Received: May 2020 Accepted: July 2020

Original Article

Predictors of Self-medication in Iran: A Notional Survey Study

Sajad Vahedi^a, Faride Sadat Jalali^b, Mohsen Bayati^{b*}and Sajad Delavari^b

^aDepartment of Health Service Management, School of Health, Ahvaz Jundishapur University of Medical Sciences, Ahvaz, Iran. ^bHealth Human Resources Research Center, School of Management and Information Sciences, Shiraz University of Medical Sciences, Shiraz, Iran.

Abstract

While logical use of medicine is a priority in all health systems, people do self-medicationmainly using Nonprescription Drugs or Over the Counter (OTC) drugs- for different reasons. Self-medication is rising in many developing countries that could increase healthcare expenditure. The present study aimed to find the self-medication rate and predisposing, enabling, and need factors affecting it based on the Anderson behavioral model in the Iranian population. The present study uses 22470 households' data acquired from Iranian utilization of healthcare survey at the national level (2016). Due to the study objective, the data of 13005 people who were over 15 years old and had outpatient healthcare needs two weeks before the survey. The survey included a binary question about self-medication, which is considered a dependent variable. Age, gender, marital status, literacy, job status, socio-economic status, location, basic health insurance, complementary health insurance, and need for health services were considered as independent variables. Data were analyzed using logistic regression. The self-medication rate was calculated at 26.3% that was different among different subgroups of the population. According to the model estimates, married (OR = 0.80, CI = 0.71-0.91) and housekeepers (OR = 0.79, CI = 0.67-0.93) had significantly lower self-medication. Moreover, the urban population (OR = 1.29, CI = 1.17-1.43), people without basic (OR = 1.32, CI = 1.10-1.58), and supplementary (OR = 1.18, CI = 1.04-1.35) health insurance and also people who had two or higher number of outpatient healthcare needs had significantly more self-medication (OR = 2.96, CI = 2.67-3.29). It can be concluded that need, enabling, and predisposing factors are respectively the main determinants of self-medication behavior. From a policy point of view, increasing effective health insurance coverage with a focus on people who have more health care needs can be helpful.

Keywords: Self-medication; Health behavior; Drug-seeking behavior; Consumer behavior; Health insurance, Patient Acceptance of Health Care; Health Care Seeking Behavior.

Introduction

A healthy human being is at the heart of sustainable development in any society, and in this regard, the role of medication is crucial. Medicinehas always been one of the ways of fighting diseases (1). It can be said that the emergence of pharmaceuticals dates back to the history of human existence. Today,

medicine is one of the most expensive inputs in the health system. A great deal of money is spent on it in all countries (10% to 20% of health expenditure in developed countries and 20% to 40% in developing ones) (2, 3). Research results show that more than 50% of prescriptions, distributions, or sales of medicines in the world are inappropriate (4). With significant advances in various sciences, more and more people are getting access to different medicines, so that easy access

E-mail: bayatim66@gmail.com

^{*} Corresponding author:

to medicineshas led to improper use of medicines by people (5). Proper and rational use of medicines has a significant impact on controlling the costs of health sector and needs to be addressed by the community and policymakers. According to the World Health Organization's (WHO) estimates, over half of all drugs in the world are inappropriately prescribed or sold, and 50% of patients fail to use them properly (6). Some studies showed that about 30% of liver and kidney disorders were due to improper and inappropriate drug use, and 3% of all the patients admitted to the US hospitals were drug abusers (7). While medication is an important component of any disease treatment and 75% of them are treated by drugs, irrational use of them not only fails to treat diseases but also causes longterm drug side effects (8). Unfortunately, the public only sees the safe and healing aspect of taking drugs, while in medical literature, medicine is thought of like a double-edged razor, with one edge facing pathogens and the other attackinghuman lives due to the lack of knowledge of using them properly (9).

In addition to taking prescribed medications by physicians, many people nowadays go directly to pharmacies and buy and take various medications based on their own diagnoses, which are often wrong, to prevent or treat diseases or even strengthen their bodies (10). As one of the most common forms of inappropriate medication use, self-medication is defined by the WHO as preparing and taking medicines to treat selfrecognized ailments or symptoms without a physician's opinion. Self- medication involves the use of herbal or synthetic drugs (11, 12). It has various forms, such as taking medications without a physician's prescription for treatment in situations similar to the previous courses of illnesses, using medications available at home, and failing to heed the physician's recommendations (13). Arbitrary drug use has now led to incidences, such asincreased bacterial resistance, lack of optimal treatments, unwanted and even deliberate poisonings, side effects and adverse drug reactions, disruption in the drug market, waste of resources, and increased per capita drug use in the community (14).

Arbitrary drug use as the first choice of

patients is common in many communities worldwide and rapidly increases (15, 16). The prevalence of self-medication varies in different regions of the world, depending on different cultural, political, and economic factors. For example, the prevalence of self-medication is about 68% in European countries (17), 77% in the US, 31% in India (7), 21.5% in rural areas of Portugal, and 14.9% among Brazilian adults (18). The rate of medicineuse in Iran has been increasing in recent decades. The increasing rate is not in line with the epidemiological conditions of diseases and the population growth, as the main variables whichcan be related to selfmedication (19). The rate of self-medication in Iran is higher than the mean world rate (13). However, various local studies reported a 36% to 83% prevalence of self-medication among Iranians (20).

Arbitrary drug use is a serious threat to the health of the community, and the resolution of this problem requires proper education and information delivery to the general public (21). It is evident that irrational and arbitrary drug use is misconduct among households and needs to be identified and investigated (16). Drug use in Iran lacks the right pattern, and efforts to correct it have not been successful, and the drug system is still facing arbitrary drug use. Hence, it is essential to identify the causes of self-medication and provide a solution to reduce it. Although various studies were conducted on self- medication in different regions and among different social groups in Iran, none of them addressed the issue comprehensively and at a national level. Therefore, the present study aimed to investigate the factors affecting arbitrary drug use in Iran.

Experimental

Study setting and source of data

A cross-sectional design was used to determine socio-economic predictors of self-medication in Iran. Required data in this study is derived from the nationally representative survey conducted in the collaboration of the National Institute of Health Research and Statistical Center of Iran over a twenty-day period in 2016 (3–22 January) through

three-stage cluster sampling design. Entitled Iranian Utilization of Healthcare services (IRUHS), the primary goal of this survey was preparation of relevant data about utilization status of healthcare services and determining potential factors that modify it in Iran. In this survey, 22470 households from the whole country were chosen. Two questionnaires entitled Household Questionnaire (to collect household-level and individual characteristics healthcare needs) Individual and Ouestionnaire (to collect detailed information about utilization of healthcare services) were used in this study and were completed through face-to-face interviews. In the first step, 76674 individuals responded to the Household Ouestionnaire (response rate: 96.6%). Finally, in the second step, 20313 individuals that had reported healthcare need in the former research, were selected. Because of recalling bias problem, this study only focused on 15-year-oldor higher individuals that had outpatient healthcare needs (N = 13005).

Definition of variables and statistical analysis

In this study, the medication status of those that reported outpatient healthcare needs to be reviewed to define self-medication. The answer of those that used outpatient healthcare services to this question "Have you taken any medicine through self-referral to a pharmacy without prescription in the last two weeks?", and answer of those that avoid seeking outpatient healthcare services to this question "Have you use any medicine from former medicine in your home in the last two weeks?" was used to measure self-medication. Hence, self-medication defined as a medication of those that used any medication from a pharmacy without prescription and those that avoid seeking outpatient healthcare services and utilized from former medicines in their homes in the last two weeks.

Potential predictors of self-medication were studied through Andersen's Behavioral Model of Health Services Use. This model assumes that health-seeking behavior (22), such as self-medication (23) is a function of predisposing, enabling, and need factors. Demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, and social structure such

as occupation, education, and ethnicity in this model are categorized as predisposing factors. Enabling factors include material resources such as income or economic status, possession of health insurance, and also the distance from healthcare providers. Finally, health status measures such as self-rated health, health-related quality of life, or chronic conditions could be used as a need factor.

Based on Anderson behavioral model, predisposing factors in this study were included gender (male or female), age groups (15-29, 30-44, 45-59, 60-74 and 75+), marital status (married or unmarried), education (illiterate, primary, secondary, high school diplomaand higher education) and occupational status (employed, unemployed, having income without employment, student and housekeeper). Area of residence (urban or rural), wealth quintals (Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, and Q5), and possession of health insurance (basic and supplementary) were considered as enabling factors. Asset data such as having a separate kitchen, central heating, telephone usage, computer, Internet access at home, owning a motorcycle, car and whether the person owned the house or not were used in the principal component analysis, as a statistical scheme when no quantitative variable, such as income or expenditure exists, to create wealth index (24). Finally, the number of outpatient healthcare needs (one or two and higher) was used as a need factor in this study. Hence, the answer of those that participated to the survey to this question, "Did you have any outpatient healthcare need in the last two weeks?" was used to define need variable.

Bivariate analyses using chi-square tests were performed for each predictor variable. A step-wised logistic regression model, based on Andersen's conceptual, was employed to identify predictor variables associated with self-medication. Hence, three consecutive logistic models were estimated. In the first model, independent variables only included predisposing factors. In the second model. enabling factors were added to predisposing factors. And finally, in the third model, the number of outpatient healthcare needs as need factors were included in the analysis. To represent the Iranian population, "weighting procedures" were used in all estimated logistic regression models. All analyses were performed using STATA SE version 12 (Stata Corporation, College Station, Texas, USA).

Statistical significance was considered at p-value ≤ 0.05 , and Odd ratios (OR) with 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) were reported for each variable.

Results

About 60, 75, and 47 percent of the whole

sample were female, married, and housekeeper, respectively. Other characteristics of the surveyed population are shown in the second column of Table 1.

We found that 3,416 of 13005 respondents (who had outpatient healthcare needs in the two weeks preceding the survey) had self-

Table 1. Characteristics of the whole-sample and population with and without self-medication in Iran 2016.

		Whole-sample	Population with self-	Population without		
Overall		whole-sample	medication	self-medication	<i>p</i> -valu	
		N = 13005	3,416 (26.27%)	9,589 (73.73%)		
Predisposing factors						
Sex	Male	5,210 (40.06%)	1,408 (27.02%)	3,802 (72.98%)	0.108	
	Female	7,795 (59.94%)	2,008 (25.76%)	5,787 (74.24%)		
Age	15-29	2,895 (22.26%)	681 (30.75%)	2,214 (69.25%)		
	30–44	3,753 (28.86%)	933 (24.86%)	2,820 (75.14%) 2,425 (73.14%) 1,575 (70.70%)	0.000	
	45-59	3,315 (25.49%)	890 (26.86%)			
	60-74	2,228 (17.13%)	653 (29.30%)			
	75+	814 (6.26%)	259(31.81%)	555 (68.19%)		
Marital status	Married	9,720 (74.74%)	2,451 (25.21%)	7,269 (74.79%)	0.000	
	Unmarried	3,285 (25.26%)	965 (29.37%)	2,320 (70.63%)	0.000	
Education	Illiterate	3,446 (26.50%)	1,072 (31.10%)	2,374 (68.90%)		
	Primary	3,353 (25.78%)	843 (25.14%)	2,510 (74.86%)		
	Secondary	2,104 (16.18%)	512 (24.33%)	1,592 (75.67%)	0.000	
	High school diploma	2,289 (17.60%)	566 (22.90%)	1,723 (77.10%)		
	Higher education	1,813 (13.94%)	423 (23.33%)	1,390 (76.67%)		
Employment status	Employed	3,101 (23.84%)	837 (26.99%)	2,264 (73.01%)		
	Unemployed	1,606 (12.35%)	447 (27.83%)	1,159 (72.17%)	0.033	
	Having income without employment	1,438 (11.06%)	404 (28.09%)	1,034 (71.91%)		
	Student	810 (6.23%)	216 (26.66%)	594 (73.34%)		
	Housekeeper	6,050 (46.52%)	1,512 (24.99%)	4,538 (75.01%)		
Enabling factors						
Area of residence	Urban	(%)	2,189 (25.16%)	6,509 (74.84%)		
	Rural	(%)	1,227 (28.48%)	3,080 (71.52%)	0.000	
	Q1(Poorest)	2,630 (20.22%)	744 (28.29%)	1,886 (71.71%)		
Economic status	Q2	2,583 (19.86%)	748 (28.96%)	1,835 (71.04%)		
	Q3	2,591 (19.92%)	657 (25.36%)	1,934 (74.64%)	0.000	
	Q4	2,600 (19.99%)	673 (25.88%)	1,927 (74.12%)		
	Q5 (Richest)	2,601 (20.00%)	594 (22.84%)	2,007 (77.16%)		
Basic health	Yes	(%)	3,169 (25.95%)	9,044 (74.05%)		
insurance	No	(%)	247 (31.19%)	545 (68.81%)	0.000	
Supplementary			555 (22.61%)	1,900 (77.39%)		
health insurance	No	792 (6.09%)	2,861 (27.12%)	7,689 (72.88%)	0.000	
Need factors						
Number of	One	10,420 (80.12%)	2,253 (21.62%)	8,167 (78.38%)		
outpatient healthcare needs	Two and higher	2,585 (19.88%)	1,163 (44.99%)	1,422 (55.01%)	0.000	

medication, so the rate of self-medication was 26.27%. This rate was different across different subgroups. People with two and higher outpatient healthcare needs (44.99%), more than 75 years old (31.81%), and without basic health insurance (31.19%) had the highest rate of self-medication. Conversely, people with only one healthcare need (21.62%), with supplementary health insurance (22.61%) and richest ones (22.84%) had the lowest rate of self-medication. The bivariate analysis also

showed that there is a significant (p < 0.01) difference in self-medicationbased on age, marital status, education level, employment status, area of residence, economic status, basic health insurance, supplementary health insurance, and number of outpatient healthcare needs (Table 1).

Logistic regression estimates of Andersen's Behavioral Model for predisposing, enabling, and need factors affecting self-medication are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Predictors of self-medication in Iran according to Andersen's Behavioral Model, 2016.

		First model		Second model		Third model	
		OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI
Cov	Male	0.97	0.84-1.12	0.94	0.82-1.09	1.01	0.87-1.16
Sex	Female	1		1		1	
Age	15-29	1		1		1	
	30–44	1.15	0.99-1.32	1.23	1.06-1.42	1.19	1.02-1.38
	45-59	1.16	0.99-1.36	1.34	1.14-1.58	1.21	1.02-1.43
	60-74	1.12	0.93-1.35	1.31	1.08-1.58	1.20	0.98-1.46
	75+	1.16	0.91-1.46	1.34	1.05-1.70	1.18	0.92-1.51
Marital status	Married	0.79	0.70-0.89	0.79	0.70-0.90	0.80	0.71-0.91
	Unmarried	1		1		1	
Education	Illiterate	1.73	1.44-2.07	1.23	1.01-1.51	1.11	0.90-1.36
	Primary	1.35	1.14-1.59	1.05	0.88-1.26	0.96	0.80-1.16
	Secondary	1.25	1.05-1.48	1.06	0.89-1.27	1.03	0.86-1.23
	High school diploma	1.17	0.98-1.39	1.05	0.88-1.25	1.02	0.85-1.22
	Higher education	1		1		1	
Employment status	Employed	1		1		1	
	Unemployed	0.93	0.80-1.09	0.91	0.78-1.06	0.91	0.78-1.06
	Having income						
	without	0.80	0.67-0.95	0.86	0.72-1.03	0.86	0.72-1.03
	employment						
	Student	0.99	0.78-1.25	1.07	0.84-1.34	1.11	0.87-1.40
	Housekeeper	0.77	0.65-0.91	0.78	0.66-0.93	0.79	0.67-0.93
Area of residence	Urban			1.25	1.13-1.38	1.29	1.17-1.43
	Rural			1		1	
Economic status	Q1(Poorest)			1.21	1.02-1.43	1.14	0.96-1.35
	Q2			1.27	1.08-1.49	1.20	1.02-1.42
	Q3			1.20	1.02-1.40	1.13	0.97-1.33
	Q4			1.17	1.01-1.36	1.13	0.97-1.31
	Q5 (Richest)			1		1	
Basic health	Yes			1		-	
insurance	No			1.24	1.03-1.48	1.32	1.10-1.58
Supplementary	Yes			1			
health insurance	No			1.22	1.07-1.39	1.18	1.04-1.35
Number of	One					1	1
outpatient healthcare needs	Two and higher					2.96	2.67-3.29

According to the first model, which includes only predisposing factors, married people had significantly lower self-medication (OR = 0.79, CI = 0.70-0.89). People with lower education levels had significantly higher self-medication; for example, illiterate persons had significantly higher self-medication rate (OR = 1.73, CI = 1.44-2.07) than the ones who have higher education. Moreover, people with income without a job (OR = 0.80, CI = 0.67-0.95) and housekeepers (OR = 0.77, CI = 0.65-0.91) had significantly lower self-medication than employed people.

In the second model, which assesses predisposing and enabling factors, people with higher ages had significantly more self-medication than the reference age group (15-29), married people, and housekeepers had significantly lower self-medication. The urban population (OR = 1.25, CI = 1.13-1.38) had more self-medication than the rural. People in lower socio-economic status had more self-medication compared to the richestsocio-economic status group. Moreover, people without basic (OR = 1.24, CI = 1.03-1.48) and Supplementary (OR = 1.22, CI = 1.07-1.39) health insurance had significantly more self-medication.

According to the third model, which includes all predisposing, enabling, and need factors, similar to other models, married and housekeeper populations had significantly lower and urban population, people without primary and supplementary health insurance had the substantially higher self-medication. Moreover, people who had two or higher outpatient healthcare needs had significantly more self-medication (OR = 2.96, CI = 2.67-3.29).

Discussion

Self-medication is widely observed and expanding worldwide, especially in developing countries (25). Although medicine use is one of the critical links in the treatment chain for many diseases, overuse and arbitrary use of medicines can be a sinificant problem in the health system. It could have side effects and risks for peopleas well as high costs imposed on the national pharmaceutical budget, insurance companies, and people (26). Therefore, the present study aimed to investigate the factors affecting arbitrary drug use in Iran in 2016.

According to the results of this study, the rate of self-medication among Iranianswas 26.27% in 2016. However, studies carried out in Iran, and other countries reported differentself-medication rates.

This rate was reported 87.3% among medical and dentistry student in south India (17), 57% in Nigeria (15), 81.77% among the general population of India (27), 80.5% among the middle-aged Brazilian population, 22% in Spain (28), 15% in France (29), 50.1% among non-medical university students in Karachi (30), 21.5% in rural areas of Portugal (31), 42.5% among Jordanians (32), 27.1% among Serbian adults (33), 35.9% in Meket (34) and 22.5% for antibiotics in the Algarve region (35). Iranian Studies also report different rates for self-medication. Self-medication prevalence was reported 72% among Iranian medical students (36), 76% among Iranian women (37), 84.5% in Birjand city (25), 53.6% in the southeastern part of Iran (38), 78.7% in the southern areas of Iran (39), 35.4% in the western part of Iran (26), 41.1% in Ardabil city (21), 32.8% in Tehran City (40), 91% among students and patients with migraine in Kerman city (41) and 89.6% in health sciences students in Kermanshah city (42).

One of the reasons for the differences inselfmedication investigation resultsin the present study andthe most similar ones is the shorter recall period (two weeks interval). The recall period was six months in the study by Niroomand et al. (36), three months by Bekele et al. (2015) in Ethiopia (43), two months by Olumide et al., and six months by Filipe et al. (2016) in France (15, 29). The differences in the populations under study and the sample sizes might also lead to different results. Naik et al. (2019), Karimi et al. (2019), and Sedighi et al. studied 300 medical and dental students (17), 360 Iranian women (13), and 210 school and university students with migraine headaches in Kerman (41), respectively. Another reason for obtaining different results is how self-medicationwas defined and measured. According to studies conducted in other countries, developed nationshadlower self-medication rates than

less developed countries. Besides, a look at the statistics shows that although self-medication is widespread worldwide, it is also prevalent in Iran and should be considered as one of the major challenges in the health sector of the country.

In the following, the factors influencing self-medication are investigated using Anderson's behavioral model.

Self-medication frequency based on sex, age, marital status, education, and employment showed a higher rate among males (27.02%), age group \geq 75 years (31.81%), single (29.37%), illiterate (31/10%), and unemployed people (28/09%).

According to the model's estimates, there was no significant relationship between sex and self-medication. Regarding age, there was a significant relationship in models two and three, but none was found in model one. In all three models, a significant relationship was observed between marital status and self-medication, and this behavior was less common among married people. About education, there was a significant relationship in model one but no significant relationship was found in the other two models. In all three models, the rate of self-medication was lower in housewives than in other groups.

About demographic (predisposing) variables, studies revealed different findings. For example, some studies showed that men self-medicate more than women (25), while others found that women practice more selfmedication (44-46). On the other hand, some studies showed that there is no difference between men and women (23, 36, 37 and 43). While some studies found married people do more self-medication (38) more other studies found single people self-medicate more (25, 44, 47 and 48) which are in line with our findings. On the other hand, some studies found no difference between married and single individuals (36, 37). Some studies revealed age has a positive correlation with self-medication (13, 44).On the other hand, some studies found no correlation (37). According to most studies, education level is another demographic variable that hasa negative relation with self-medication (13, 25, 38 and 49). Several studies revealed contradictory findings of education level (44, 50 and 51). Lei (2018) found no relation between self-medication and education level (23). Having a job has no definite relation to self-medication. Many studies showed no association between self-medication and job type (36, 37), while some studies found some working groups such as housekeeper women (25) and self-employed (50) practice more self-medication than others.

Predisposing factors such as age, marital status, education, and occupation might have important effects on people's attitudes and beliefs about medication use. For instance, the significant relationship between education and self-medication in this study wasmost likely becausehigher education levels would increase the awareness of the harmful effects of self-medication, particularly the drugs that require a doctor's prescription, and this can in turn prevent consumption.

The reason for low self-medication in the lower age groups was that they considered diseases more serious and they were more vulnerable to self-treatment. On the other hand, a greater need for health services and, consequently, more drug use could be some causes of increased self-medication in older age groups.

It also appears that more emotional attention and support from married people than single ones, and encouraging and forcing one's spouse to refer a physician when the disease occurs may result in lower self-medicationrates among married people. Tirgar et al.stated that the spouses' persuasionto going to the physicians could be a reason for higher self-medication in married people (52). In the present study, the prevalence of self-medication was higher inthe first income quintile (poorest households) (28.29%), and those who lacked basic (31.19%) and supplementary (27.12%) health insurance coverage.

The regression estimates about enabling factors showed that urban residents had significantly more self-medication than rural ones. According to the second model, self-medication was lower in the lower socio-economic groups. It was considerably higher in the groups without basic and supplementaryhealth insurance than those with insurance coverage.

Rezaei et al. (2015) showed that the self-medication rates was higher in people without insurance coverage (16). Two other studies indicated that people with rural insurance had higher rates of self-medication (13, 53). In the study by Tahergourabi et al., self-medication was higher in poorer households and those without basic and supplementary insurance (25). In a study in turkey insured people had less use of non-prescribed medicine (46). The highest rates of self-medication in the studies by Selvarj et al. (2014) in India and Cindy et al. (1994) in Hong Kong were found among the fourth income quintile (51) and the third social quintile (54), respectively.

It seems that sinceinsurance companies pay for the doctors' visits and medicines of the people with basic and supplementary insurance coverage, they go to doctors at theevent of disease and take medication as prescribed. Hence, the rate of their self-medication is lower. Birghadr et al. (2012) reported that self-medication was higher among people who lacked basic and supplementary insurance coverage (55) due to the use of home-available medicines or arbitrary purchase of medicines from pharmacies (in order not to pay additional costs for visits). In other studies, the highest prevalence of self-medication was among people who were not covered by any insurance (38, 53).

Some studies found that the reasons for the higher rate of self-medication in urban areas. The reasons werethe low quality of and satisfaction from health services in cities, crowded cities, and lack of time of urban citizens, which in turn would lead to drug storage at home and arbitrary drug use (56, 57).

The prevalence of self-medication in people who needed outpatient services for more than twice was much higher (44.99%) than those who needed them once. Furthermore, the third model indicated that self-medication was higher in people with more than one need for health services. Not having enough time for frequent visits to physicians, high costs of doctor visits and lack of financial capacity, and lacking adequate insurance coverage might be the other causes of higher self-medication in the groups with higher treatment needs, as mentioned in some studies (13, 21 and 27).

In addition, several studies revealed that some of the most common causes of increased self-medication among patients with higher ailment frequencies were previous drug use experiences, obtaining sufficient information on drugs and diseases, and similarity of their current diseases with previous ones (7, 54 and 58).

This research has several strengths compared to other similar studies carried out in Iran. It was conducted at a national level with a remarkable sample size and a rigorous sampling design. Doing an analysis based on a strong theoretical basis (Andersen's Behavioral Model of Health Services Use) was the strength of the present study. However, a main limitation was that our analysis was based on self-reported data that could increase recall bias. Another limitation was the time horizon of study. In other words, the current study was based on a cross sectional survey in a year (2016) which cannot assess self-medication behavior of people across time.

Conclusion

According to the results, there is a significant rate of self-medication among Iranian households. The rate is higher for single people, older ones, urban residents, lower economic classes, those with no basic and supplementary insurance coverage, and individuals with a greater number of needs for health services. The high prevalence of arbitrary use of Over-The-Counter (OTC) drugs somewhat could be justified by the structure of the country's health care system that allows access to such drugs. Another point is the high prevalence of arbitrary use of Prescription Only Medicine (POM) medicines which require doctors' prescriptions. It indicates that the Iranian community is experiencing a health-social problem that needs to be addressed as quickly and effectively as possible. In this regard, more attention must be paid to education on and promotion of drug use culture, because knowledge and awareness are the sources of many human behaviors and practices.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to the National Institute of Health Research for providing data used in this study. We are also thankful to Shiraz University of Medical Sciences for its financial support under grant number 21113. Moreover, the study protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of Shiraz University of Medical Sciences with code IR.SUMS.REC.1399.626.

References

- (1) Movahed E, Arefi Z and Ameri M. The effect of health belief model-based training (HBM) on selfmedication among the male high school students. *Iran. J. Health Educ. Health Promot.* (2014) 2: 65-72
- (2) World Health Organization. The World Medicines Situation 2011 - Rational Use of Medicines. World Health Organization; (2011). Available From: URL: http://apps.who.int/medicinedocs/en/d/Js18064en/.
- (3) Tofighi S, Sharifinia SH, Hassanzadeh A, Najafipour F, Zaboli R, Rezapour A and Saravi N. Comparative study of pharmaceutical costs in Iran's insurance systems: Review of National Data in an international perspective. *Indian J. Med. Res.* (2014) 1: 101-9.
- (4) Rezazadeh A and Abrishami R. Evaluation of prescribing indicators if general practitioners in a military hospital in Tehran. J. Police Med. (2017) 6: 13-20.
- (5) Shamsi M, Tajik R and Mohammadbegee A. Effect of education based on Health Belief Model on selfmedication in mothers referring to health centers of Arak. J. Arak Univ. Med. Sci. (2009) 12: 57-66.
- (6) Chaturvedi V and Mathur A, Anand A. Rational drug use—As common as common sense? *Med. J. Armed Forces India* (2012) 68: 206.
- (7) Tabiei S. Self-medication with drug amongst university students of Birjand. *Mod. Care J.* (2012) 9: 371-8.
- (8) Purreza A, Khalafi A, Ghiasi A, Farrokh MF and Nurmohammadi M. To identify self-medication practice among Medical Students of Tehran University of Medical Science. *Iran. J. Epidemiol.* (2013) 8: 40-6.
- (9) Mohammadi A, Abedini S and Montaseri M. Prevalence of the effective factors in self-medication among parents of 8-1year old children visiting Shahid Mohammadi Hospital in Bandar Abbas. J. Prev. Med. (2019) 6: 62-70.
- (10) Ershadpour R, Zare Marzouni H and Kalanian N. Review survey of the reasons of the prevalence of self-medication among the people of Iran. *Navid No* (2015) 18: 16-23.
- (11) Gelayee DA. Self-medication pattern among social Science University students in Northwest Ethiopia. *J. Pharm.* (2017) 20: 5.
- (12) World Health Organization guidelines for the

- regulatory assessment of medicinal products for use in self-medication. Geneva; 2000. Available from: http://apps.who.int/medicinedocs/pdf/s2218e/s2218e.pdf.
- (13) Karimy M, Rezaee Momtaz M, Tavousi M, Montazeri A and Araban M. Risk factors associated with self-medication among women in Iran. BMC Public Health. (2019) 19: 1033.
- (14) Marzban A, Rahmanian V, Ayasi M and Baregaran M. Assessing attitude and practice of students in Shiraz University of Medical Sciences towards selfmedication. J. Prev. Med. (2018) 5: 36-43.
- (15) Ajibola O, Omisakin O, Eze A and Omoleke S. Selfmedication with antibiotics, attitude and knowledge of antibiotic resistance among community residents and undergraduate students in Northwest Nigeria. *Diseases*. (2018) 6: 32-40.
- (16) Rezaei Jaberee S, Hassani L, Aghamolaei T, Mohseni S and Islamic H. Study on the effect of educational intervention based on health belief model to prevent the arbitrary use of drugs in women referring to health centers of Bandar Abbas. *Iran. J. Health Educ. Health Promot.* (2018) 6: 1-11.
- (17) Naik R, Naik GS and Jharapala P. Prevalence, behavior, awareness and attitude regarding sekf medication: A comparative study between medical and dental students in South India. *Glob. J. Res. Anal.* (2019) 8: 3.
- (18) Domingues PHF, Galvão TF, Andrade KRCd, Araújo PC, Silva MT and Pereira MG. Prevalence and associated factors of self-medication in adults living in the Federal District, Brazil: a cross-sectional, population-based study. *Epid. Health Serv.* (2017) 26: 319-30.
- (19) Eteraf Oskouei T, Mohammadi Y and Najafi M. Evaluating the causes of non-standard prescription and drug use in Iran and its improvement strategies from the viewpoint of pharmacy students of Tabriz University of Medical Sciences. *Depiction Health* (2019) 10: 180-8.
- (20) Azami Aghdash S, Mohseni M, Etemadi M, Royani S, Moosavi A and Nakhaee M. Prevalence and cause of self-medication in Iran: a systematic review and meta-analysis article. *Iran. J. Public Health* (2015) 44: 1580-93.
- (21) Amani F, Mohamadi S, Shaker A and Shahbazzadegan S. Study of arbitrary drug use among students in universities of Ardabil city in 2010. *J. Ardabil Univ. Med. Sci.* (2011) 3: 201-7.
- (22) Babitsch B, Gohl DV and Lengerke T. Re-revisiting Andersen's behavioral model of health services use: a systematic review of studies from 1998-2011. *Psychosoc. Med.* (2012) 9: 10-25.
- (23) Lei X, Jiang H, Liu C, Ferrier A and Mugavin J. Self-medication practice and associated factors

- among residents in Wuhan, China. Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health (2018) 15: 68.
- (24) Vahedi S, Rezapour A, Mohammadbeigi A and Khosravi A. Economic Inequality in Outpatient Healthcare Utilization: The Case of Iran. J. Res .Health Sci. (2018) 18: e00424.
- (25) Tahergorabi Z, Kiani Z and Moodi M. Epidemiological study of self-medication and its associated factors among visitors to Birjand pharmacies, 2015. J. Birjand Univ. Med. Sci. (2016) 23: 158-69.
- (26) Jalilian F, Hazavehei SMM, Vahidinia AA, Moghimbeigi A, Zinat Motlagh F and Mirzaei Alavijeh M. Study of causes of self-medication among Hamadan province pharmacies visitors. Avicenna. J. Clin. Med. (2013) 20: 160-6.
- (27) Joseph J, Shaji S, James J, Merlin A and Mishra B. An epidemiological study on the prevalence of self-medication practises: a serious threat for the population in the Muvattupuzha region in Kerala, India. J. Exp. Med. Sci. (2018) 9: 28-33.
- (28) Niclos G, Olivar T and Rodilla V. Factors associated with self-medication in Spain: a cross-sectional study in different age groups. *Int. J. Pharm. Pract.* (2018) 26: 258-66.
- (29) Filipe V, Allen PB and Peyrin Biroulet L. Self-medication with steroids in inflammatory bowel disease. *Dig. Liver Dis.* (2016) 48: 23-6.
- (30) Shah SJ, Ahmad H, Rehan RB, Najeeb S, Mumtaz M, Jilani MH, Rabbani MSH, Zakariya Alam M and Farooq S, Kdir M. Self-medication with antibiotics among non-medical university students of Karachi: a cross-sectional study. *BMC Pharmacol. Toxicol*. (2014) 15: 74.
- (31) Melo MN, Madureira B, Ferreira APN, Mendes Z and Costa Miranda A and Martins AP. Prevalence of self-medication in rural areas of Portugal. *Pharm. World. Sci.* (2006) 28: 19-25.
- (32) Yousef AMM, Al-Bakri AG, Bustanji Y and Wazaify M. Self-medication patterns in Amman, Jordan. *Pharm. World. Sci.* (2008) 30: 24-30.
- (33) Tripković K, Nešković A, Janković J and Odalović M. Predictors of self-medication in Serbian adult population: Cross-sectional study. *Int. J. Clin. Pharm.* (2018) 40: 627-34.
- (34) Kassie AD, Bifftu BB and Mekonnen HS. Self-medication practice and associated factors among adult household members in Meket district, Northeast Ethiopia, 2017. BMC Pharmacol. Toxicol. (2018) 19: 15.
- (35) Ramalhinho I, Cordeiro C, Cavaco A and Cabrita J. Assessing determinants of self-medication with antibiotics among Portuguese people in the Algarve Region. *Int. J. Clin. Pharm.* (2014) 36: 1039-47.

- (36) Niroomand N, Bayati M, Seif M and Delavari S. Self-medication pattern and prevalence among Iranian medical sciences students. *Curr. Drug Saf.* (2019) 15: 8.
- (37) Karimi M, Maghsoodi E, Zayer B, Rashkeie S and Zareie F. The Frequency of self-medication and its effective factors in students and their peer group in the City of Boukan in 2016: A descriptive study. *J. Rafsanjan Univ. Med. Sci.* (2019) 18: 753-68.
- (38) Foroutan B and Foroutan R. Household storage of medicines and self-medication practices in southeast Islamic Republic of Iran. EMHJ. (2014) 20: 547-53.
- (39) Khajeh A, Vardanjani H, Salehi A, Rahmani N and Delavari S. Healthcare-seeking behavior and its relating factors in South of Iran. J. Edu. Health Promot. (2019) 8: 1-8.
- (40) Aeenparast A, Maftoun F and Haghani H. Prevalence and factors influencing self-medication in Tehran. *Teb. Tazkieh* .(2007) 16: 14-19.
- (41) Sedighi B, Ghaderi S and Emami S. Evaluation of self-medication prevalence, diagnosis and prescription in migraine in Kerman, Iran. *Saudi Med. J.* (2006) 27: 377-80.
- (42) Abdi A, Faraji A, Dehghan F and Khatony A. Prevalence of self-medication practice among health sciences students in Kermanshah, Iran. *BMC Pharmacol. Toxicol.* (2018) 19: 36.
- (43) Ararsa A and Bekele A. Assessment of selfmedication practice and drug storage on private pharmacy clients in Jimma town, Oromia, south West Ethiopia. ARC J. Pharm. Sci. (2015) 1: 20-32.
- (44) Jafari F, Khatony A and Rahmani E. Prevalence of self-medication among the elderly in Kermanshah-Iran. Glob. J. Health Sci. (2015) 7: 360-5.
- (45) Sawalha AF. A descriptive study of self-medication practices among Palestinian medical and nonmedical university students. *Res. Social Adm. Pharm.* (2008) 4: 164-72.
- (46) Öztürk S, Başar D, Özen İC and Çiftçi AÖ. Socio-economic and behavioral determinants of prescription and non-prescription medicine use: the case of Turkey. *DARU J. Pharm. Sci.* (2019) 27: 735-42.
- (47) Sarahroodi S, Maleki-Jamshid A and Sawalha AF, Mikaili P, Safaeian L. Pattern of self-medication with analgesics among Iranian University students in central Iran. J. Fam. Med. Commun. Health (2012) 19: 125.
- (48) Davati A, Jafari F, Samadpour M and Tabar K. Evaluation of drug usage among the elderly in Tehran. *J. Med. Council Iran.* (2007) 25: 450-6.
- (49) Shrma R, Verma U, Sharma C and Kapoor B. Self medication among urban population of Jammo city.

- Indian J. Pharmacol. (2005) 37: 40-3.
- (50) Aminshokravi F, Tavafian S and Moayeri A. Assessing related factors on the illicit use of medications in Abbas Abad City (mazandaran): A cross sectional study. J. Ilam Uni. Med. Sci. (2014) 22: 11-9.
- (51) Selvaraj K, Kumar SG and Ramalingam A. Prevalence of self-medication practices and its associated factors in Urban Puducherry, India. *Perspect Clin. Res.* (2014) 5: 32-6.
- (52) Tirgar T, Hajian K and Naderi A. Self medication in dealing with their skin lesions in Babol teachers. *J. Babol Univ. Med. Sci.* (2004) 6: 56-60.
- (53) Asefzadeh S, Anbar Louei M, Habibi S and Rezaei M. Self-medication among the in-patients of Qazvin teaching hospitals. J. Qazvin Univ. Med. Sci. Health Serv. (2002) 5: 48-54.
- (54) Lam CL, Catarivas MG, Munro C and Lauder IJ. Self-medication among Hong Kong Chinese. *Soc. Sci. Med.* (1994) 39: 1641-7.

- (55) Beyrghadr N, Babaee P, Heydari M, Khalkhali Z, Amirabadi M and Samieigard F. Drug self-medication among Ghazvin University of edical sciences students. *Edrak* (2012) 7: 25-32.
- (56) Aqeel T, Shabbir A, Basharat H, Bukhari M, Mobin S, Shahid H and Waqar SA. Prevalence of selfmedication among urban and rural population of Islamabad, Pakistan. *Trop. J. Pharm. Res.* (2014) 13: 627-33.
- (57) Balamurugan E and Ganesh K. Prevalence and pattern of self medication use in coastal regions of south india. *Br. J. Med. Pract.* (2011) 4: a428.
- (58) Khaksar A, Nade RF and Mosavizadeh K. A survey of the frequency of admin steering drugswithout prescription among the students of medicine and engineering in 2003. J. Jahrom Univ. Med. Sci. (2006) 3: 21-8.

This article is available online at http://www.ijpr.ir