

Original Research Article

Empirical antibiotic prescription pattern among patients in a Nigerian tertiary hospital, Is there evidence of irrationality?

ABSTRACT

Background: Resistance to antibiotics is spreading rapidly around the world with its associated morbidity and mortality. Infections are becoming increasingly difficult to treat resulting in increasing cost of medical care. In low income countries with high infectious disease burden, antibiotic resistance is reported to be accelerated by irrational prescriptions in health facilities. In the absence of adequate resources, many clinicians engage in empirical antibiotic prescriptions some of which their appropriateness is questionable. There is need for laboratory evidence to justify empirical antibiotic use in the light of increasing resistance to commonly prescribed antibiotics.

Aims: This study aims to determine empirical antibiotic prescription pattern and to determine rationality using resistance profile of common bacterial isolates in the hospital.

Methods: Antibiotic prescriptions in the NHIS department and antibiogram records were obtained from pharmacy and laboratory records respectively. Analysis was carried out using descriptive statistics and comparison between antibiotics prescribed and their respective resistance pattern were compared to determine rationality.

Results/Discussion: The Penicillins and Quinolones were the most prescribed class of antibiotics and resistance range between 30 – 90% and 3 – 23% respectively. Resistance to other antibiotics was high thus making empirical prescriptions irrational in most of the cases. These findings have been consistently reported in several studies so widespread empirical antibiotic prescriptions are not in tandem with principles of rational drug use.

Conclusion: Antibiotic resistance is common among hospital isolates, so there is need to emphasize that prescriptions be based on laboratory evidence of microbial sensitivity.

Keywords: Antibiotics, Empirical prescription, rational drug use, Microbial resistance

INTRODUCTION

Antibiotics have been the cornerstone of modern medical care particularly in bacterial infections. Since the introduction of antibiotics over eight decades ago, infections that would have otherwise

14 caused life threatening are now treatable. Infections from surgery, immunosuppression, traumatic
15 injuries and prophylaxis have dramatically improved survival. In recent years however, reports of
16 increasing microbial resistance have become consistent across a broad range of microorganisms [1-
17 5]. Infections that were once treatable are now becoming difficult to treat resulting in increased
18 morbidity and mortality, high cost of medical care and threatening global public health [6-10]. There is
19 global evidence of the decline of effectiveness of antibiotics across all classes, there is however
20 country and regional variations in antimicrobial resistance pattern [11].

21 Microbial resistance is reported to be a significant factor in mortality related to infectious diseases
22 annually [12]. In less developed countries with high infectious disease burden and absence of reliable
23 data, estimates of mortality also run into hundreds of thousands annually [13-15]. The rise in
24 antimicrobial resistance in low income countries is related to a number of factors including easy
25 availability of antibiotics, self-medication, extensive use in agriculture, and failure in infectious disease
26 control system in healthcare facilities etc.[16,17] and irrational prescription practices [18-22].

27 Antibiotic prescription practices vary widely between countries and healthcare facilities; factors which
28 have been reported to influence antibiotic use includes infectious disease burden, prescription habit of
29 clinicians, microbial resistance pattern, regulatory control, standard treatment guidelines, availability
30 and economic factors [23-31]. In resource scarce setting where routine empirical antibiotic use is
31 widespread, prescription pattern vary widely [22]. For instance, some studies reported that
32 Fluoroquinolones, Penicillins and Cephalosporins are the most prescribed class of antibiotics [22,32]
33 while other studies reported high level use of Beta lactams [17,33].

34 The relationship between irrational antibiotic use and microbial resistance is well established and the
35 current trend of antibiotic use is suggestive of an ongoing problem irrespective of healthcare setting.
36 Among the most commonest microorganisms whose resistance to antibiotics is of global concern are
37 *Escherichia coli*, *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *Shigella species*, *Neisseria gonorrhoea* and non typhoidal
38 *Salmonella Typhi* [34-40]. Empirical antibiotic use is widely reported in literature either in the form of
39 self-medication or irrational use in healthcare facilities, studies have reported that up to 50% of
40 antibiotic prescriptions may be in the form of empirical prescriptions [41]. Microbial sensitivity results
41 are rarely used in many health facilities because of poor healthcare infrastructure and paucity of
42 qualified manpower [42,43]. In many healthcare facilities where laboratory services are available,
43 antibiotic prescriptions are not routinely based on microbial sensitivity result which is a common cause

44 of irrational antibiotic use [26,41,44], antibiotic prescription studies have reported high levels of
45 irrational use and an increasing level of resistance to commonly used antibiotics [23,45].

46 While it may be impractical to wait for antibiotic sensitivity tests before in all clinical situations, it is
47 important that empirical prescription of antibiotics is regulated so as preserve their effectiveness and
48 limit risk of treatment failure due to microbial resistance. It's not clear if microbial resistance
49 containment measures such as antibiotic stewardship programs, continuing education for prescribers,
50 patient education and regulatory control are contributing to improved antibiotic use in developing
51 countries due to absence of reliable data [46-48]. In Nigeria there are few published studies that used
52 microbial sensitivity pattern as a basis for determining level of irrational antibiotic prescriptions in
53 healthcare facilities, so this study is an attempt in that direction.

54 In addition using World Health Organization quality prescribing indicators, it is important that antibiotic
55 use should reflect the dynamics of prevailing microbial sensitivity pattern. Physicians have for a long
56 time viewed antibiotics as "magic bullets" for all infectious disease, that perception should now give
57 way to the new reality that "bugs" no long respond to therapy as before. It is expected that treatment
58 of bacterial infections should have been based on laboratory evidence to qualify as rational antibiotic
59 use. This appears not to be the case at the moment even in many tertiary healthcare facilities in the
60 country; this must change as high level of microbial resistance is a potential threat to public health.

61 **Objectives:** To determine empirical antibiotic use pattern and compare with resistance of common
62 bacterial isolates as the basis of assessing the rationality of prescriptions.

63 **METHODS**

64 **Setting:** The study was carried out among patients insured by national health insurance scheme
65 receiving at the University of Maiduguri teaching hospital, North east Nigeria.

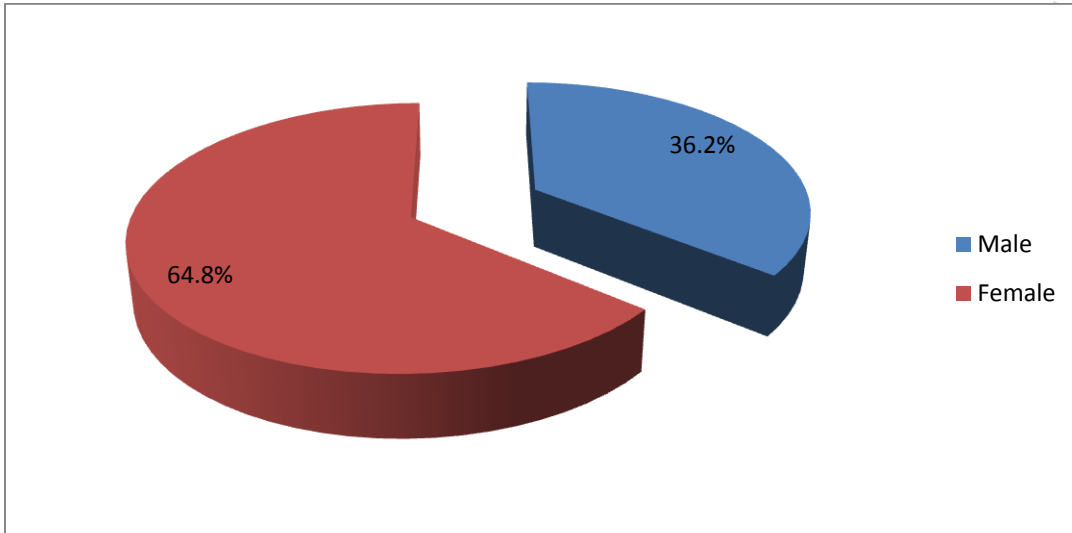
66 **Study design:** This is a cross sectional retrospective study of prescriptions given to outpatients that
67 filled their prescriptions in the NHIS pharmacy of the hospital.

68 **Data collection:** Prescription records were obtained from National health insurance scheme [NHIS]
69 pharmacy covering the period between January 2017 and May 2018. A total of 5079 antibiotic
70 containing prescriptions were used for this study. All eligible prescriptions selected had patient NHIS
71 numbers clearly indicated. Prescription records that are incomplete, illegible and those not written on
72 NHIS prescription forms were excluded. Information relating to antibiotics, duration of therapy, number
73 of drugs per prescription, antibiotic prescription errors and demographic data were extracted

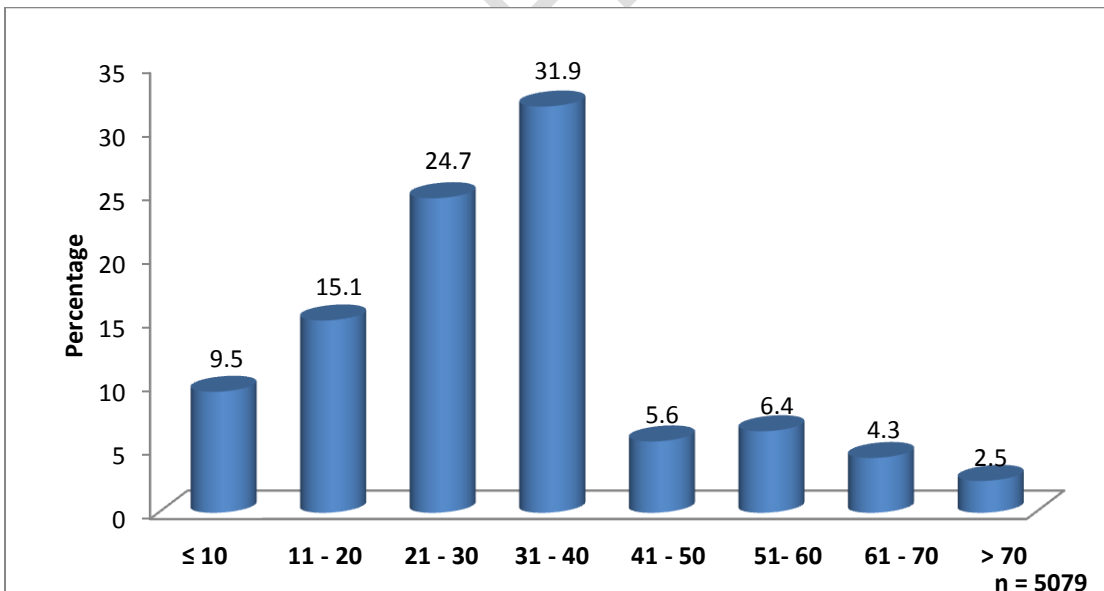
74 **Data analysis:** The data was entered into SPSS 21 and analyzed using descriptive statistics.
75 Irrational prescriptions were determined by comparing antibiotics prescribed and resistance level from
76 laboratory results of outpatients. Prescriptions were also reviewed for prescription errors, dosage
77 errors, formulation errors and frequency of administration errors.

78 **RESULTS**

79 Demographic data showed that females were about two thirds of patients and majority of them were
80 below 40 years old [Figure 1 and 2].



81
82 Figure 1: Gender distribution
83



84
85 Figure 2: Age distribution
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87 Prescription analysis showed that Penicillins [39%] accounted for the largest group of antibiotics given
88 to patients. This was followed by Quinolones and Metronidazole with prescription rate of 25% and
89 17.8% respectively. Among individual antibiotics Amoxicillin + Clavulanic acid, Metronidazole and
90 Ciprofloxacin were the most prescribed representing 28.2%, 17.8% and 13.1% respectively [Table 1].

91

92 **Table 1:** Antibiotics prescription pattern [n = 5079]

Name of drug	Number [%]
Amoxicillin + Clavulanic acid	1433 [28.2]
Amoxicillin	448 [8.8]
Ampicillin + Cloxacillin	108 [2.1]
Ciprofloxacin	663 [13.1]
Azithromycin	75 [1.5]
Cefuroxime	217 [4.3]
Ceftriaxone	13 [0.3]
Cephalexin	11 [0.2]
Erythromycin	294 [5.8]
Clarithromycin	56 [1.1]
Clindamycin	17 [0.3]
Levofloxacin	378 [7.4]
Metronidazole	906 [17.8]
Ofloxacin	146 [2.9]
Sparfloxacin	58 [1.1]
Doxycycline	187 [3.7]
Cotrimoxazole	38 [0.7]
Nitrofurantoin	23 [0.5]
Lincomycin	8 [0.2]

93

94 Antibiotic combination therapies were present in 12.8% of prescriptions; the most common was
 95 Penicillins + Metronidazole accounting for more than half of combination therapies. Metronidazole
 96 was found in 93.8% prescriptions in combination with different classes of antibiotics. The Quinolones
 97 were also found in 24.4% of prescriptions with other classes of antibiotics [Table 2].

98

99 **Table 2:** Antibiotic combination therapy [n = 652]

Antibiotic combinations	Number [%]
Quinolones + Metronidazole	138 [21.2]
Penicillins + Metronidazole	357 [54.8]
Penicillins + Macrolides	13 [1.9]
Cephalosporins + Metronidazole	7 [1.1]
Macrolides + Metronidazole	49 [7.5]
Lincomycin + Metronidazole	6 [0.9]

Cotrimoxazole + Metronidazole	6[0.9]
Quinolones + Tetracycline	21 [3.2]
Penicillins + Tétracycline	7 [1.1]
Tetracycline + Metronidazole	48 [7.4]

100

101 Prescription errors involving wrong dosage and frequency of dosing were found in 15.6% of
 102 prescriptions. A breakdown of errors showed that dosage errors accounted for 51.3% and wrong
 103 dosing frequency occurred in 48.7% of prescriptions with errors. The highest number of errors
 104 occurred with Cephalosporins and macrolides representing about 45% for each of them [Table 3].

105 **Table 3:** Prescription errors [n - 797]

Drugs	Dosage errors [%]	Dosing frequency errors [%]
Penicillins	17 [2.1]	18 [2.2]
Cephalosporins 178 [22.3]		189 [23.7]
Macrolides	187 [23.5]	173 [21.7]
Quinolones	19 [2.4]	4 [0.5]
Lincomycins	8 [1.1]	4 [0.5]
Total	409 [51.3]	388 [48.7]

106

107 A comparison of empirical antibiotic prescription pattern and bacterial resistance pattern [Table 4]
 108 reveal that most antibiotics given to patients without laboratory confirmation of sensitivity may be
 109 considered to be irrational. For instance, resistance to most commonly prescribed Amoxicillin +
 110 Clavulanic acid, Cotrimoxazole and Clindamycin may be inappropriate because resistance is as high
 111 as 20 – 90%. Resistance to Quinolones is generally below 20% while that of the Macrolides is
 112 between 6 – 40%. Empirical prescription of antibiotics against these isolates is likely to result in
 113 treatment failure as many strains are becoming resistant to commonly used antibiotics. The result also
 114 highlights the problem of resistance to third generation Cephalosporins and older generation
 115 Quinolones.

116

117 **Table 4:** Comparison of microbial resistance level and antibiotic prescription pattern [%]

Drug	SA [n= 259]	EC [n = 138]	KP [n = 109]	CF [n = 99]	PS [n = 25]	PA [n = 23]	HS [n = 38]	Average resistance [%]	PIA [%] Range
Amoxicillin+ Clavulanic acid	73.4	88.0	90.3	73.3	90.9	64.4	39.7	74.3	39 - 90
Cloxacillin	66.4	32.1	23.0	31.7	---	29.8	51.2	39.0	NA
Clarithromycin	25.8	6.9	22.2	19.4	---	32.5	14.6	20.2	6 - 32
Clindamycin	49.4	20.7	21.5	22.8	---	32.5	42.7	31.6	20 – 49
Cotrimoxazole	71.3	74.2	73.5	55.5	84.1	53.5	29.7	63.1	29 – 84
Erythromycin	33.7	12.3	21.7	16.9	13.6	29.8	40.6	24.1	12 – 40

Gentamycin	12.2	30.8	40.9	26.9	27.8	10.5	9.1	22.6	NA
Ceftriaxone	10.9	41.4	50.6	30.6	42.4	36.8	6.1	31.3	6 – 50
Ampiclox	13.2	---	1.9	5.7	4.5	---	22.1	9.5	1 – 22
Amoxicillin	13.7	1.6	5.4	14.1	18.2	5.3	29.7	12.6	1 – 29
Norbactin	9.6	3.1	10.9	11.4	9.1	5.3	23.6	10.4	NA
Ciprofloxacin	11.8	14.1	8.7	6.2	4.5	5.3	22.1	10.4	4 – 23
Perfloxacin	3.9	1.6	8.9	5.7	4.5	5.3	----	4.9	NA
Nalidixic acid	6.1	10.7	15.2	14.9	13.6	5.1	6.1	10.2	NA
Streptomycin	6.4	1.6	5.4	8.6	4.5	----	6.1	5.4	NA
Ofloxacin	3.8	14.5	17.2	14.6	21.2	----	----	14.3	3 – 21
Levofloxacin	6.9	14.2	12.3	9.3	----	5.3	----	9.6	5 – 14
Chloramphenico	5.9	5.9	1.9	5.7	----	----	17.6	7.4	NA
Tetracycline	15.1	40.3	41.1	34.7	77.3	47.4	17.1	39.0	15 – 77

118 Key: SA = *Staph aureus*, EC = *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumonia*, CF = *Coliform species*, PS = *Proteus species*, PA =
119 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, HS = *Haemolytic streptococci*, PIA = *potentially inappropriate antibiotic*, NA = *not applicable*

120 DISCUSSION

121 Antibiotic prescription pattern in a healthcare facility represents the overall influence of multiple
122 factors. The result of this study showed that Penicillins, Quinolones and Macrolides were the most
123 frequently prescribed antibiotics. Individual antibiotics prescription prevalence showed that Amoxicillin
124 + Clavulanic acid, Metronidazole and Ciprofloxacin were the most prescribed. This result is in contrast
125 to other studies [24,28,49,50,51,52]. Several studies have reported high rate of irrational antibiotic
126 prescription and a significant percentage were empirically prescribed for patients [26,41,53,54].

127 High rate of empirical prescription of antibiotics is generally related to poor health infrastructure,
128 inadequate human capacity, poor regulatory control and lack of antibiotic stewardship program in
129 many developing countries like Nigeria [42,55,56]. There have been suggestions that empirical
130 antibiotic use is not only related to inadequate or absent laboratory services, but also due to failure to
131 utilize them even where they are available [57].

132 There is ample evidence in literature that variations in antibiotic prescribing practices have both
133 clinical and non-clinical factors. Irrational empirical antibiotic prescription practice is said to be one of
134 the major contributors to microbial resistance which is reported to be rising globally. The results of
135 this study showed that 39 – 90% of seven common bacterial isolates were resistant to Amoxicillin +
136 Clavulanic acid, similar high level of microbial resistance was also observed for Cotrimoxazole [29 –
137 84%], Tetracycline [17 – 77%], Ceftriaxone [6 – 50%] and Gentamycin [9 – 40%]. The high level of
138 antibiotic resistance level in this study is comparable to many other studies, though differences exist
139 in the magnitude [58-62].

140 This high level of multidrug resistance to commonly encountered pathogens is suggestive of the fact
141 that empirical antibiotic prescription is no longer justified. Many patients will not achieve clinical and/or
142 bacteriological clearance of infections. Literature evidence showed that high level of resistance have
143 been reported for *E. coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*
144 etc. [10,63,64,65]. Antimicrobial resistance is a global phenomenon and no region or country is
145 spared, so there is need accelerate containment effort at the facility level. To preserve low cost broad
146 spectrum antibiotics there should be renewed focus on laboratory confirmation of microbial
147 susceptibility results before antibiotics are prescribed [66-69].

148 This is particularly urgent with increasing evidence of multidrug resistant strains of microorganisms
149 being found in healthcare facilities [45,70]. Apart from the Quinolones, Methicillin and
150 Chloramphenicol other antibiotics recorded more than 20% resistance to seven bacterial isolates; this
151 should be a cause of concern to facility level providers and policy makers.

152 Prescription errors frequently occur and it's a common cause of irrational antibiotics use particularly
153 as it relates to dosage, frequency of administration, formulation, timing, duration of treatment,
154 appropriateness [71-73]. The prevalence of errors observed in this study associated with correct
155 dosage and frequency of administration is totally preventable if basic standard of prescription writing
156 are implemented. These errors can negatively affect clinical outcomes, prolong morbidity and may
157 ultimately result in death; there is also increased risk of adverse drug reactions particularly among the
158 most vulnerable [74,75].

159 There is urgent need to change current antibiotic prescribing practice in the light of increasing
160 multidrug microbial resistance to the most commonly prescribed antibiotics. Results of this study
161 suggest that apart from the Quinolones with relatively lower resistance profile, other antibiotics may
162 be associated with higher frequency of treatment failure. In order to achieve improvement in antibiotic
163 prescription practices multidisciplinary teams should be set up to manage antibiotic stewardship
164 program in the hospital. This program is being implemented worldwide as an attempt to slow down
165 resistance in many healthcare facilities. There is evidence that successful implementation of
166 stewardship programs in hospitals has improved antibiotic prescribing practices and use elsewhere
167 [76-78]. A number of studies that looked at the impact of antibiotic stewardship programs showed that
168 most studies have differing assessment tools and there are challenges with quality of evidence [79-
169 82]. Majority of outcomes studies showed positive improvement in both clinical and economic

170 outcomes for patients [76, 83]. While it is acknowledged that empirical antibiotic use is permissible in
171 acute clinical conditions, it should be reserved for emergencies where laboratory confirmation of
172 microbial sensitivity may be delayed. The healthcare system in this country and patients cannot afford
173 further explosion of microbial resistance to cheap commonly available antibiotics.

174 **Conclusion:** Resistance to commonly prescribed antibiotics is high and that makes most empirically
175 prescribed antibiotics to be irrational. It is imperative that emphasis be placed on laboratory
176 confirmation of microbial sensitivity as the basis antibiotic prescription.

177 **Competing interests:** None

178 **Ethical approval:** This was obtained from the health research ethics committee of University of
179 Maiduguri teaching hospital

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