

1 **Factors associated with inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics among non-pharmacist**
2 **pharmacy workers**

3 **Abstract**

4 **Background:** Pharmacies are a primary source of healthcare services in low and middle
5 income countries, especially where patient to physician ratio is low. Due to the wide variability
6 in the training of pharmacy workers, inappropriate antibiotic dispensing is common, which
7 increases the risk of poor therapeutic outcomes and antibiotic resistance.

8 **Objectives:** This study aims to understand the factors that drive the inappropriate dispensing
9 of antibiotics among pharmacy workers in Bahawalpur, Pakistan.

10 **Methods:** In this qualitative study, the data were collected from the pharmacy workers through
11 semi-structured interviews. A two-step sampling procedure, including purposive and
12 convenient sampling techniques, was adopted to recruit the study participants. The sample size
13 was determined by applying the saturation point criteria. All interviews were audio recorded
14 and transcribed verbatim. The data were analysed to draw conclusions using the inductive
15 thematic analysis approach.

16 **Results:** A total of 16 in-depth interviews were conducted. Data analysis yielded four themes
17 and 18 subthemes. Under-dispensing and dispensing of antibiotics without need were reported.
18 Lack of knowledge of dispensers, false feeling of being qualified, social acceptance, customer
19 demands, public beliefs, high consultation fees of doctors, expensive diagnostic tests, economic
20 influences and profit maximization were the main factors associated with the inappropriate
21 dispensing of antibiotics.

22 **Conclusions:** Multiple pharmacy worker (non-pharmacist) level factors that may lead to the
23 inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics were identified in this study. There is a dire need for the

24 training of pharmacy workers and supervision of their dispensing practices. Strict enforcement
25 of legislation is required to restrict the irrational use of antibiotics in Pakistan.

26 **Key Words:** Antibiotics, pharmacy workers, dispensing, inappropriate, community pharmacy,
27 education, health education

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43 **Introduction**

44 Dispensing of antibiotics without a prescription is a common practice in low and middle
45 income countries (LMICs).^{1, 2} According to the World Health Organization (WHO), there are
46 0.97 physicians per 1000 people in Pakistan, compared with 0.70 in India, 1.6 in China and
47 2.56 in the United States (US).³ Due to limited access to physicians, pharmacies are often the
48 first port of call for the management of common ailments such as cough, cold, flu and
49 infections.⁴⁻⁶ Low physician to patient ratio restricts the strict enforcement of regulations for
50 over-the-counter (OTC) dispensing of antibiotics because the enforcement may limit the
51 availability of antibiotics for patients who cannot see the physician at the time of illness.¹ This
52 exacerbates the inappropriate use of antibiotics, which is further complicated by the wide
53 variability in the training of pharmacy workers.^{1, 7}

54 Absence of pharmacists at community pharmacies is common in developing countries
55 such as India, Bangladesh, China and Kenya, where community pharmacies are operated by
56 non-qualified and untrained pharmacy workers.^{1, 8-11} Lack of qualification and training of
57 pharmacy workers may lead to the inappropriate dispensing of medication, which is especially
58 dangerous in the case of antibiotics.² Inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics increases the risk
59 of adverse outcomes,¹² consequently compromising the desired therapeutic outcomes, safety
60 of therapy, costs of treatment, increased morbidity and mortality rates, and antibiotic
61 resistance.^{1, 13} In 2018, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) reported that
62 23,000 deaths were caused by antibiotic resistance annually in the US,¹⁴ and this mortality rate
63 is much higher in developing countries.¹⁵ Restricting the current increase in antibiotic
64 resistance is an utmost priority of the WHO.¹⁶

65 Pakistan is ranked the third highest consumer of antibiotics (after India and China)
66 among the 76 LMICs.¹⁷ Moreover, there is surge of antibiotic resistance in Pakistan,¹⁸ which

67 is making antimicrobial therapy more complex for infectious diseases, for example,
68 tuberculosis, malaria and typhoid fever.¹⁵ Several factors may be responsible for the
69 inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics, including poor enforcement of health regulations,
70 customer demands, overburdened healthcare system and inappropriate prescribing and
71 dispensing practices.¹⁹ With regard to the dispensing of medicines at drug stores in Pakistan,
72 the majority of the pharmacy workers have minimal formal education with 10 to 12 years of
73 schooling and with little or no professional training in pharmacy/medical field.²⁰ Although the
74 Pharmacy Act 1967 of Pakistan directs the proprietors of pharmacies to ensure the presence of
75 a pharmacist at their premises, this rule is weakly implemented.²¹ As a result, most of the
76 pharmacies operate without the presence of a pharmacist,²⁰ who is an appropriate healthcare
77 professional to understand the pharmaceutical care needs of patients. A pharmacist also
78 contributes significantly to the rational use of antibiotics by educating pharmacy workers and
79 patients.^{11, 22}

80 Pharmacy workers (non-pharmacist), in the absence of any supervision, dispense
81 medicines to the patients attending pharmacies with or without prescriptions.²⁰ Most often,
82 patients also seek health advice from them for the treatment of minor ailments.¹⁵ This is
83 alarming because such untrained staff risk the lives of people by promoting the irrational use
84 of medicines, especially antibiotics.^{1, 20} Previous studies from Pakistan have mainly focused on
85 antibiotic use in hospital and clinic settings.^{23, 24} The studies from the community pharmacy
86 setting have explored the role of the pharmacist in this setting.^{15, 25} Only a few studies reported
87 the quality of pharmacy practices and overall dispensing patterns (not specifically focusing on
88 antibiotics) of medicines by pharmacy workers, but the studies focusing on pharmacy workers
89 with regard to their antibiotic dispensing practices are lacking.^{25, 26} Only a single study
90 conducted by Imtiaz et al. reported the antibiotic dispensing practices in Pakistan but did not
91 report the factors associated with the inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics.²⁷ Therefore, this

92 study aimed to investigate the factors that drive the inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics
93 among pharmacy workers in Bahawalpur, Pakistan.

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111 **Methods**

112 **Study design**

113 A qualitative study design was adopted in which pharmacy workers (non-pharmacist)
114 were interviewed face-to-face using a semi-structured interview schema. The respondents who
115 were willing to participate in the study, aged ≥ 18 years and with a minimum work experience
116 of one year in a community pharmacy setting were recruited as study participants. In addition,
117 only those pharmacy workers who admitted to the non-prescription dispensing of antibiotics
118 and had attended a minimum of eight years of schooling were included in the study.

119 **Study setting**

120 The data were collected from the pharmacies located in Bahawalpur, a district of the
121 Punjab province of Pakistan. According to the Primary & Secondary Health Care Department
122 of Bahawalpur, there are about 365 drug retail outlets located in various areas of Bahawalpur.
123 Out of these, only a few pharmacies render the services of a community pharmacist.^{15, 28} Most
124 of these drug sale points were clustered around the Bahawal Victoria Hospital (BVH), which
125 is a large tertiary care hospital. Others were located near crowded residential areas.

126 **Study tool**

127 The interview schema (Additional File 1) was developed after a comprehensive
128 literature review and was designed to answer the research problem and address gaps in the
129 existing literature.^{1, 8, 20} Before conducting the interviews, piloting of the interview schema was
130 done among two pharmacy workers (non-pharmacist) to test the interview protocols and to
131 confirm the uniformity, face validity and understandability of the interview guide. The pilot
132 interviews were not included in the final analysis.

133 **Data collection**

134 The data were collected from August to September, 2018. A two-step sampling process
135 was adopted for recruiting the study participants.¹⁵ In the first step, the pharmacies located
136 within an approximately 500 metre radius of the BVH were shortlisted. This yielded 34
137 pharmacies. These pharmacies were then visited one by one (in predefined random order), and
138 the consented participants were interviewed (by SA and IM) using the semi-structured
139 interview schema. The interviews were conducted at the participants' workplaces or any other
140 place convenient to them. A maximum of two participants were selected per pharmacy. The
141 sample size was limited by applying the saturation point criteria.²⁹ Data collection was stopped
142 when no new theme/codes emerged.²⁹ However, two more interviews were conducted to
143 confirm that the saturation had been achieved. Before conducting the interviews, the study
144 objectives were explained to the participants and consent to join the study was obtained. The
145 interviews were conducted in Urdu, and all the interviews were audio recorded and observation
146 notes were also taken. The participants were offered to listen to the recorded interviews.

147 **Data analysis**

148 The inductive thematic analysis approach (involving six phases: familiarization with
149 the data, generation of initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and
150 naming themes and producing the report) was used to analyse the data.³⁰ To become
151 familiarized with the data, the audio recordings were transcribed verbatim and translated into
152 English by SA. Relevant words, phrases and sentences indicating the study objectives were
153 labelled and relevant codes were assigned to them. This step was undertaken by SA and IM.
154 The coded data were then reduced and organized to draw final themes and subthemes by IMU,
155 SA and IM.¹⁵ The drawn themes and conclusions were studied again and again to confirm that
156 they reflected the aims of the study. Cross checking of the emergent themes and conclusion
157 was undertaken by MA and discussed with the research team to confirm the aims of the study

158 and to ensure data credibility. In the case of any conflict or disagreement, the final verdict was
159 given by senior authors (IMU and MA).

160 **Ethical approval**

161 The conduct of the study was approved by the Pharmacy Research Ethics Committee
162 (PREC) at the Islamia University Bahawalpur (Reference: 41/S-2018-/PREC, dated 31 May,
163 2018) and permission to conduct research was obtained from the Drug Controller of
164 Bahawalpur. The study objectives were explained to the target participants before the
165 interviews. Verbal consent to participate in the study and to audio record the interviews was
166 obtained from the consented participants, and the consent was audio recorded. The participants
167 were assigned identifier numbers (e.g., Respondent A, Respondent B, etc.) and the recordings
168 were saved in a password protected computer. The participants were given the right to skip any
169 questions or withdraw from the study without any further questions.

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178 **Results**

179 Twenty-two pharmacy workers were approached. With a response rate of 72%, a total
 180 of sixteen interviews were conducted. All participants were male with an average of 6.1 years
 181 (SD = 3.1) of work experience. The age of the respondents ranged from 22 to 32 years (mean
 182 age = 26; SD = 3.2). The duration of the interviews ranged from 25 to 41 minutes (mean
 183 duration =31; SD = 5). The demographic characteristics of the study participants are provided
 184 in Table 1.

185 **Table 1: Demographic characteristics of participants**

Respondent	Age (years)	Experience (years)	Interview duration (minutes)
Respondent A	27	8	25
Respondent B	23	5	26
Respondent C	24	8	38
Respondent D	29	3	28
Respondent E	30	4	34
Respondent F	24	10	36
Respondent G	22	1	29
Respondent H	25	9	31
Respondent I	23	8	28
Respondent J	28	10	26
Respondent K	24	3	29
Respondent L	29	3	41
Respondent M	32	7	29
Respondent N	24	11	25
Respondent O	25	3	37
Respondent P	31	6	28
Mean (SD)	26 years (3.2)	6 years (3.1)	31 minutes (5)

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187 Inductive thematic analysis of the data yielded four themes and 18 subthemes. The
 188 themes included knowledge about antibiotics, current antibiotic dispensing practices, reasons
 189 for inappropriate dispensing and suggestions to limit the inappropriate dispensing of
 190 antibiotics. Exemplar quotations describing these themes and subthemes are provided in Table
 191 2.

192 **Table 2: Factors associated with inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics and suggestions**
 193 **to restrict this practice; themes, subthemes and exemplar quotations**

Subthemes	Illustrative quotation
Theme 1: Knowledge about antibiotics	
Familiarity with the terms	<i>“Yes, I heard the term antibiotics these are medicines used to treat many infections” (Respondent E)</i>
	<i>“No, I don’t know the word irrational. I heard it 1st time” (Respondent B)</i>
	<i>“Antibiotic resistance is a new thing for me. Sorry I am not familiar with that word. May be this includes the side effects of antibiotics.” (Respondent K)</i>
Conditions to be treated with antibiotics	<i>“No, I do not know whether this problem is bacterial or viral. I just know that infections are treated with antibiotics.” (Respondent H)</i>
Source of information	<i>“During training the medicines written on the prescription which comes at the pharmacy, we ask about the condition of the patient that what the matter was. When they tell their problem, then we come to know that this antibiotic is for that problem. Seniors also guide. We also learnt in this way. Experience matters a lot in this.” (Respondent L)</i>
	<i>“Better solution is to read the leaflet. If it is not understandable still then we take guidance from seniors or we take help from internet.” (Respondent E)</i>
Theme 2: Current antibiotic dispensing practices	
Common ailments treated at pharmacy	<i>“People do not come with major problems. Generally they come to us with minor ailments as flu, cough, throat infection or skin infections. Then for these minor ailments we treat them.” (Respondent F)</i>
Common antibiotics dispensed without a prescription	<i>“In minor ailments we give ciprofloxacin, levofloxacin, erythromycin, Augmentin, amoxiclav and cefixime.” (Respondent I)</i>
Patterns of antibiotics dispensing	<i>“For minor chest infections, cough or sputum, for these we give antibiotics. We give for 1-2 days only, not for more than that.” (Respondent A)</i>
	<i>“Majority of the people ask for antibiotics without prescription. Some people ask by name, some tell the symptoms. No system is present here to restrict OTC purchase of antibiotics as for narcotics there is a restriction on without a prescription sale. For antibiotics, prescription only medicine is written on label but no restriction is present on without a prescription sale. If same rules as for narcotics would be present for the antibiotics and sale register for the antibiotic is to be maintained, then I don’t think that these will be given without a prescription then.” (Respondent E)</i>
	<i>“People ask for 1-2 doses. As they ask for 2 doses of Augmentin. Reasons to purchase 1 or 2 doses may include the patient cannot afford the medicine even they are purchasing with coins because they need medicines and do not have enough money.” (Respondent C)</i>

	<i>“It was told to the patients that for how many times you have to take these medicines but side effects and other information regarding the antibiotics are not generally provided to the patients.” (Respondent L)</i>
Theme 3: Reasons for inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics	
Knowledge about training programs and current training practices	<i>“Two types of training systems are present in the country, but people do not know about these. Dispenser courses are offered by different institutions and pharmacy technician courses are also available. But here in Pakistan no trend because you can avail jobs without such courses easily”. (Respondent M)</i>
	<i>“No training is required for the pharmacy worker job. On job we learn how to read prescriptions and about medicines from our seniors. As seniors are also not professionals so lack of professionalism results in inappropriate dispensing of medicines”. (Respondent C)</i>
Business point of view	<i>“It should not be given, but for 80-90% we dispense. Although it is not right, but we give to increase our sales and to earn money.” (Respondent C)</i>
Social acceptance	<i>“As I told you earlier that people do not have money so somebody has to care them. If they do not have time to visit doctor then also we have to provide them their basic medicine requirements...” (Respondent E)</i>
False feeling of being qualified	<i>“We are satisfied that we are qualified for giving that medicine. We know one thing. We have learnt it with our experience. We have much experience.” (Respondent O)</i>
Pressurized by customers and owner	<i>“Sometimes people start forcing. We are also pressurized by the owner of a pharmacy. If we refuse, customers go to another pharmacy and get medicine from there. It causes us business loss.” (Respondent D)</i>
Lack of healthcare facilities in public sector clinics	<i>“The main reason is the behaviour of doctors with their patients. Doctors don’t attend them as they should be attended. I am talking about government sector. Mostly people go to the government sector because 70% of our population cannot afford private services. Therefore, they go to government hospitals and there the behaviour of doctors is not good so they direct come to the pharmacies. The reason for the doctor’s behaviour is their private practice. They check well at private clinics. Timing issues also exist.” (Respondent B)</i>
High consultation fees of doctors	<i>“They come to the pharmacy directly. They do not go to the doctor because here they can get medicine in 20 rupees but if they go to the doctor, 1000 rupees fees will be paid there and the doctor will write expensive tests and then expense of medicine is also there...” (Respondent J)</i>
High cost of antibiotics	<i>“Antibiotics cost more than the other medicines leading to the inconvenience of patients. Therefore majority of the patients demand less than the full course of therapy. Sometimes some habitual people tended to take less than the full course as they wanted to check whether the medicine is effective or not.” (Respondent E)</i>
Restricted timing of the outdoor department (outpatient clinics) at public sector hospitals	<i>“In government hospitals there is a specific time, mostly up to 2 o’clock. If in evening time anyone gets any problem so there is no facility like this. So they go to the medical store. Pharmacy</i>

	<i>workers listen to them carefully and give medicines according to their knowledge...</i> (Respondent O)
Theme 4: Suggestions to limit the inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics	
Healthcare system related	<i>"We should not give the antibiotics without a prescription. We should guide them and refer to the doctor."</i> (Respondent A)
	<i>"...If doctors try to improve the system, it will get better. They should reduce the consultation fee and time management should be there. They should increase their clinic time. Doctors working in government hospitals should not be allowed to do private clinic jobs. In government hospitals patient load is more and doctors are less. Junior doctors are present, seniors don't come or if they come they complete their duty time by sitting in the common room. It would be better if they check the patients with full concentration and listen the patients carefully..."</i> (Respondent E)
	<i>"Timings of public sector hospitals should be increased. In hospitals 24 hours services should be provided. Emergency services at rural level should be provided."</i> (Respondent O)
Training of pharmacy workers	<i>"...With pharmacy workers people have more interaction so they can make people more understandable. For this training of pharmacy workers is necessary..."</i> (Respondent E)
	<i>"...Training programs should not be lengthier but it should be for 6 months. Lectures should be arranged for 2-3 times in a year. It will be helpful."</i> (Respondent F)
Enforcement of rules and regulations	<i>"...Government should make the rules. They should issue the letter to pharmacies and medical stores to all over the country not to dispense antibiotics without a prescription. If we restrict it by our self it will not be much effective as we will just refuse 2-4 patients per day. But if the government will take steps, then this will be easier as all the pharmacies and medical stores will be restricted then."</i> (Respondent G)

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195 **Theme 1: Knowledge about antibiotics**

196 All respondents were well aware of the term "antibiotics", however, they were ignorant
197 about the conditions that are treated with antibiotics. According to the respondents, antibiotics
198 could be given for all infections, whether bacterial or viral. They were unable to distinguish
199 between bacterial and viral infections. "Antibiotic resistance" was a new term for the majority
200 of the pharmacy workers. Only two respondents had heard the term "antibiotic resistance",
201 however, they were considering the adverse effects of antibiotics as antibiotic resistance. The
202 knowledge of all respondents about antibiotics was experience based. They had memorized the
203 prescriptions provided by doctors and dispensed the same medications to other patients with

204 similar symptoms. Sometimes, medical sales representatives and pharmacists also educated
 205 them about the use of medicines. The respondents said that when they did not know the answer
 206 to any question, they referred the patient to a pharmacist or someone senior. Sometimes,
 207 literature provided in the patient information leaflets was also a source of information for them.

208 **Theme 2: Current antibiotic dispensing practices**

209 According to the respondents, patients suffering from mild illness visited the pharmacy
 210 instead of visiting a doctor. The most common symptoms for which people visited a pharmacy
 211 were sore throat or respiratory tract infections, injury or wound, diarrhoea, fever, flu and cough.
 212 All respondents routinely dispensed antibiotics without a prescription in these conditions.
 213 Mostly they dispensed antibiotics for 1–2 days only. If the patient did not recover from the
 214 illness, they referred them to a doctor. The antibiotics that were most commonly dispensed
 215 without a prescription, are listed in Table 3.

216 **Table 3: Most commonly dispensed antibiotics without a prescription**

Ailment	Antibiotics used by the participants
Throat infections	Levofloxacin, Co-amoxiclav, Azithromycin, Erythromycin, Moxifloxacin, Lincomycin
Fever	Ciprofloxacin, Cefixime, Co-amoxiclav
Wounds	Cephadrine, Co-amoxiclav
Tooth infections	Doxycycline, Metronidazole

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218 According to the respondents, the majority of patients visiting pharmacies for the
 219 purchase of antibiotics (without a prescription) demanded the medicines by name; however,
 220 some patients asked the pharmacy workers to suggest a medicine by telling them the signs and

221 symptoms of their disease. While dispensing antibiotics without a prescription, the patients
222 were counselled on how and when to take the antibiotics. However, side effects and
223 precautionary measures were not reviewed, as pharmacy workers were unaware of these.

224 **Theme 3: Reasons for inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics**

225 Training of pharmacy workers was the first emergent reason for the inappropriate
226 dispensing of antibiotics. The majority of participants were not familiar with the existing
227 training courses being offered in the country. Only two pharmacy workers were aware of the
228 training programmes. Almost all of them were trained in their workplace by their seniors. The
229 majority of respondents stated that they dispensed antibiotics without a prescription because of
230 the culture of not refusing customers asking for any type of medicine. The respondents related
231 the non-prescription sale of antibiotics from a business point of view. According to them, they
232 wanted to improve the pharmacy's income by increasing the sale of medicines. Another reason
233 for the inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics was the financial condition of the patients who
234 could not pay the consultation fees of doctors at private clinics. According to them, patients
235 were reluctant to go to the public sector hospitals because of the rude behaviour of doctors,
236 long waiting times and lack of facilities. According to the respondents, people who could not
237 afford the fees of private clinics came directly to the pharmacy for their health problems. In
238 such a case, it was their responsibility to dispense medicines (without a prescription). The
239 respondents stated that the dispensing of antibiotics without a prescription was right, as they
240 knew about the medicines based on their experience. They said that they felt qualified to give
241 medicines for minor ailments on the basis of their experience. Sometimes, pharmacy workers
242 were also pressured by owners and customers to dispense antibiotics without a prescription.

243 All respondents stated that they dispensed less than a full course of therapy. For this,
244 various reasons were mentioned and one of these was the high cost of antibiotics. Moreover, it

245 was reported that some people tended to take less than the full course of antibiotics, as they
246 wanted to check if an antibiotic was effective for them by taking 1–2 doses.

247 **Theme 4: Suggestions to limit the inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics**

248 According to the respondents, antibiotics should not be dispensed without a
249 prescription, and the patients should be educated about the appropriate use of antibiotics. They
250 said that they cannot force the patients to visit the doctor or to take the full course of antibiotics.
251 They further said that it was necessary to make the general public aware about the hazards of
252 antibiotic overuse and misuse. They further emphasized that the consultation fees of doctors
253 should be reduced and rude behaviour of doctors should be changed in the public sector
254 hospitals.

255 The respondents suggested that the training of pharmacy workers should be necessary
256 for this job. The government should organize the training programmes for workers (non-
257 pharmacist dispensers). According to the study participants, the government should take
258 necessary measures to stop the non-prescription sale of antibiotics. The respondents further
259 suggested that the opening hours of public sector outdoor clinics (outpatient clinics) should be
260 increased. Consequently the poor patients could consult doctors free of charge.

261 The important findings of this study are summarized in Additional File 2 (Box 1).

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265 **Discussion**

266 This is probably the first qualitative study conducted in Pakistan to explore the reasons
267 for the inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics among pharmacy workers. The findings revealed
268 that antibiotics were dispensed inappropriately by the pharmacy workers for various reasons.
269 The majority of workers had inadequate knowledge about the conditions to be treated with
270 antibiotics, thus playing the foremost role in disseminating antibiotic misuse and aggravating
271 antibiotic resistance. Two types of training courses (pharmacy technician courses and certified
272 diplomas for drug dispensing) were being offered to pharmacy workers in the country^{20, 31};
273 however, the majority of the respondents were unaware of the existence of these programmes.
274 Previous studies conducted in Pakistan have shown similar findings that pharmacies are largely
275 run by non-qualified and untrained dispensers.^{20, 26} It was interesting to note that the
276 respondents were eager to learn more about the medicines and to attend the pharmacy training
277 courses. This might be due to the fact that they perceive training as an opportunity for improved
278 job status in terms of better salaries rather than a desire to better serve the public. Moreover,
279 all respondents in the study were male. This might be due to the social and cultural barriers in
280 Pakistan where female staff is not encouraged to work where direct interaction with the
281 community occurs. Conversely, this may not be the case in other countries, where females also
282 serve at pharmacies.^{32, 33}

283 All participants were well aware of the term “antibiotics”, but they did not know the
284 conditions for which antibiotics could be used. There was frequent dispensing of antibiotics for
285 viral problems, such as flu, cough and cold, for which these are not effective. Comparable
286 results were shown in previous studies conducted in Greece and Thailand, indicating more than
287 a 70% purchase rate of antibiotics for viral infections.^{34, 35} Similarly, a study from Pakistan
288 revealed that antibiotics were widely misused for cold, cough, flu, fever, and sore throat.³⁶ The
289 reason could be the lack of knowledge of workers about infectious agents. Furthermore,
290 workers were not well trained to distinguish between bacterial and viral infections, and they

291 assumed that antibiotics work in all types of infections. All interviewed employees in this study
292 were unaware of the causes of antibiotic resistance. They considered the adverse effects of
293 antibiotics as antibiotic resistance. This finding highlights the apprehensions in the quality of
294 pharmacy worker training in Pakistan. The training system for pharmacy workers should be
295 considered compulsory, for example, in the UK, training is mandatory for the registration of
296 pharmacy technicians.³⁷ A comprehensive pharmacy technician register is maintained in the
297 UK, and all pharmacy technicians licensed to practice at community pharmacies must renew
298 their registration annually with the General Pharmaceutical Council.³⁸

299 According to the Drugs Act 1967 of Pakistan, antibiotics are not over-the-counter
300 (OTC) medicines and should be dispensed only with medical prescriptions.²¹ However,
301 contrary to this, all participants of this study reported OTC dispensing of antibiotics especially
302 to those patients who had financial problems and could not pay the consultation fees of doctors.
303 The previous studies conducted in Pakistan, Egypt, Spain and Nepal also reported 60%, 76%,
304 54% and 59% non-prescription dispensing of antibiotics, respectively.³⁹⁻⁴² These findings show
305 that, in developing countries such as Pakistan, low income, fewer resources and less healthcare
306 facilities compel people to the inexpensive attainment of healthcare services.^{43, 44} In Pakistan,
307 out-of-pocket expenditures for health are very high, so people find the non-prescription
308 purchase of medicines as a cheaper alternative to avoid consultation fees and diagnostic
309 expenditures.³⁹ Another Pakistani study showed that the cost of antibiotics with prescriptions
310 lied in the range of Rs. 75–150 Pakistani Rupees (pkr) per day, while with regard to the non-
311 prescription purchase of antibiotics, almost 41% of bills costed less than Rs. 75 pkr per day.²⁷

312 The study participants frequently dispensed short courses of antibiotics, and this
313 practice can be related to the pharmacy worker's knowledge of antibiotics and the patient's
314 economic status. On the other hand, our study participants reported the high prices of
315 antibiotics as one of the main factors associated with the shortened courses of antibiotics.

316 Indeed, the participants considered dispensing of a shortened course of antibiotic as a charitable
317 action. They dispensed 1–2 doses of antibiotics according to the patient’s economic status,
318 possibly because they were unaware of the hazards of incomplete courses. Barker et al. reported
319 similar findings from India, as 85% of pharmacy workers sold shortened antibiotic courses,
320 often just for 1–2 days.¹ According to the respondents, customers visiting a pharmacy (without
321 a prescription) asked for the specific antibiotics by name, and most of the times, pharmacy staff
322 was forced by the patients to provide them antibiotics without a prescription. A study conducted
323 in India showed that 63% of customers asked for antibiotics directly by name.⁴⁵ Although
324 patients often do not have correct knowledge about antibiotics, they influence dispensing
325 practices by demanding antibiotics based on their previous experience or suggestions by friends
326 or relatives.⁵ Limited access to healthcare facilities could be an influential trigger for self-
327 medication with antibiotics and the inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics by pharmacy
328 workers. A survey reported that only 45% of Pakistanis had access to a physician and adequate
329 healthcare facilities and only 21% of the population had access to public sector healthcare
330 facilities.³⁶ In this scenario, pharmacy workers thought of themselves as morally responsible
331 for providing antibiotics without a prescription and even less than the recommended course to
332 those who could not afford them. The study participants also reported financial gain and profit
333 maximization as main factors attributable to the inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics in
334 Pakistan. Similar findings were shown in a previous study conducted in Tanzania, where
335 pharmacy workers stated financial gain as a motivating factor for providing medicines to the
336 customers without a valid prescription.⁴⁴ It may be due to the reason that, in developing
337 countries, pharmacies are business places and pharmacy workers always look for opportunities
338 to sell their medicines.⁴⁴

339 Comprehensive instructions about medicines consist of information about their use as
340 well as possible side effects, drug interactions, precautions, etc. Disappointingly, according to

341 the findings of this study, patients were only educated about the frequency of antibiotic use.
342 They were not educated about the potential side effects of the medicines and other
343 precautionary measures, for example, whether the antibiotic was to be taken with or without
344 food, storage conditions, special warnings, etc.^{2, 8, 9} Several reasons might be responsible for
345 the provision of limited medicine-related information to patients. Lack of medicine-related
346 knowledge of the pharmacy workers, little or no interest in the patient's health, lack of time
347 and absence of pharmacists at drug retail outlets are possible reasons, to name a few.⁴⁶ Our
348 study participants obtained medicine-related information from their seniors, patient
349 information leaflets and the Internet, and this finding is in accordance with the findings of a
350 Nigerian study.⁴⁷ Interpretation of medical literature by non-pharmacist pharmacy workers
351 without basic medical education may be misleading and can negatively influence the health of
352 patients. Interestingly, with this poor state of knowledge about antibiotics, the majority of our
353 study participants (non-pharmacist pharmacy workers) alleged that they were capable of
354 meeting their professional responsibilities based on having ample experience in the field. This
355 misperception is alarming and needs the urgent attention of healthcare authorities.

356 This study has a few limitations. First, a convenience sampling technique was used to
357 recruit the study participants. Random sampling was not possible, because some of the
358 pharmacy workers were hesitant to participate in the study due to lack of their medicine-related
359 knowledge. There were also some restrictions from the pharmacy owners to share data about
360 the dispensing practices at their pharmacies. Second, the findings of this study cannot be
361 generalized to the whole of Pakistan, because the data were collected from one city (i.e.,
362 Bahawalpur). However, the findings provide an insight of what is happening in the country
363 based on the fact that a uniform healthcare policy is implemented throughout Pakistan, and the
364 antibiotic dispensing practices could be similar throughout the country. Third, the perceptions
365 of patients and pharmacy owners about the use and dispensing of antibiotics were not captured.

366 This should be addressed in future studies. Furthermore, longitudinal studies must be
367 conducted in the future to find the change in antibiotic dispensing practices over time.

368 **Impact of findings on policy and practice**

369 Besides the implication of this study to literature, there are some consideration for
370 policy and practice. The findings warrant the attention of the government, who may need to
371 immediately enforce legislation to restrict the sale of antibiotics without a prescription.
372 Similarly, the availability of pharmacists must be assured at pharmacies, who can not only
373 supervise the pharmacy workers while dispensing antibiotics but also educate patients or their
374 caregivers about the appropriate use of antibiotics. On a long-term basis, training, supervision
375 and involvement of pharmacy workers in patient healthcare are necessary to promote the
376 rational use of antibiotics. There is a need to put into legislation that only formally trained
377 personnel should be allowed to dispense medicines at drug retail outlets. To tackle the
378 compelling patients, health campaigns and seminars can be organized to spread awareness
379 among the general public. Harms of the inappropriate use of antibiotics should be explained to
380 patients by healthcare providers (doctors and pharmacists) and well-trained pharmacy staff.

381 **Conclusion**

382 Under-dispensing and dispensing of antibiotics without a need were reported in this
383 study. Lack of knowledge of pharmacy workers, customer's demands, false feelings of being
384 qualified, social acceptance, public beliefs, high consultation fees of doctors, expensive
385 diagnostic tests, economic influences and profit maximization were the main factors associated
386 with the inappropriate dispensing of antibiotics. The perceptions to provide care to all patients
387 and the dispenser's limited understanding of antibiotic resistance were also contributing
388 factors.

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