribing antibiotics. Improving hygiene practices is another
43
44 recommendation to prevent spread of infection and to decrease in the 'prophylactic' use of
45
46 antibiotics.
47
48
49
50
51

52 **CONTRIBUTERSHIP STATEMENT**

1
2
3 MS and CSL designed, visualized the research question and developed the data collection
4
5 tool. MS conducted repeated training sessions for nursing personal for recording the data. MS
6
7 was also responsible for coordination with the nursing staff, monitoring and supervision of the
8
9 data collection and entry. CSL participated in planning the study design and the coordination
10
11 of the study. KL, CSL and MS participated in the conception and design of the present study
12
13 and revising the paper critically for substantial intellectual content. KL grouped and analyzed
14
15 the data, performed the statistical analysis and contributed in drafting the manuscript along
16
17 with MS, CSL, FJ and AS. KL, AS and MS were responsible for categorization of the
18
19 patients. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.
20
21

22 23 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

24
25
26 The authors have no competing interests to declare.
27
28

29 **FUNDING**

30
31
32 This study was supported by the Swedish Research Council (K2007-70X-20514-01-3) and
33
34 Asia Link (348-2006-6633). KL and FJ both received scholarships from Sida to visit the study
35
36 settings and perform the study. MS is a recipient of a scholarship from Erasmus Mundus
37
38 External Cooperation Window Lot-15, India.
39
40

41 42 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

43
44
45 The authors are thankful to all nurses and the management of both hospitals for their support
46
47 and help during the study.
48
49

50 51 **DATA SHARING STATEMENT**

52
53
54 As per the institutional policy, the data is available with the Institutional ethics committee.
55
56 This is to protect the patient's confidentiality and to ensure the electronic security of the data.
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 The data could be made available to all interested researchers upon request made to; The
4
5 Chairman, Ethics Committee, R.D. Gardi Medical College, Agar Road, Ujjain, Madhya
6
7 Pradesh, India 456006 (Email: iccrdgmcc@yahoo.in, uchtharc@sancharnet.in), giving all details
8
9 of the article. The ethical approval number: 41/2007 needs to be quoted along with the
10
11 request.
12
13

14 15 16 17 18 REFERENCES

- 19
20
21 1. World Health Organization. The evolving threat of antimicrobial resistance: Options
22 for action. WHO Publications. Geneva; 2014;
23 http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2012/9789241503181_eng.pdf(accessed 2016
24 Sep 15)
25
- 26
27 2. World Health Organization. The top 10 causes of death. Geneva; 2014;
28 <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs310/en/>(accessed 2016 Sep 15)
29
- 30
31 3. Global Antibiotic Resistance Partnership (GARP) India Working Group. Rationalizing
32 antibiotic use to limit antibiotic resistance in India. *Indian J Med Res.* 2011.134:281–
33 94.
- 34
35 4. Bhutta Z a, Sommerfeld J, Lassi ZS, et al. Global burden, distribution, and
36 interventions for infectious diseases of poverty. *Infect Dis poverty.* 2014.3(1):21.
37
- 38
39 5. Global Antibiotic Resistance Partnership (GARP) India Working Group. Antibiotic
40 Use and Resistance in India. New Dehli; 2011;
41 [http://www.cddep.org/publications?page=1&f\[0\]=field_region:13](http://www.cddep.org/publications?page=1&f[0]=field_region:13)(accessed 2016 Sep
42 15)
43
- 44
45 6. World Health Organization. Disease and injury country estimates: Burden of disease.
46 Geneva;
47 http://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/estimates_country/en/index.html
(accessed 2016 Sep 16)
48
- 49
50 7. Kumar SG, Adithan C, Harish BN, et al. Antimicrobial resistance in India: A review. *J*
51 *Nat Sci Biol Med.* 2013.4(2):286–91.
- 52
53 8. Wilcox MH, Freeman J, Fawley W, et al. Long-term surveillance of cefotaxime and
54 piperacillin – tazobactam prescribing and incidence of *Clostridium difficile* diarrhoea.
55 *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2004.54(1):168–72.
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 9. Van Boeckel TP, Gandra S, Ashok A, et al. Global antibiotic consumption 2000 to
4 2010: An analysis of national pharmaceutical sales data. *Lancet Infect Dis*.
5 2014.14:742–50.
6
- 7
8 10. The World Bank. World development indicators, GNI per capita, Atlas method. 2015;
9 <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GNP.PCAP.CD>(accessed 2016 Sep 15)
- 10
11 11. De Costa A, Diwan V. “Where is the public health sector?”. Public and private sector
12 healthcare provision in Madhya Pradesh, India. *Health Policy (New York)*.
13 2007.84:269–76.
14
- 15 12. Sekher T V. Catastrophic Health Expenditure and Poor in India : Health Insurance is
16 the Answer ? Vol. 494, SAGE-India. 2011; p. 1–4.
17 <http://iussp.org/en/event/17/programme/paper/4043>)
18
- 19 13. Sharma M, Damlin AL, Sharma A, et al. Antibiotic prescribing in medical intensive
20 care units – a comparison between two private sector hospitals in Central India. *Infect*
21 *Dis (Auckl)*. Elsevier Ltd; 2015.14(8):1–8.
22
23
- 24 14. Sharma M, Damlin A, Pathak A, et al. Antibiotic Prescribing among Pediatric
25 Inpatients with Potential Infections in Two Private Sector Hospitals in Central India.
26 *PLoS One*. 2015.10.
27 <http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0142317>
28
- 29 15. WHO Int WG for Drug Statistics Methodology. Introduction to Drug Utilization
30 Research. Oslo; 2003; p. 1–48.
31 http://www.whocc.no/filearchive/publications/drug_utilization_research.pdf(accessed
32 2016 Sep 16)
33
34
- 35 16. WHOCC. ATC/DDD Index. 2015; http://www.whocc.no/atc_ddd_index/(accessed
36 2015 Mar 13)
37
- 38 17. Sharma M, Eriksson B, Marrone G, et al. Antibiotic prescribing in two private sector
39 hospitals; one teaching and one non-teaching: A cross-sectional study in Ujjain, India.
40 *BMC Infect Dis*. 2012.12:155.
41
42
- 43 18. Organization CDSC. National List of Essential Medicines. New Dehli; 2011;
44 <http://apps.who.int/medicinedocs/documents/s18693en/s18693en.pdf>(accessed 2016
45 Sep 16)
46
- 47 19. World Health Organization. Model List of Essential Medicines. Geneva; 2013; p. 1–43.
48 [http://www.who.int/medicines/publications/essentialmedicines/18th_EML_Final_web_](http://www.who.int/medicines/publications/essentialmedicines/18th_EML_Final_web_8Jul13.pdf)
49 [8Jul13.pdf](http://www.who.int/medicines/publications/essentialmedicines/18th_EML_Final_web_8Jul13.pdf)(accessed 2016 Sep 16)
50
- 51
52 20. World Health Organization. The international statistical classification of diseases and
53 health related problems, ICD-10. Malta: World Health Organization; 2012;
54
- 55 21. World Health Organization. International Statistical Classification of Diseases and
56 Related Health Problems 10th Revision (ICD-10) Version for 2010.
57 <http://apps.who.int/classifications/icd10/browse/2010/en>
58
59
60

- 1
 - 2
 - 3
 - 4
 - 5
 - 6
 - 7
 - 8
 - 9
 - 10
 - 11
 - 12
 - 13
 - 14
 - 15
 - 16
 - 17
 - 18
 - 19
 - 20
 - 21
 - 22
 - 23
 - 24
 - 25
 - 26
 - 27
 - 28
 - 29
 - 30
 - 31
 - 32
 - 33
 - 34
 - 35
 - 36
 - 37
 - 38
 - 39
 - 40
 - 41
 - 42
 - 43
 - 44
 - 45
 - 46
 - 47
 - 48
 - 49
 - 50
 - 51
 - 52
 - 53
 - 54
 - 55
 - 56
 - 57
 - 58
 - 59
 - 60
22. Enzler MJ, Berbari E, Osmon DR. Antimicrobial prophylaxis in adults. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2011.86(1):686–701. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4065/mcp.2011.0012>
23. Bisno A, Butchart EG, Ganguly NK, et al. Rheumatic Fever and Rheumatic Heart Disease. *Who Tech Rep Ser.* 2001.923:1–122.
24. World Health Organization. Guidelines for the treatment of malaria, 2nd edition. Geneva; 2010; p. 197p. http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2010/9789241547925_eng.pdf(accessed 2015 Mar 13)
25. Means AR, Weaver MR, Burnett SM, et al. Correlates of inappropriate prescribing of antibiotics to patients with malaria in Uganda. *PLoS One.* 2014.9(2):1–7.
26. Alvarez-uria G, Zachariah S, Thomas D. High prescription of antimicrobials in a rural district hospital in India. *Pharm Pr.* 2014.12(2):1–4.
27. Habib G, Hoen B, Tornos P, et al. Guidelines on the prevention, diagnosis, and treatment of infective endocarditis. *Eur Heart J.* 2009.30:2369–413.
28. Maisch B, Seferović PM, Ristić AD, et al. Guidelines on the Diagnosis and Management of Pericardial Diseases: Executive Summary. Vol. 25, *European Heart Journal.* 2004; p. 587–610.
29. Schultheiss HP, Khl U, Cooper LT. The management of myocarditis. *Eur Heart J.* 2011.32:2616–25.
30. National centre for disease Control India. India National Treatment Guidelines for Antimicrobial Use in Infectious Diseases. Vol. 0. New Dehli; 2016; p. 1–64. http://www.ncdc.gov.in/writereaddata/linkimages/AMR_guideline7001495889.pdf
31. Bennet JE, Dolin R, Blaser MJ. Madell, Douglas and Bennet’s Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases. 8th ed. Philadelphia: Saunders; 2014;
32. Davey P, Wilcox M, Irwing W, et al. Antimicrobial Chemotherapy. 7th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 2015;
33. Tripathi K. Essentials of Medical Pharmacology. Antimicrobial Drugs. 6th edition. 6th ed. New Dehli: Jaypee Brothers Medical Publishers; 2012;
34. Kumar R, Indira K, Rizvi a., et al. Antibiotic prescribing practices in primary and secondary health care facilities in Uttar Pradesh, India. *J Clin Pharm Ther.* 2008.33:625–34.
35. Pitaknetinan K, Tangcharoensathien V, Supachutikul a, et al. Profit, payment and pharmaceutical practices: perspectives from hospitals in Bangkok. *Health Policy.* 1999.46:179–94. <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10351667>
36. Who. Promoting rational use of medicines: core components. *WHO Policy Perspect Med.* 2002.:1–6. <http://apps.who.int/medicinedocs/pdf/h3011e/h3011e.pdf>

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

37. Blumenthal D. Doctors and Drug Companies. *N Engl J Med.* 2004.351:1885–7.

For peer review only

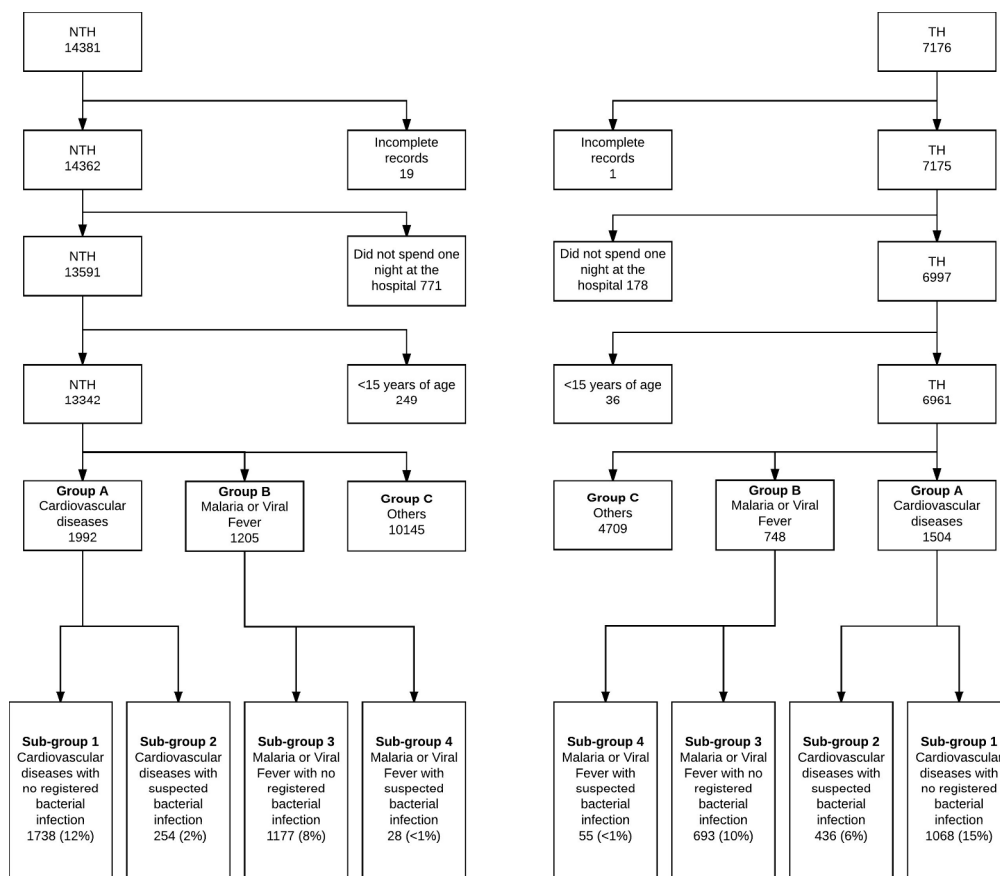


Figure 1. The process of selection and grouping of inpatients admitted in medicine departments of the TH and the NTH based on their diagnosis.

Figure 1. The process of selection and grouping of inpatients admitted in medicine departments of the TH and the NTH based on their diagnosis.

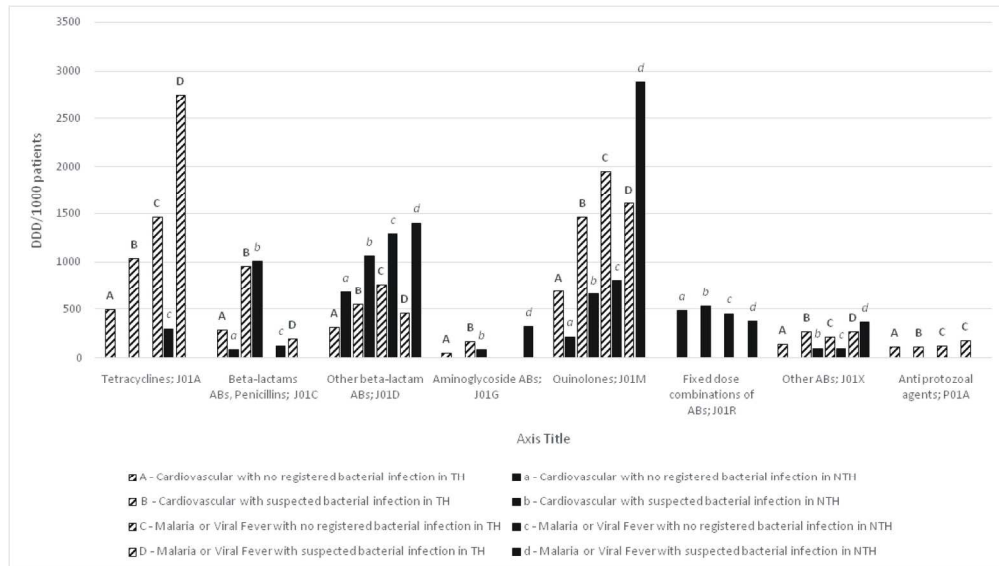


Figure 2. Top 90% of prescription in the four selected groups measured in DDD/1000 patients, presented at fourth level of the ATC classification at one teaching and one non-teaching hospitals in Ujjain, India

Figure 2. Top 90% of prescript
91x51mm (600 x 600 DPI)

STROBE Statement—checklist of items that should be included in reports of observational studies

	Item No	Recommendation	Page number
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract	1
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found	2-3
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported	5
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any pre specified hypotheses	6
Methods			
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	6
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	6
Participants	6	(a) <i>Cohort study</i> —Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants. Describe methods of follow-up	7
		<i>Case-control study</i> —Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of case ascertainment and control selection. Give the rationale for the choice of cases and controls	
		<i>Cross-sectional study</i> —Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants	
		(b) <i>Cohort study</i> —For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and unexposed	
		<i>Case-control study</i> —For matched studies, give matching criteria and the number of controls per case	
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	7
Data sources/ measurement	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group	8
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	9-10
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	8

1	Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses.	8-10
2			If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why	
3				
4				
5	Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to	
6			control for confounding	
7				
8			(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and	
9			interactions	
10				
11			(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	
12				
13			(d) <i>Cohort study</i> —If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up	10
14			was addressed	
15				
16			<i>Case-control study</i> —If applicable, explain how matching of cases	
17			and controls was addressed	
18				
19			<i>Cross-sectional study</i> —If applicable, describe analytical methods	
20			taking account of sampling strategy	
21				
22			(e) Describe any sensitivity analyses	
23				
24				
25				
26				
27				
28				
29				
30				
31				
32				
33				
34				
35	Continued on next page			
36				
37				
38				
39				
40				
41				
42				
43				
44				
45				
46				
47				
48				
49				
50				
51				
52				
53				
54				
55				
56				
57				
58				
59				
60				

Continued on next page

Results			Page Number
Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed	9,10
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential confounders	09-11 Table 1
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	
		(c) <i>Cohort study</i> —Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)	
Outcome data	15*	<i>Cohort study</i> —Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	10-11, 14-15 Table 2
		<i>Case-control study</i> —Report numbers in each exposure category, or summary measures of exposure	
		<i>Cross-sectional study</i> —Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures	
Main results	16	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included	11-17 Table 2, 3 and 4 Figure 2
		(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized	
		(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period	
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses	
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	18
Limitations	19	Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias	23
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	18-22
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	24
Other information			
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	25

*Give information separately for cases and controls in case-control studies and, if applicable, for exposed and unexposed groups in cohort and cross-sectional studies.

BMJ Open

Antibiotic prescriptions to the inpatients having non-bacterial diagnosis at medicine departments of two private sector hospitals in Madhya Pradesh, India: a cross sectional study

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2016-012974.R2
Article Type:	Research
Date Submitted by the Author:	18-Nov-2016
Complete List of Authors:	Landstedt , Kristoffer; Karolinska Institutet, Global Health - Health Systems and Policy (HSP): Medicines, focusing antibiotics, Department of Public Health Sciences Sharma, Ashish; R. D. Gardi Medical College, Department of Medicine Johansson, Fredrik; Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden, Global Health - Health Systems and Policy (HSP): Medicines, focusing antibiotics, Department of Public Health Sciences Lundborg, Cecilia; Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden, Global Health - Health Systems and Policy (HSP): Medicines, focusing antibiotics, Department of Public Health Sciences Sharma, Megha; R. D. Gardi Medical College, Pharmacology; Karolinska Institutet, Global Health - Health Systems and Policy (HSP): Medicines, focusing antibiotics, Department of Public Health Sciences
Primary Subject Heading:	Public health
Secondary Subject Heading:	Epidemiology, Global health, Infectious diseases, Public health, Health services research
Keywords:	Private sector hospitals, Medicine department, Antibiotics, Non-bacterial infections, Inpatients, India

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

1
2
3 **Antibiotic prescriptions to the inpatients having non-bacterial diagnosis at medicine**
4 **departments of two private sector hospitals in Madhya Pradesh, India: a cross sectional**
5 **study**
6

7 **Authors list:**

8 Kristoffer Landstedt¹, Ashish Sharma², Fredrik Johansson¹, Cecilia StålsbyLundborg^{1*}, Megha
9 Sharma^{1, 3*§}
10

11 ¹Global Health - Health Systems and Policy (HSP): Medicines, focusing antibiotics,
12 Department of Public Health Sciences, Karolinska Institutet, Tomtebodavägen 18A, 17177
13 Stockholm, Sweden
14

15 ²Department of Medicine, Ruxmaniben Deepchand Gardi Medical College, Ujjain, India
16

17 ³Department of Pharmacology, Ruxmaniben Deepchand Gardi Medical College, Ujjain, India
18
19

20
21
22 * Shared last authorship

23 §Corresponding author: Megha Sharma

24 Department of Pharmacology, Ruxmaniben Deepchand Gardi Medical College, Ujjain, India,
25 Mobile: +91-98273-61961, Office- +91-7368-261288
26
27

28
29 Global Health - Health Systems and Policy (HSP): Medicines, focusing antibiotics,
30 Department of Public Health Sciences, Karolinska Institutet, Tomtebodavägen 18A, 17177
31 Stockholm, Sweden
32
33

34
35
36
37
38 **Keywords:** Private sector hospitals, Medicine department, Antibiotics, Non-bacterial
39 infections, Inpatients, India
40
41
42
43
44

45 **Email addresses:**

46 KL: Landstedt_N@hotmail.com

47 AS: ashishricha2001@yahoo.co.in

48 FJ: fredrik.johansson@stud.ki.se

49 CSL: cecilia.stalsby.lundborg@ki.se

50 MS: meghasharma27@rediffmail.com
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Abstract

Objectives: To present and compare antibiotic prescribing among inpatients among most common non-bacterial diagnoses groups at medicine departments of a teaching (TH) and a non-teaching hospital (NTH) in Central India.

Setting: An observational cross-sectional study was conducted at two tertiary care settings at Ujjain district, Madhya Pradesh, India.

Participants: The data was collected manually, using a customized form. Complete records of all inpatients, who were >15 years of age and stayed at-least for one night in either of the hospitals during 2008-2011, were analysed.

Outcome measures: Inpatients were grouped based on the presence or absence of; a bacterial infectious diagnosis, viral/ malaria fever or cardiovascular diseases. Classes of antibiotics prescribed to these groups, and adherence to the available prescribing guidelines were compared between the hospitals using the notes from the patient files, and the diagnoses.

Results: Of 20303 inpatients included in the study, 66% were prescribed antibiotics. Trade name prescribing and use of broad spectrum antibiotics were more frequent at the NTH compared to the TH ($p<0.001$). At the TH significantly higher proportion of patients having fever without registered bacterial infection; were prescribed antibiotics (82%) compared with the NTH (71%, $p<0.001$). Patients admitted for cardiovascular diagnosis without registered bacterial infections received antibiotic prescriptions at both hospitals; (NTH- 47%and TH- 37%); it was significantly higher at the NTH ($p<0.001$). None of the diagnoses were confirmed by microbiology reports.

Conclusions: Prescribing antibiotic including broad spectrum antibiotics to the inpatients without bacterial infections i.e. viral fever, malaria and cardiovascular diseases were common

1
2
3 at both hospitals which increase the risk for development of bacterial resistance, a global
4 public health threat. Taking account of over prescribing of antibiotics, development and
5 implementation of local prescribing guidelines, encouragement to use laboratory facilities,
6 and prescription analysis, with antibiotic stewardship programs are the main
7 recommendations for the settings.
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For peer review only

Strengths and limitations

- Prospective study over a long time period of three years and inclusion of all patients, irrespective of their age and sex strengthens the representativeness of the results and overcome the seasonal variations.
- Data collecting tools were same at both study hospitals and the staff who collected the data was trained by the same person at both locations to minimize the variances.
- An observational non-interventional study design might have minimized the effect on the prescribers of being observed and audited.
- All possible efforts were made to minimize the risk of missing data by continuous monitoring and cross checking of the data. However, some data, for example few diagnoses might have been lost during translation from analogue to digital records.
- A big proportion of patients were categorised in the suspected bacterial diagnosis groups. Some of these diagnoses could have been categorised in non-bacterial diagnoses group if confirmed aetiology, i.e. microbiology reports, was present. This could have contributed to even higher antibiotic prescribing rates in the non-bacterial diagnoses group. However, due to absence of confirmed aetiology and observational study design this was indispensable.

BACKGROUND

Increasing morbidity and mortality due to infectious diseases, despite of the availability of the lifesaving antibiotics is an alarming situation, globally,[1]. These incidences of mortalities due to infections are higher in low- and middle-income countries than in high-income countries,[2–4]. The WHO has reported a high burden of communicable diseases in India, and infections are responsible for 28% of the total mortality in the country,[5,6]. Additionally, antibiotic resistance in India is reported to be high. However, figures cannot be generalized to all Indian settings as the bacterial resistance patterns widely vary between its regions and settings and most studies so far have been relatively limited in scope,[7].

Irrational (both over- and under-) use of antibacterials, is of global concern. It results in unnecessary treatment costs, is a potential risk for the development of antibiotic resistance and side effects such as antibiotic associated diarrhoea caused by *Clostridium difficile* or gastroenteritis,[8]. According to a report, the global consumption of antibiotics increased by 36% between 2000 and 2010 of which five countries including India (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) accounted for 76% of this increase,[9]. Despite of the paucity of studies that describe antibiotic prescribing from India, Van Boeckel et al presented India on the top of the list of antibiotic consumption with 12.9×10^9 units in 2010 where one unit indicates a pill, capsule or ampoule,[1,9]. However, this increase might also have meant that segments of the population that previously had no access to antibiotics can now access antibiotics yet it cannot be disregarded that antibiotic resistance is a sequel of antibiotic use,[10].

It is thus imperative to map the prescribing patterns of antibiotics on a local level to address the potential need of improvement and to counter the consequences of inappropriate prescription of antibiotics. Indian private sector are the major healthcare providers but little is known about prescribing patterns in this sector,[11–14].

OBJECTIVES

The study was conducted to present, analyse and compare antibiotic prescribing to the inpatients enrolled for most common non-bacterial diagnoses at the medicine departments of a teaching (TH) and a non-teaching hospital (NTH) in Central India.

METHODS

Study design

A cross sectional observational design was selected to conduct the study.

Setting

The study was conducted at the medicine departments of two tertiary care hospitals from private sector in Ujjain district, India. The hospitals are addressed as teaching hospital (TH) and non-teaching hospital (NTH). Both hospitals are run by the same trust. The TH is located in a rural area of Ujjain district and had 570 beds at the time of the study. The NTH is located in the central part of Ujjain city and had 350 beds at the time of the study. The TH provides medical services including medical treatment and free of charge medicines to all patients while the NTH charges for the medical facilities on a 'no profit-no loss' basis. Patients from the NTH have to buy prescribed medicines out-of-pocket from the pharmacies inside or outside the hospital. The physicians at the TH are salary paid and do not have any direct exposure to the sales representatives of pharmaceutical companies. Furthermore, the management at the TH is responsible for the purchase and supply of the drugs.

Hospital level Essential medicine list was available in written form at the TH but no specific implementation activities were conducted during the study period. Local prescribing guidelines were not present in any of the hospitals. Almost all physicians practicing at the NTH also had private practice and could be contacted by the representatives of pharmaceutical companies easily. The payments of the physicians at the NTH increase above

1
2
3 par according to the number of patients they admit in the hospital and the number of visits
4
5 made to the inpatients. Both hospitals are tertiary care hospitals with a number of specialty
6
7 departments such as; Pediatrics, Obstetrics and Gynecology, Surgery, Orthopedics,
8
9 Pulmonary Medicine, and so on to treat specific patients. For example; patients presenting
10
11 with complaints related to lungs and chest (other than heart) visit the Pulmonary Medicine
12
13 department. A well-equipped microbiology laboratory was present to process the samples free
14
15 of cost for all from the TH and with nominal charges from the NTH.
16
17

18 19 **Participants**

20 21 **Inclusion and exclusion criteria**

22
23 Patients who stayed for at least one night at medicine departments of either of the two
24
25 hospitals were considered as inpatients and included in the study. Patients who had
26
27 incomplete records or admitted to the medical intensive care units within the medicine
28
29 departments were not included in the analysis. Treatment recommendations including dose
30
31 and frequency is different for patients under 15 years of age and the DDD measurement is not
32
33 applicable to them, thus they were also excluded,[15].
34
35
36

37 38 **Variables**

39
40 The patient information was analysed for age, sex, diagnosis, duration of hospitals stay, if
41
42 they received antibiotic treatment, and duration of antibiotic treatment. The prescriptions were
43
44 analysed for the type of antibiotics prescribed, its dose, and frequency. The antibiotics were
45
46 classified according to the Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical (ATC) classification given by
47
48 the WHO Collaborating Centre for Drug Statistics Methodology (WHOCC),[16].Defined
49
50 Daily Doses (DDD) were calculated for all prescribed antibiotics,[16]. DDD is a technical
51
52 unit for comparative purposes and is the average daily dose of the specific drug for its main
53
54 indication in adults,[15]. Fixed dose combinations of antibiotics (FDCs) that did not have an
55
56 ATC code assigned by WHOCC were assigned the code 'J01RA*' according to Sharma et
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 al,[17]. FDCs that did not have a DDD were assigned one by examining the constituents and
4
5 the proportions in which they were found in one unit dose. DDD was then calculated on the
6
7 basis of number of units and converted to dose in gram. Total number of antibiotics
8
9 prescribed during hospital stay was counted per patient and was termed as prescribing
10
11 occasions.

12
13
14 The List of Essential Medicines of India (NLEMI) is based on the WHO list of essential
15
16 medicines (WHOLEM) and adapted to the disease panorama of India,[18]. These lists serve
17
18 as guidelines to promote the prescribing of safe, cheap and effective drugs to the
19
20 population,[18,19]. Adherence to these lists was evaluated for all prescriptions.
21
22

23 24 **Data sources and considerations**

25
26
27 The data collection process is described in detail elsewhere,[13,14]. In brief, the study was
28
29 conducted prospectively between April 1st, 2008 and March 31st, 2011. Patient throughput in
30
31 the TH and the NTH amounted to 29026 and 41561 patients respectively. The data were
32
33 manually collected by the nurses using a specially designed form attached to the patient's file
34
35 at the medicine department of the TH and the NTH. All patients were included to minimize
36
37 the possibility of selection bias. Every admission in the department was considered as a new
38
39 patient. The nurses and new recruits were trained regularly for the data collection by the last
40
41 author (MS). The data collection form was updated daily based on patient's day to day
42
43 progress. All notes written in the patient files by the treating consultant were recorded and
44
45 included for the analysis. It was possible that a patient could have more than one diagnosis.
46
47 Therefore all indications, diagnoses and/or symptoms recorded in the patient files, were
48
49 transferred to the data collection form. The data was translated to digital data files using EPI
50
51 Info 3.1 and Microsoft Excel. Two specifically trained data entry operators translated the
52
53 diagnoses as per 'International Classification of Diseases' (ICD-10 codes) and the generic
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 names of the prescribed antibiotics were translated to WHO assigned ATC-codes and Defined
4
5 Daily Doses (DDDs) per day,[15,20,21].
6
7

8 In order to exclude all clinically suspected cases of bacterial infection and following the aim
9
10 of the study, best possible efforts were made to distinguish the patients who had any
11
12 indications even for secondary antibiotic prophylaxis from those who did not,[22–24]. The
13
14 patients were categorized into three main groups using the diagnoses registered in the patient
15
16 files and the ICD-10 codes; Group (a) cardiovascular diseases, (b) non-bacterial fevers and (c)
17
18 all diagnoses other than Group (a) and (b) including all types of bacterial infections. Sixty
19
20 seven percent of patients in the TH and 75% in the NTH were included in Group (c). All
21
22 cases of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) were also included in Group c.
23
24 Although aetiology of the disease was seldom specified in the records but these patients
25
26 should receive less restricted antibiotic treatment.
27
28

29
30
31 Groups (a) and (b) were selected for detail study of the antibiotic prescribing for non-bacterial
32
33 diagnoses as per the study aim. In 'Group (a)', hypertension, acute myocardial infarction and
34
35 valvular heart disease were the most common diagnoses. In 'Group (b)' different types of
36
37 malaria and cases of viral fever (ICD code- B34.9) were included. These non-bacterial fevers
38
39 were common in both study settings. It has previously been reported that antibiotics are
40
41 prescribed to a high extent to patients having malaria or viral fever in malaria endemic
42
43 countries like Uganda (Figure 1),[25]. Moreover, Groups (a) and (b) comprised the largest
44
45 homogenous patient groups in our study settings.
46
47
48

49 **Figure 1. The process of selection and grouping of inpatients admitted in medicine departments**
50 **of the TH and the NTH based on their diagnosis.**
51

52 These groups were further divided into four sub-groups to identify and analyse the patients
53
54 exclusively having non-bacterial diagnoses corresponding to our study aim. The
55
56 cardiovascular group (Group a) was divided in two sub-groups; 'cardiovascular diseases with
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 no registered bacterial infection' (sub-group 1), 'cardiovascular diseases with suspected
4 bacterial infection' (sub-group 2). Similarly, the non-bacterial fever group (Group b) was
5 divided 'malaria or viral fever with no registered bacterial infection' (sub-group 3) and
6
7 'malaria or viral fever with suspected bacterial infection' (sub-group 4, Figure 1).
8
9

10
11
12 All patients with rheumatic heart disease (RHD) were categorized in sub-group 2 or in sub-
13 group 4 to rule out all possible bacterial infection as a confounder, since the WHO guidelines
14 for secondary prevention after rheumatic fever sets the duration of preventive antibiotic
15 treatment from five years up to life-long, depending on a number of factors e.g. time since the
16 last episode of rheumatic fever and severity of valve engagement and supports an individual
17 assessment of every case,[22,23].
18
19
20
21
22
23
24

25
26 An antibiotic prescribed for a day was considered as one prescribing occasion. Prescribed
27 DDDs were calculated per 1000 patients. According to WHOCC, oral metronidazole
28 (P01AB01) is coded as an antiprotozoal drug, but is coded as an antibacterial in the NLEMI.
29
30
31 Therefore it was considered as an antibacterial in this study,[18].
32
33
34
35

36 **Ethics statement**

37
38
39 Being an observational study, the data collection did not interfere with the treatment or caused
40 any extra risks for the patients. Moreover, the names of the prescribers were not recorded to
41 minimize the effect of being observed. All patients were assigned a unique code during the
42 data entry to maintain anonymity of the inpatients. This unique code was used to compare
43 details of patient information and antibiotic prescriptions for the analysis. The data was
44 collected at individual level for all inpatients and was linked per patient with the assigned
45 unique codes instead of; for example social security number. However, the analysis was
46 conducted at group level to maintain the confidentiality.
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 The ethics committee of Ruxmaniben Deepchand Gardi Medical College, Ujjain, approved
4
5 the study with approval number: 41/2007.
6
7

8 **Statistical Methods**

9
10 All frequency and percentage of categorical values were calculated. Sum, median, mean,
11
12 range and standard deviation were calculated for continuous numerical values. Values were
13
14 rounded off to the closest whole number for percentage, prescription tables and in the text.
15
16 The independent t-test was used for comparison of normally distributed and continuous
17
18 variables. The chi-square test was used for comparison of categorical values. Fischer's exact
19
20 test was used for expected values below 5 and Pearson chi-square test was used for expected
21
22 values above 5. Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons was used and p- values
23
24 <0.001 were chosen for significance level to minimize the risks of type one errors. The data
25
26 were analysed with Excel, SPSS version 22 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) and STATA
27
28 version 13.1 (Stata Corp, College station, TX, USA).
29
30
31
32

33 **RESULTS**

34
35
36 During the study period, totally 21557 patients were admitted to the two medicine
37
38 departments, 7176 patients in the TH and 14381 in the NTH (Figure 1). Of the admitted
39
40 patients, records of 20 patients were incomplete, 949 (5%) stayed less than one night and 285
41
42 patients (1%) were aged <15 years. Therefore, as per the inclusion criteria 1254 patient
43
44 records were excluded and 20303 (94%) records were included for further analysis (6961 at
45
46 the TH and 13342 at the NTH, Figure 1).
47
48

49
50 Most common diagnoses in the TH were chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD,
51
52 10%), viral fever (7%) and hypertension (5%) while in the NTH were viral fever (10%),
53
54 malaria (6%) and COPD (5%, Table 1). Antibiotics were prescribed to 4540/6961 inpatients
55
56 (65%) in the TH and 8900/13342 (67%) in the NTH (Table 2). An average of eight and five
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 prescribing occasions was found per patient at the TH and the NTH respectively. Overall a
4
5 significantly higher proportion of the antibiotics prescribed in the TH adhered to the NLEMI;
6
7 77% prescriptions (27649/35732) than in the NTH; 60% (24683/41068, $p<0.001$).

8
9
10 Seven percent of antibiotics in the TH were prescribed using generic names it was
11
12 significantly higher compared to the NTH (2%, $p<0.001$). Some antibiotics were prescribed
13
14 using trade names at the TH e.g., "Cipro", "Doxy", "Genta" and "Metrogyl". However, these
15
16 were local abbreviations devised by the staff for ciprofloxacin, doxycycline, gentamycin and
17
18 metronidazole respectively. Even though these four antibiotics were prescribed using trade
19
20 names, generic antibiotics were dispensed from the hospital pharmacy. A longer duration of
21
22 stay and longer duration of antibiotic treatment was observed at the TH (mean days; 6 and 6
23
24 respectively) compared to the NTH (mean days; 3 and 4 respectively, $p<0.001$).

25 26 27 28 **Distribution of inpatients in Groups a and b, and antibiotic prescription patterns**

29
30
31 Cardiovascular diseases accounted for 48% of patients in Group (a) and (b) at the TH and
32
33 30% at the NTH. In the non-bacterial fever group, malaria was significantly more common at
34
35 the NTH (74%) and viral fever was significantly more common at the TH (66%, $p<0.001$,
36
37 Table 1).

38
39
40 Broad-spectrum antibiotics such as third-generation cephalosporins (J01DD) and FDCs
41
42 (J01RA*) comprised 52% of the prescribing occasions at the NTH of which FDCs accounted
43
44 for approximately half (Table 3). These classes accounted for 13% of total prescribing
45
46 occasions and <1% FDCs. At the NTH, cephalosporins (third-generation cephalosporins
47
48 J01DD, >30%) were most commonly prescribed for the cardiovascular diseases (>35%),
49
50 followed by FDCs (>20%). Fluoroquinolones (J01M) was the most commonly prescribed
51
52 antibiotic class in the TH in both (a) and (b) groups (>30% and >40% respectively).
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

Table 1: Diagnoses of the four groups of inpatients at medicine departments at one teaching and one non-teaching hospitals in Ujjain, India

Group (a): Cardiovascular diseases						Group (b): Malaria or Viral fever					
Cardiovascular with no registered bacterial infection Sub-group 1			Cardiovascular with suspected bacterial infection Sub-group 2			Malaria or Viral Fever with no registered bacterial infection Sub-group 3			Malaria or Viral Fever with suspected bacterial infection Sub-group 4		
Diagnosis group	TH	NTH	Diagnosis group	TH	NTH	Diagnosis group	TH	NTH	Diagnosis group	TH	NTH
	n(%)	n(%)		n(%)	n(%)		n(%)	n(%)		n(%)	n(%)
Total	1068	1738	Total	438	254	Total	693	1177	Total	55	28
Hypertension	328(31)	470(27)	COPD	209(48)	77(30)	Malaria	237(34)	872(74)	COPD	10(18)	5(18)
Cerebro vascular accident	126(12)	383(22)	Rheumatic Heart Disease	130(30)	102(40)	Cerebral malaria caused by <i>P. falciparum</i>	4(1)	11(1)	Urinarytract infection	5(9)	7(25)
Acute Myocardial Infarction	28(3)	202(12)	Pulmonary Tuberculosis	19(4)	18(7)	Malaria caused by <i>P. falciparum</i> UNS	9(1)	9(1)	Tyfooid fever	8(15)	2(7)
Chronic Ischemic Heart Disease	17(2)	189(11)	Urinarytract infection	17(4)	15(6)	Malaria caused by <i>P. vivax</i> UNS	16(2)	61(5)	Acute gastroenteritis	4(7)	6(21)
Coronary Artery Disease	98(9)	101(6)	Acute Gastroenteritis	14(3)	12(5)	Malaria UNS	208(30)	791(67)	Disease of airways UNS	8(15)	0(0)
Left Ventricle Failure	44(4)	69(4)	Lower airway infection UNS	13(3)	0(0)	Viral fever	456(66)	305(26)	Disease of upper airways UNS	7(13)	0(0)
Congestive Heart Failure	56(5)	39(2)	Sepsis	0(0)	5(2)				Pulmonary Tuberculosis	4(7)	2(7)
Dilated Cardiomyopathy	79(7)	6(<1)	HIV with infection	8(2)	1(<1)				HIV with infection	2(4)	0(0)
Unspecified Cardiomyopathy	21(2)	54(3)	Rheumatic Fever	1(<1)	4(2)				Rheumatic Heart Disease	2(4)	1(4)
Multiple Valve Disease	61(6)	7(<1)	Endocarditis	0(0)	4(2)				Pelvic Inflammatory Disease	2(4)	0(0)
Angina Pectoris	10(1)	35(2)	Pneumonia	1(<1)	4(2)				Pneumonia	0(0)	1(4)
Acute Ischemic Heart Disease	31(3)	11(1)	Others	26(6)	12(5)				Other diagnoses	3(5)	4(14)
Deep Vein Thrombosis UNS	13(1)	19(1)									
Mitral Stenosis	21(2)	2(<1)									
Hypertensive Heart Disease	20(2)	1(<1)									
Cardiac arrest	2(<1)	16(1)									
Other	113(11)	134(8)									

Abbreviations: n (%): Number of patients (percentage in that diagnosis group), NTH: non-teaching hospital, TH: teaching hospital, COPD: chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, UNS: unspecified, *P.-plasmodium*, HIV: human immunodeficiency virus.

Table 2: Demographic details and antibiotic prescribing information of the inpatients at medicine departments at one teaching and one non-teaching hospitals in Ujjain, India

	Group (a): Cardiovascular diseases						Group (b): Malaria or Viral Fever								
	Medicine Department			Cardiovascular with no registered bacterial diagnosis (Sub-group 1)			Cardiovascular with suspected bacterial infection (Sub-group 2)			Malaria or Viral Fever with no registered bacterial diagnosis (Sub-group 3)			Malaria or Viral Fever with suspected bacterial infection (Sub-group 4)		
	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value
Inpatients; n	6961	13342		1068	1738		438	254		693	1177		55	28	
Age; mean years (SD)	45(17)	43 (18)	<0.001	53 (14)	55 (15)	<0.001	49 (17)	51 (17)	0.222	36 (15)	35 (16)	0.387	37 (14)	40 (20)	0.440
Inpatients prescribed AB; n (%)	4540 (65)	8900 (67)	0.034	392 (37)	808 (47)	<0.001	299 (68)	179 (71)	0.545	569 (82)	831 (71)	<0.001	53 (96)	21 (75)	0.006 ^a
Duration of hospital stay; mean days (SD)	6 (5)	3 (3)	<0.001	6 (5)	3 (3)	<0.001	7 (5)	4 (3)	<0.001	4 (4)	3 (2)	<0.001	5 (3)	4(2)	0.796
Duration of AB treatment; mean days (SD)	6 (4)	4 (2)	<0.001	6 (4)	4 (2)	<0.001	7 (4)	4 (2)	<0.001	5 (3)	4 (2)	<0.001	5 (2)	5(2)	0.419
Total AB prescription; n	35732	41068		2741	3366		2388	855		3210	3451		316	128	
Prescriptions per patient	7.8	4.6		7	4		8	4.8		5.6	4.2		6	6.1	
AB prescriptions by generic name; n (%)	2341 (7)	685 (2)	<0.001	175 (6)	47 (1)	<0.001	282 (12)	46 (5)	<0.001	61 (2)	52 (2)	0.214	19 (6)	5 (4)	0.374 ^a
Prescriptions of AB found in NLEMI; n (%)	27640 (77)	24683 (60)	<0.001	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Abbreviations: AB: antibiotics, NTH: non-teaching hospital, SD: standard deviation, TH: teaching hospital. Significant p-values are shown in bold. Independent sample t-test was used to compare age, duration of hospital stay and duration of antibiotic treatment. Pearson chi-square was used to compare prescription details with expected value >5. ^aFischer's exact test was used to compare expected values <5.

Table 3: Class wise distribution of prescribed antibiotics in four selected diagnoses groups at one teaching and one non-teaching hospitals in Ujjain, India

Name of AB; ATC-code	Group (a): Cardiovascular diseases						Group (b): Malaria or Viral fever					
	Cardiovascular with no registered bacterial infection (Sub-group 1)			Cardiovascular with suspected bacterial infection (Sub-group 2)			Malaria or Viral Fever with no registered bacterial infection (Sub-group 3)			Malaria or Viral Fever with suspected bacterial infection (Sub-group 4)		
	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value	TH	NTH	p-value
	n (%)	n (%)		n (%)	n (%)		n (%)	n (%)		n (%)	n (%)	
Total prescriptions	2741	3366		2388	855		3210	3451		316	128	
Tetracyclines; J01A: J01AA	284 (10)	5 (0)	<0.001	243 (10)	0 (0)		553 (17)	75 (2)	<0.001	83 (26)	0 (0)	
Beta-lactam ABs, penicillin; J01C	458 (17)	498 (15)	0.041	622 (26)	184 (22)	0.009	111 (3)	245 (7)	<0.001	12 (4)	7 (5)	0.431
Extended-spectrum penicillins; J01CA	83 (3)	99 (3)	0.843	122 (5)	99 (12)	<0.001	19 (1)	51 (1)	<0.001	0 (0)	2 (2)	
Combination of penicillin incl. Beta-lactamase AB; J01CR	373 (14)	399 (12)	0.040	500 (21)	85 (10)	<0.001	92 (3)	194 (6)	<0.001	12 (4)	5 (4)	1.0 ^a
Other Beta-lactam; J01D	488 (18)	1391 (41)	<0.001	353 (15)	304 (36)	<0.001	665 (21)	1792 (52)	<0.001	40 (13)	39 (30)	<0.001
1st gen. cephalosporins; J01DB	7 (0)	16 (1)	0.163	0 (0)	5 (1)		0 (0)	9 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
2nd gen. cephalosporins; J01DC	0 (0)	98 (3)		0 (0)	27 (3)		0 (0)	168 (5)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
3rd gen. cephalosporins; J01DD	481 (18)	1254 (37)	<0.001	353 (15)	272 (32)	<0.001	665 (21)	1606 (47)	<0.001	40 (13)	39 (30)	<0.001
4th gen. cephalosporins; J01DH	8 (0)	23 (1)	0.032	0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	9 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Sulfonamide with timethoprim; J01E: J01EE	8 (0)	0 (0)		18 (1)	0 (0)		8 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Macrolides, lincosamides J01F	16 (1)	2 (0)	<0.001	4 (0)	6 (1)	0.025*	15 (0)	7 (0)	0.060	3 (1)	4 (3)	0.110 ^a
Macrolides; J01FA	12 (0)	2	0.002	4 (0)	6 (1)		15 (0)	7 (0)		3 (1)	4 (3)	
Lincosamides; J01FF	4 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Aminoglycoside; J01G: J01GB	78 (3)	73 (2)	0.090	149 (6)	46 (5)	0.364	17 (1)	60 (2)	<0.001	11 (3)	9 (7)	0.102
Quinolones; J01M: J01MA	1031 (38)	301 (9)	<0.001	731 (31)	112 (13)	<0.001	1526 (48)	464 (13)	<0.001	126 (40)	37 (29)	0.030
Fixed dose combination of ABs; J01R: J01RA*	12 (0)	929 (28)	<0.001	31 (1)	170 (20)	<0.001	34 (1)	669 (19)	<0.001	6 (2)	17 (13)	<0.01
Other ABs; J01X	167 (6)	176 (5)	0.145	132 (6)	30 (4)	0.020	149 (5)	138 (4)	0.197	20 (6)	15 (12)	0.056
Glycopeptide ABs; J01XA	15 (1)	176 (5)	<0.001	0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Imidazole derivatives; J01XD	152 (6)	0 (0)		132 (6)	30 (4)	0.020	149 (5)	137 (4)	0.176	20 (6)	15 (12)	0.056
Other ABs; J01XX	0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	1 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Drugs for treatment of tuberculosis; J04A	0 (0)	0 (0)		24 (1)	0 (0)		0	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Antibiotics; J04AB (Treatment for Tuberculosis)	0 (0)	0 (0)		6 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Hydrazides; J04AC	0 (0)	0 (0)		6 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Other drugs for treatment of tuberculosis; J04AK	0 (0)	0 (0)		12 (1)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	
Nitromidazole derivatives; P01AB (Oral Metronidazole)	201 (7)	0 (0)		81 (3)	3 (0)	<0.001	132 (4)	1 (0)	<0.001	15 (5)	0 (0)	

Abbreviations: n(%): Number of patients (percentage in antibiotic class), AB: antibiotics, ATC: WHO anatomic therapeutic chemical classification, NTH: non-teaching hospital, TH: teaching hospital. Significant p-values shown in bold. Pearson chi-square and ^aFischer's exact test were used to compare antibiotic prescribing details, generation.

1
2
3 Third-generation cephalosporins (J01DD) constituted 47% and 30% of the prescriptions in
4 sub-group 3 and 4 at the NTH, followed by FDCs (19% and 29% of the prescriptions
5 respectively). Overall, antibiotic prescriptions were significantly more common for the
6 patients in sub-group 3 than in the sub-group 1' ($p < 0.001$). The type of malaria was verified
7 by blood samples reports in some cases of sub-group 3 (TH: 4% and NTH: 7%). None of the
8 records from the four sub-groups had requisition for sending samples for bacterial culture and
9 susceptibility test.
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18

19 Ciprofloxacin (J01MA02) was the most frequently prescribed antibiotic substance measured
20 in DDD/1000 patients at the TH and ceftriaxone (J01DD04, Table 4) at the NTH. The highest
21 number of prescribed DDDs/1000 patients was recorded for ciprofloxacin, followed by
22 doxycycline and ceftriaxone in both hospitals (Figure 2).
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Table 4: Most commonly prescribed antibiotics among the selected diagnoses groups presenting the prescribing occasions in DDDs/1000 patients at sixth level of the ATC classification

Name; ATC-code	Group (a): Cardiovascular diseases				Group (b): Malaria or Viral fever			
	Cardiovascular with no registered bacterial infection (Sub-group 1) n (%)		Cardiovascular with suspected bacterial infection (Sub-group 2) n (%)		Malaria or Viral Fever with no registered bacterial infection (Sub-group 3) n (%)		Malaria or Viral Fever with suspected bacterial infection (Sub-group 4) n (%)	
	TH	NTH	TH	NTH	TH	NTH	TH	NTH
Total DDDs/1000 patients	2062 (99)	1456 (100)	4514 (99)	3421 (100 [#])	4480 (100 [#])	3048 (100 [#])	5432 (100 [#])	5827 (100)
Doxycycline, J01AA02	491 (24)		1030 (23)		1463 (33)	296 (10)	2745 (51)	
Ampicillin, J01CA01	68 (3)		170 (4)					
Amoxicillin, J01CA04		81 (6)		435 (13)				
Amoxicillin + Clavulanic acid, J01CR02				566 (17)		88 (3)		
Piperacillin + Tazobactam, J01CR05						34 (1)		
Ampicillin + Cloxacillin, J01CR50	217 (11)		774 (17)				191 (4)	
Cefuroxime, J01DC02				95 (3)		136 (4)		
Cefprozil, J01DC10		75 (5)						
Cefotaxime, J01DD01	172 (8)	46 (3)	298 (7)	59 (2)	199 (4)	96 (3)	295 (5)	
Ceftriaxone, J01DD04	133 (6)	558 (38)	244 (5)	907 (27)	560 (13)	1052 (35)	164 (3)	1402 (24)
Azithromycin, J01FA10								476 (8)
Gentamicin, J01GB03	44 (2)		167 (4)	81 (2)				
Amikacin, J01GB06								321 (6)
Ofloxacin, J01MA01						202 (7)		
Ciprofloxacin, J01MA02	687 (33)	141 (10)	1057 (23)	527 (15)	1940 (43)	602 (20)	1185 (22)	2886 (50)
Norfloxacin, J01MA06			201 (4)				273 (5)	
Levofloxacin, J01MA12		73 (5)	202 (4)	129 (4)			145 (3)	
Cefoperazone + Sulbactam, J01RA*83		92 (6)		94 (3)		90 (3)		125 (2)
Ceftriaxone + Sulbactam, J01RA*84		228 (16)		277 (8)		199 (7)		
Ceftriaxone + Tazobactam, J01RA*85		162 (11)		156 (5)		162 (5)		250 (4)
Metronidazole, J01XD01	139 (7)		262 (6)	95 (3)	204 (5)	91 (3)	262 (5)	367 (6)
Metronidazole, P01AB01 (Oral)	111 (5)		109 (2)		114 (3)		172 (3)	

Abbreviations: n (%): Number of patients (percentage), AB: antibiotics, DDD: Defined Daily Dose, NTH: non-teaching hospital, TH: teaching hospital, [#] rounding off the percentages to nearest integer made the total more than 100%

1
2
3 **Figure 2. Top 90% of prescription in the four selected groups measured in DDD/1000 patients,**
4 **presented at fourth level of the ATC classification at one teaching and one non-teaching**
5 **hospitals in Ujjain, India**
6

7 **DISCUSSION**

8
9 To our knowledge this study is the first to investigate and present antibiotic prescription
10 practices at medicine departments in Indian private sector hospitals by focusing on non-
11 bacterial infectious diseases. This also leads to a limitation, as the results of the present study
12 could not be compared with the findings of any other study. Thus the results of present study
13 were compared with the most equivalent studies available globally.
14
15

16
17
18
19
20 Antibiotics were commonly prescribed to inpatients at both study hospitals. Irrespective of the
21 indications, broad-spectrum antibiotics and third-generation cephalosporins that should be
22 conserved for high risks co-morbidities and life-threatening bacterial infections were
23 prescribed frequently. This study also highlights the high rates of antibiotic prescriptions used
24 to treat the selected groups of non-bacterial infectious diseases such as cardiovascular disease,
25 malaria, and viral fever.
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 **Antibiotic prescriptions in the cardiovascular and fever groups**

34
35
36 The average percentage of patients that were prescribed antibiotics in the medicine
37 departments were similar (TH: 65% and NTH: 67%, $p < 0.001$) in comparison to the rates in
38 the medicine department of a public hospital at Bathalapalli, Andhra Pradesh, India
39 (63%),[26]. With a few exceptions, such as rheumatic fever, endocarditis, pericarditis and
40 myocarditis (bacterial or viral), cardiovascular diseases are primarily non-infectious. COPD
41 and RHD are the common associated diseases in cardiovascular patients. Rheumatic fever is
42 an immune response sequel to an infection and it may cause endocarditis,[23,27]. However,
43 pericarditis and myocarditis most commonly develop from viral pathogens where antibiotic
44 treatment is not a routine recommendation,[28,29].
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Interestingly, more than 35% of inpatients among the 'cardiovascular group with no registered
4 bacterial infection' were prescribed antibiotics at both hospitals. As per treatment guidelines
5 and recommendations, only patients who have confirmed infectious diagnosis are expected to
6 receive an antibiotic prescription,[30–32]. Nonetheless, empirical or presumptive antibiotic
7 therapy is also accepted when the clinical diagnosis, based on the presence of a strong clinical
8 suspicion of bacterial infection, is substantiated by relevant medical history and clinical
9 findings,[30]. According to the WHO and the Indian National Treatment Guidelines for
10 Antimicrobial Use; presumptive therapy is typically a one-time treatment given for clinically
11 presumed infection while waiting for the culture report,[31,32]. In combination of clinical
12 findings laboratory and radiological reports are considered to confirm the diagnosis and lead
13 to the definitive therapy,[32].
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28

29 Microbiology laboratories were highly under-utilized in both study hospitals. None of the
30 patient records in the selected four sub-groups included notes about sending samples for
31 culture and susceptibility testing. Therefore, the practice of prescribing antibiotics to the
32 patient groups with no registered bacterial infection in absence of laboratory confirmation
33 could not be considered to be rational. Among the COPD and RHD patients the aetiology of
34 the current episode of hospitalization could potentially be expected to be non-bacterial (e.g.
35 viral infection). However, this could not be confirmed due to the absence of laboratory
36 investigations. It is worth mentioning here that prolonged empiric antibiotic treatment without
37 a clear evidence of infection is one of the causes of the development of antibiotic resistance.
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48

49 More FDCs were prescribed to the cardiovascular patients at the NTH than at the TH.
50 Rationality of the newer FDCs coded with ATC-code: J01RA* has not been established yet
51 and these combinations are not listed in either the NLEMI or the WHOLEM,[18,19]. It is also
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 evident that the constituents of these combinations are often present in lower quantities than is
4
5 recommended which might lead to the development of antibiotic resistance,[33].
6
7

8 The sub-group 'malaria or viral fever with suspected bacterial infection' was found to have the
9
10 highest rate of antibiotic prescriptions among all the four sub-groups (TH: 96%, NTH: 75%).
11
12 Our result also highlight that patients with fever were more likely to receive antibiotic
13
14 prescriptions, than patients with cardiovascular diseases. Fever is a common symptom among
15
16 malaria, viral fever and bacterial infection. Therefore, the doctors might have prescribed
17
18 antibiotics as a 'prophylactic' treatment to treat bacterial infection, if any. In our study the rate
19
20 of antibiotic prescriptions for the patients with fever was higher than, yet comparable with a
21
22 study at primary and secondary health care settings in Uttar Pradesh, India where 85% of the
23
24 fever patients were prescribed antibiotics,[34]. Additionally, in our study a high percentage of
25
26 patients with fever (malaria or viral fever) with 'no registered bacterial infection' were
27
28 prescribed antibiotics (TH: 82%, NTH: 71%). An out-patient study from Uganda, a malaria
29
30 endemic country, showed that 42% of malaria patients were prescribed antibiotics without
31
32 any registered indication,[25]. As the majority of the prescriptions in our study were
33
34 empirical, the rationale for using the antibiotics cannot be evaluated. However, prescribing
35
36 antibiotics to treat non-bacterial infections is considered to be an irrational practice. Thus it is
37
38 imperative that this matter be addressed.
39
40
41
42
43

44 **Adherence to the essential medicine lists and prescriptions by generic name**

45
46 A higher proportion of prescribed antibiotics at the TH (77%) were from the NLEMI
47
48 compared with the NTH (60%, $p < 0.001$). This could be attributed to the presence of a
49
50 management policy to purchase and supply medicines at the TH. However, there is a need to
51
52 improve adherence to the NLEMI at both hospitals. According to WHO, prescribing by their
53
54 generic name is; part of rational prescribing, cost effective and provides flexibility to buy the
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 available medicine of any company. This policy is equally applicable for both public and
4
5 private healthcare settings. However, adherence to this policy is higher at public hospitals,
6
7 followed by 'private non-profit' hospitals and by the 'private for-profit' hospitals,[13,14,35]. In
8
9 the present study, significantly lower antibiotic prescriptions were made by generic names to
10
11 the patients of sub-group 1 (TH: 6%, NTH: 1% $p<0.001$) or sub-group 2 (TH: 12% NTH: 5%
12
13 $p<0.001$) at the NTH than at the TH. Third-generation cephalosporins (J01D, 29%) and FDCs
14
15 (J01RA*, 23%) were the most commonly prescribed classes of antibiotics at the NTH while
16
17 quinolones were most commonly prescribed at the TH (J01M, 37%, NTH: 13%). Previous
18
19 studies from Uttar Pradesh, India and Madhya Pradesh, India have also shown similar results
20
21 for academic and non-academic hospitals,[13,14,17]. The high incidence of prescribing these
22
23 classes is further supported by Van Boeckel et al, who observed a significant increase in the
24
25 consumption of fluoroquinolones and cephalosporins globally over the past decade. This
26
27 increase was mainly attributed to the increased rates in India and China,[9]. At the NTH,
28
29 prescriptions of FDCs varied between 19% and 28% among the selected sub-groups (TH:
30
31 $<2\%$) and the prescriptions of third-generation cephalosporins varied between 30% and 47%
32
33 (TH: $<22\%$). According to WHO, prescribing multiple antibiotics when not indicated, often
34
35 combined in inadequate doses (smaller or larger quantity than recommended) and prescription
36
37 of drugs other than local or national guidelines are all examples of actions deemed
38
39 inappropriate,[36]. All these practices could be seen in prescribing newer FDCs (J01RA*);
40
41 both of the study hospitals are from the private sector and are regulated by the same trust on a
42
43 'not for-profit' basis. The differences in the prescribing practices might be due to each
44
45 hospital's policy and the fact that academic hospitals are part of the educational process, and
46
47 regular educational activities conducted at these hospitals results in better adherence to the
48
49 guidelines, as seen at the TH. Another reason for the frequent prescribing of broad-spectrum
50
51 antibiotics, new FDCs and use of trade names at the NTH could be explained by the results of
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 a review conducted by Blumenthal et al,[37]. That review concluded that physicians who had
4 received gifts or money from pharmaceutical companies were more likely to prescribe drugs
5 produced by the brand names and less prone to use the generic names. The pressure from
6 pharmaceutical companies could be anticipated on the doctors at the NTH, due to unrestricted
7 visits from pharmaceutical company representatives,[37]. Moreover, these new FDCs of
8 antibiotics are more expensive than the regular and generic formulations,[13,14,37]. The
9 restriction of these visits and the management control over the purchase and supply of
10 medicines can be seen as main reasons for low incidence of prescribing FDCs prescribing and
11 high use of generic names at the TH.
12
13

14 Interestingly trade names were used as local abbreviations to prescribe four most commonly
15 prescribed antibiotics; ciprofloxacin, doxycycline, gentamycin and metronidazole at the TH,
16 as discussed in result section. However, only generic drugs were purchased and dispensed at
17 the TH due to administrative control over the purchase and supply of the drugs. Thus even if
18 these antibiotics were prescribed using an abbreviation similar to the trade name, they were
19 included in adherence to the generic name prescribing category.
20
21

22 **Duration of hospital stay and duration of antibiotic treatment**

23
24 In the present study both the duration of hospital stay and the duration of antibiotic treatment
25 were longer at the TH than the NTH among all inpatients groups. This could be due to the fact
26 that the patients at the TH received free healthcare services and drugs, making their stay
27 economically feasible. In contrast, at the NTH the patients had to pay for all the services and
28 drugs they received. This association of longer duration of stay and antibiotic treatment at TH
29 has also been observed in previous studies from India,[13,14,17]. However, it is evident that
30 the treatment given for a time period that is either shorter or longer than recommended, is
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 inappropriate and it substantially contributes to the development of antibiotic
4
5 resistance,[1,36].
6

7
8 Absence of computerized record systems in hospitals, absence of personal identification
9
10 number, untrained staff and high staff turnover makes a detailed study like this, time
11
12 consuming and onerous exercise and delays the analysis. We are aware that extensive manual
13
14 checking and working with the data like adding the ICD codes and the ATCs for the new
15
16 FDCs to the data has prolonged the analysis process and has delayed the presentation.
17
18 However, use of man power is the only option to conduct such detailed studies at resource
19
20 constrained settings but at the same time lead to relatively more accurate description of the
21
22 prescribing patterns.
23
24
25
26
27

28 **STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS**

29
30
31 A high number of patients were screened over a three year period this overcomes seasonal
32
33 variations in infectious aetiology which would affect antibiotic prescribing. Same form was
34
35 used for the data collection and the process was supervised and monitored by same person at
36
37 both hospitals to improve the reliability of the data. The diagnoses were not verified
38
39 externally being a limitation of the study. However, external verification is virtually
40
41 inapplicable to studies that rely upon the routine collection of data. The results of the study
42
43 were based on the notes included in the patient files. Extensive efforts were made to
44
45 document all notes including diagnoses written in the patient files. However, the possibility of
46
47 missing a few diagnoses and losing some data during the transition from the forms to the
48
49 digital storage cannot be excluded.
50
51
52

53 **CONCLUSION**

54
55
56 A higher number of prescribing occasions were recorded at the TH, and not at the NTH, with
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 regard to adherence to the guidelines. However, overall adherence was low. Fever was a risk
4
5 factor to receive antibiotic prescription at both hospitals. Patients with non-bacterial infections
6
7 such as malaria or viral fever or with cardiovascular diseases were prescribed antibiotics at
8
9 both medicine departments which could not be justified. Broad spectrum antibiotics with
10
11 irrational combinations of antibiotics were commonly prescribed in the study hospitals for
12
13 non-indicated conditions. A large proportion of patients were categorised as suspected
14
15 bacterial diagnoses (sub-groups 2 and 4). In the presence of confirmed aetiology, according to
16
17 microbiology reports, some of these could have been categorised in non-bacterial group and
18
19 could have contributed to higher antibiotic prescribing rates in the non-bacterial diagnoses
20
21 (sub-groups 1 and 3). However, this was unavoidable due to absence of confirmed aetiology
22
23 and the nature of the study design (observational).
24
25
26
27

28 **GENERALISABILITY AND FUTURE IMPLICATIONS**

29
30
31 The data collection method used in the study is robust and reliable. In accordance with one of
32
33 the WHO goals of "Global-action-plan" and in view of limited knowledge of antibiotic
34
35 utilization and resistance patterns our study findings suggest that there is a need to conduct
36
37 and share similar long term surveillance studies globally. The data collection method and
38
39 tested tool used in the study could easily be adapted in other settings that lack computerized
40
41 patient records. The management in the TH had a policy to control the purchase and supply of
42
43 medicines. This control shows positive effects at the TH compared to the NTH; to minimise
44
45 antibiotic prescribing, in better adherence to the NLEMI and in use of generic names. This
46
47 control could be implemented and tested in other constrained settings. The recruitment of
48
49 nursing staff for manual data collection who routinely work in the department would have
50
51 helped to minimize the influence on the prescribers. High prescribing rates of antibiotics and
52
53 use of FDCs among inpatients in these settings could broadly be considered as representative
54
55 for similar health care settings in low-middle income countries. Lack of culture of sending
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 cultures is another important issue raised by the study. The need to develop and implement
4
5 local diagnosis specific prescribing guidelines in conjugation with continuous follow-up is
6
7 also emphasized by our study. The physicians should be motivated to send samples for
8
9 cultures before prescribing antibiotics. Improving hygiene practices is another
10
11 recommendation to prevent spread of infection and to decrease in the 'prophylactic' use of
12
13 antibiotics.
14

15 16 17 **CONTRIBUTERSHIP STATEMENT**

18
19 MS and CSL designed, visualized the research question and developed the data collection
20
21 tool. MS conducted repeated training sessions for nursing personal for recording the data. MS
22
23 was also responsible for coordination with the nursing staff, monitoring and supervision of the
24
25 data collection and entry. CSL participated in planning the study design and the coordination
26
27 of the study. KL, CSL and MS participated in the conception and design of the present study
28
29 and revising the paper critically for substantial intellectual content. KL grouped and analyzed
30
31 the data, performed the statistical analysis and contributed in drafting the manuscript along
32
33 with MS, CSL, FJ and AS. KL, AS and MS were responsible for categorization of the
34
35 patients. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.
36
37
38
39

40 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

41
42
43 The authors have no competing interests to declare.
44
45

46 **FUNDING**

47
48 This study was supported by the Swedish Research Council (K2007-70X-20514-01-3) and
49
50 Asia Link (348-2006-6633). KL and FJ both received scholarships from Sida to visit the study
51
52 settings and perform the study. MS is a recipient of a scholarship from Erasmus Mundus
53
54 External Cooperation Window Lot-15, India.
55
56
57
58
59
60

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors are thankful to all nurses and the management of both hospitals for their support and help during the study.

DATA SHARING STATEMENT

As per the institutional policy, the data is available with the Institutional ethics committee. This is to protect the patient's confidentiality and to ensure the electronic security of the data. The data could be made available to all interested researchers upon request made to; The Chairman, Ethics Committee, R.D. Gardi Medical College, Agar Road, Ujjain, Madhya Pradesh, India 456006 (Email: iecrdgmcc@yahoo.in, uctharc@sancharnet.in), giving all details of the article. The ethical approval number: 41/2007 needs to be quoted along with the request.

REFERENCES

1. World Health Organization. The evolving threat of antimicrobial resistance: Options for action. WHO Publications. Geneva; 2014; http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2012/9789241503181_eng.pdf(accessed 2016 Sep 15)
2. World Health Organization. The top 10 causes of death. Geneva; 2014; <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs310/en/>(accessed 2016 Sep 15)
3. Global Antibiotic Resistance Partnership (GARP) India Working Group. Rationalizing antibiotic use to limit antibiotic resistance in India. *Indian J Med Res.* 2011.134:281–94.
4. Bhutta Z a, Sommerfeld J, Lassi ZS, et al. Global burden, distribution, and interventions for infectious diseases of poverty. *Infect Dis poverty.* 2014.3(1):21.
5. Global Antibiotic Resistance Partnership (GARP) India Working Group. Antibiotic Use and Resistance in India. New Dehli; 2011; [http://www.cddep.org/publications?page=1&f\[0\]=field_region:13](http://www.cddep.org/publications?page=1&f[0]=field_region:13)(accessed 2016 Sep 15)

- 1
2
3 6. World Health Organization. Disease and injury country estimates: Burden of disease.
4 Geneva;
5 http://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/estimates_country/en/index.html
6 (accessed 2016 Sep 16)
7
- 8
9 7. Kumar SG, Adithan C, Harish BN, et al. Antimicrobial resistance in India: A review. *J*
10 *Nat Sci Biol Med.* 2013.4(2):286–91.
- 11
12 8. Wilcox MH, Freeman J, Fawley W, et al. Long-term surveillance of cefotaxime and
13 piperacillin – tazobactam prescribing and incidence of *Clostridium difficile* diarrhoea.
14 *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2004.54(1):168–72.
- 15
16 9. Van Boeckel TP, Gandra S, Ashok A, et al. Global antibiotic consumption 2000 to
17 2010: An analysis of national pharmaceutical sales data. *Lancet Infect Dis.*
18 2014.14(April):742–50.
- 19
20 10. The World Bank. World development indicators, GNI per capita, Atlas method. 2015;
21 <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GNP.PCAP.CD>(accessed 2016 Sep 15)
22
- 23
24 11. De Costa A, Diwan V. “Where is the public health sector?”. Public and private sector
25 healthcare provision in Madhya Pradesh, India. *Health Policy (New York).*
26 2007.84:269–76.
- 27
28 12. Sekher T V. Catastrophic Health Expenditure and Poor in India : Health Insurance is
29 the Answer ? Vol. 494, SAGE-India. 2011; p. 1–4.
30 <http://iussp.org/en/event/17/programme/paper/4043>
31
- 32
33 13. Sharma M, Damlin AL, Sharma A, et al. Antibiotic prescribing in medical intensive
34 care units – a comparison between two private sector hospitals in Central India. *Infect*
35 *Dis (Auckl).* Elsevier Ltd; 2015.14(8):1–8.
- 36
37 14. Sharma M, Damlin A, Pathak A, et al. Antibiotic Prescribing among Pediatric
38 Inpatients with Potential Infections in Two Private Sector Hospitals in Central India.
39 *PLoS One.* 2015.10.
40 <http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0142317>
41
- 42
43 15. WHO Int WG for Drug Statistics Methodology. Introduction to Drug Utilization
44 Research. Oslo; 2003; p. 1–48.
45 http://www.whocc.no/filearchive/publications/drug_utilization_research.pdf(accessed
46 2016 Sep 16)
47
- 48
49 16. WHOCC. ATC/DDD Index. 2015; http://www.whocc.no/atc_ddd_index/(accessed
50 2015 Mar 13)
- 51
52 17. Sharma M, Eriksson B, Marrone G, et al. Antibiotic prescribing in two private sector
53 hospitals; one teaching and one non-teaching: A cross-sectional study in Ujjain, India.
54 *BMC Infect Dis.* 2012.12:155.
55
56
57
58
59
60

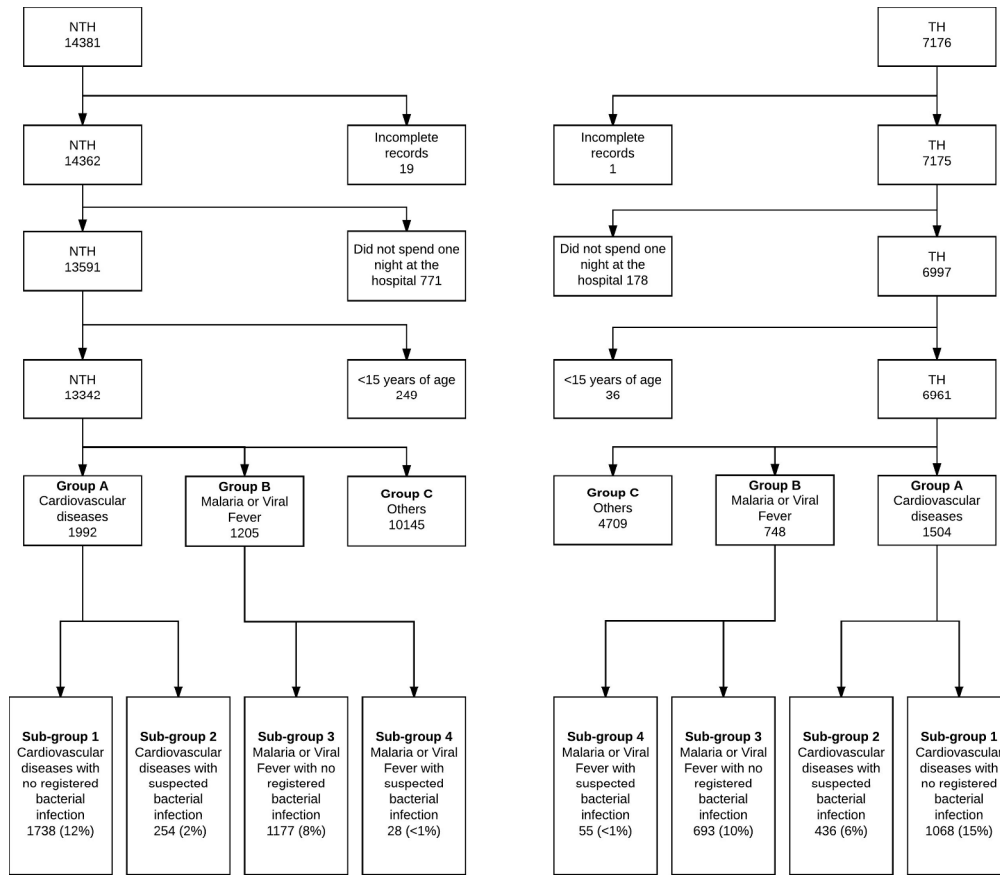
18. Organization CDSC. National List of Essential Medicines. New Dehli; 2011; <http://apps.who.int/medicinedocs/documents/s18693en/s18693en.pdf>(accessed 2016 Sep 16)
19. World Health Organization. Model List of Essential Medicines. Geneva; 2013; p. 1–43. http://www.who.int/medicines/publications/essentialmedicines/18th_EML_Final_web_8Jul13.pdf(accessed 2016 Sep 16)
20. World Health Organization. The international statistical classification of diseases and health related problems, ICD-10. Malta: World Health Organization; 2012;
21. World Health Organization. International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems 10th Revision (ICD-10) Version for 2010. <http://apps.who.int/classifications/icd10/browse/2010/en>
22. Enzler MJ, Berbari E, Osmon DR. Antimicrobial prophylaxis in adults. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2011.86(1):686–701. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4065/mcp.2011.0012>
23. Bisno A, Butchart EG, Ganguly NK, et al. Rheumatic Fever and Rheumatic Heart Disease. *Who Tech Rep Ser.* 2001.923(November 2001):1–122.
24. World Health Organization. Guidelines for the treatment of malaria, 2nd edition. Geneva; 2010; p. 197p. http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2010/9789241547925_eng.pdf(accessed 2015 Mar 13)
25. Means AR, Weaver MR, Burnett SM, et al. Correlates of inappropriate prescribing of antibiotics to patients with malaria in Uganda. *PLoS One.* 2014.9(2):1–7.
26. Alvarez-uria G, Zachariah S, Thomas D. High prescription of antimicrobials in a rural district hospital in India. *Pharm Pr.* 2014.12(2):1–4.
27. Habib G, Hoen B, Tornos P, et al. Guidelines on the prevention, diagnosis, and treatment of infective endocarditis. *Eur Heart J.* 2009.30:2369–413.
28. Maisch B, Seferović PM, Ristić AD, et al. Guidelines on the Diagnosis and Management of Pericardial Diseases: Executive Summary. Vol. 25, *European Heart Journal.* 2004; p. 587–610.
29. Schultheiss HP, Khl U, Cooper LT. The management of myocarditis. *Eur Heart J.* 2011.32:2616–25.
30. National centre for disease Control India. India National Treatment Guidelines for Antimicrobial Use in Infectious Diseases. Vol. 0. New Dehli; 2016; p. 1–64. http://www.ncdc.gov.in/writereaddata/linkimages/AMR_guideline7001495889.pdf
31. Bennet JE, Dolin R, Blaser MJ. Madell, Douglas and Bennet’s Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases. 8th ed. Philadelphia: Saunders; 2014;

- 1
2
3 32. Davey P, Wilcox M, Irwing W, et al. Antimicrobial Chemotherapy. 7th ed. Oxford:
4 Oxford University Press; 2015;
5
6 33. Tripathi K. Essentials of Medical Pharmacology. Antimicrobial Drugs. 6th edition. 6th
7 ed. New Dehli: Jaypee Brothers Medical Publishers; 2012;
8
9 34. Kumar R, Indira K, Rizvi a., et al. Antibiotic prescribing practices in primary and
10 secondary health care facilities in Uttar Pradesh, India. *J Clin Pharm Ther.*
11 2008.33:625–34.
12
13 35. Pitaknetinan K, Tangcharoensathien V, Supachutikul a, et al. Profit, payment and
14 pharmaceutical practices: perspectives from hospitals in Bangkok. *Health Policy.*
15 1999.46:179–94. <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10351667>
16
17 36. Who. Promoting rational use of medicines: core components. *WHO Policy Perspect*
18 *Med.* 2002.:1–6. <http://apps.who.int/medicinedocs/pdf/h3011e/h3011e.pdf>
19
20 37. Blumenthal D. Doctors and Drug Companies. *N Engl J Med.* 2004.351:1885–7.
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 **Figure 1. The process of selection and grouping of inpatients admitted in medicine departments**
4 **of the TH and the NTH based on their diagnosis.**
5
6
7

8 **Figure 2. Top 90% of prescription in the four selected groups measured in DDD/1000 patients,**
9 **presented at fourth level of the ATC classification at one teaching and one non-teaching**
10 **hospitals in Ujjain, India**
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

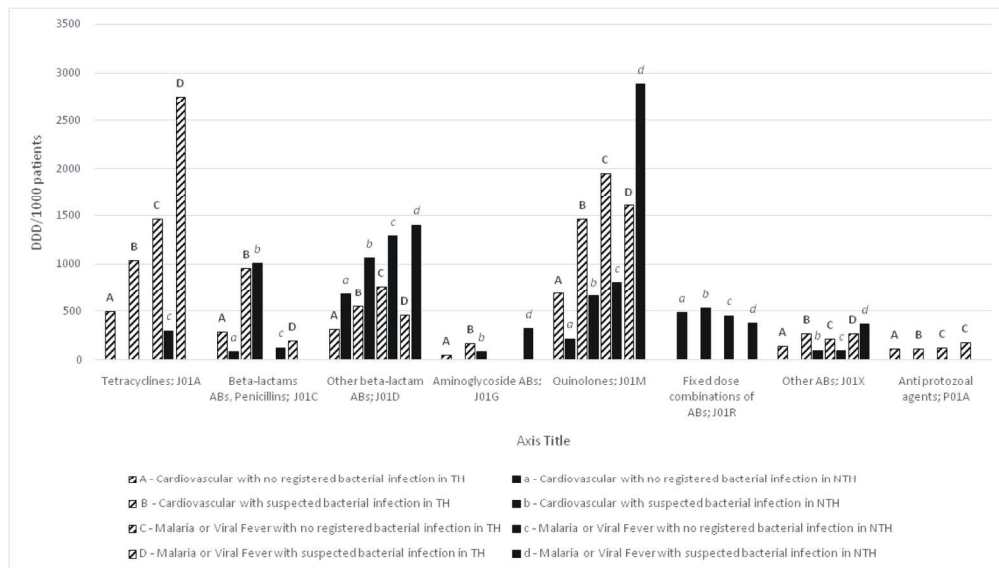
For peer review only



The process of selection and grouping of inpatients admitted in medicine departments of the TH and the NTH based on their diagnosis

674x590mm (96 x 96 DPI)

only



Top 90% of prescription in the four selected groups measured in DDD/1000 patients, presented at fourth level of the ATC classification at one teaching and one non-teaching hospitals in Ujjain, India

91x51mm (600 x 600 DPI)

Review only

STROBE Statement—checklist of items that should be included in reports of observational studies

	Item No	Recommendation	Page number
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract	1
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found	2-3
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported	5
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any pre specified hypotheses	6
Methods			
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	6
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	6
Participants	6	(a) <i>Cohort study</i> —Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants. Describe methods of follow-up <i>Case-control study</i> —Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of case ascertainment and control selection. Give the rationale for the choice of cases and controls <i>Cross-sectional study</i> —Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants	7
		(b) <i>Cohort study</i> —For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and unexposed <i>Case-control study</i> —For matched studies, give matching criteria and the number of controls per case	
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	7
Data sources/ measurement	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group	8
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	9-10
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	8

1	Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses.	8-10
2			If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why	
3				
4				
5	Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to	
6			control for confounding	
7				
8			(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and	
9			interactions	
10				
11			(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	
12				
13			(d) <i>Cohort study</i> —If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up	10
14			was addressed	
15				
16			<i>Case-control study</i> —If applicable, explain how matching of cases	
17			and controls was addressed	
18				
19			<i>Cross-sectional study</i> —If applicable, describe analytical methods	
20			taking account of sampling strategy	
21				
22			(e) Describe any sensitivity analyses	
23				
24				
25				
26				
27				
28				
29				
30				
31				
32				
33				
34				
35	Continued on next page			
36				
37				
38				
39				
40				
41				
42				
43				
44				
45				
46				
47				
48				
49				
50				
51				
52				
53				
54				
55				
56				
57				
58				
59				
60				

Continued on next page

Results		Page Number	
Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed	9,10
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential confounders	09-11 Table 1
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	
		(c) <i>Cohort study</i> —Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)	
Outcome data	15*	<i>Cohort study</i> —Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	10-11, 14-15 Table 2
		<i>Case-control study</i> —Report numbers in each exposure category, or summary measures of exposure	
		<i>Cross-sectional study</i> —Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures	
Main results	16	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included (b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized (c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period	11-17 Table 2, 3 and 4 Figure 2
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses	
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	18
Limitations	19	Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias	23
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	18-22
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	24
Other information			
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	25

*Give information separately for cases and controls in case-control studies and, if applicable, for exposed and unexposed groups in cohort and cross-sectional studies.