

4 **Research Article**5
6 **Self-medication Practices in Bangladesh: A Comparative**
7 **Cross-Sectional Study Between Urban and Rural**
8 **Communities**11 **Abstract**12
13 Self-medication (SM) is widely practiced in Bangladesh and constitutes a growing public health concern due to
14 inappropriate medicine use and limited regulatory enforcement. Of particular concern is the misuse of prescription
15 only medicines, including antibiotics, driven by decisions made without consultation from qualified healthcare
16 practitioners. Evidence comparing determinants of self-medication between urban and rural populations remains
17 limited. This study evaluated the prevalence and determinants of self-medication practices in Bangladesh, with a
18 specific focus on decision making influenced by unqualified pharmacy dispensers and the misuse of antibiotics
19 without professional supervision. A community based cross-sectional survey was conducted using a structured
20 questionnaire administered through face-to-face interviews. A total of 530 respondents from urban and rural
21 communities were included. Data were analyzed descriptively to assess sociodemographic characteristics,
22 frequency of self-medication, sources of treatment decisions, indications for medicine use, and categories of drugs
23 obtained without prescription. Self-medication was frequently practiced on a regular basis, predominantly among
24 individuals aged 15-60 years. Decision making was largely influenced by advice from retail or community
25 pharmacy dispensers who were not licensed medical practitioners, followed by reuse of old prescriptions and
26 personal experience with similar illnesses. Higher educational attainment did not prevent self-medication and was
27 associated with greater confidence in self-directed treatment decisions. Pain related conditions, febrile illness, and
28 gastrointestinal complaints were the most common indications. A substantial proportion of respondents reported
29 using prescription only medicines, including antibiotics, without physician consultation. Antibiotic misuse was
30 significantly higher among rural respondents (68%) compared to urban respondents (32%), reflecting limited
31 access to qualified healthcare providers and greater reliance on nonprofessional dispensers in rural communities.
32 Self-medication in Bangladesh is driven primarily by nonprofessional treatment advice and inappropriate access to
33 prescription medicines, including antibiotics. These practices pose significant risks for antimicrobial resistance and
34 unsafe drug use. Strengthening regulation of pharmacy dispensing, restricting nonprescription antibiotic sales, and
35 implementing targeted public health education are critical to promoting rational medicine use.36
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39 **Keywords:** Self-medication practices; Antibiotic misuse; Prescription-only medicines; Retail pharmacy
40 dispensing; Urban rural comparison; Rational use of medicines; Bangladesh

44 Introduction

45

46 In recent years there has been an increasing trend in self-medication practice in both developed and developing
47 countries (Ali *et al.*; 2012). Self-medication refers to the practice in which individuals select and use medicines to
48 manage self-recognized symptoms or illnesses without consulting a qualified healthcare professional, including the
49 intermittent or continued use of previously prescribed medicines without current medical supervision (WHO, 2000;
50 Awad *et al.*; 2005; Zheng *et al.*, 2023). Self-medication (SM) is a widespread and increasing practice worldwide
51 and is considered a public health concern because it can lead to antibiotic resistance, harmful side effects, drug
52 interactions, and delayed diagnosis of diseases (Baracaldo-Santamaría *et al.*, 2022). Recent evidence from a
53 systematic review and meta-analysis indicates that antibiotic self-medication remains highly prevalent worldwide,
54 with an estimated pooled prevalence of approximately 43%. Marked differences across regions and considerable
55 variability among studies further underscore the global and widespread misuse of antibiotics (Gashaw *et al.*, 2025).
56 The rational use of medicines means that patients receive medications that are appropriate for their clinical needs,
57 in doses that meet their individual requirements, for an adequate period of time, and at the lowest possible cost to
58 them and the community. When medicines are not used rationally, they may be prescribed, dispensed, or sold
59 inappropriately, leading to poor treatment outcomes, adverse drug reactions, antimicrobial resistance, and
60 unnecessary healthcare costs. The World Health Organization has highlighted that irrational medicine use remains
61 a significant global health problem, particularly in low and middle income countries, and includes inappropriate
62 self-medication with prescription only medicines (WHO, 2025). An emerging issue highlighted in recent literature
63 is the increasing tendency of individuals to self-medicate for chronic health conditions, including hypertension,
64 diabetes, and mental health disorders. Unlike the short-term management of minor symptoms, unsupervised use of
65 medicines for long-term conditions carries a higher risk of inadequate disease control, adverse drug effects, and
66 delayed recognition of complications. Evidence suggests that the continued reuse of previously prescribed
67 medications for chronic illnesses is becoming more common, particularly in settings where access to regular
68 medical follow-up is limited (Saha *et al.*, 2023). At the global public health level, self-medication is increasingly
69 recognized as a significant contributor to the antimicrobial resistance (AMR) problem. International health
70 authorities and recent evidence syntheses have repeatedly highlighted the widespread use of antibiotics without
71 prescription, particularly at the community level, as a major factor accelerating resistance. The continued
72 prevalence of this behavior suggests that awareness-raising efforts alone are inadequate unless accompanied by
73 stronger regulatory controls and improved access to appropriate healthcare services (WHO, 2025; Gashaw *et al.*,
74 2025). Recent regional evidence indicates that differences between urban and rural settings play an important role
75 in shaping self-medication practices. Individuals living in rural areas tend to depend more on self-medication
76 because of constrained healthcare facilities, transportation difficulties, and the greater time and financial burden
77 associated with seeking professional medical care. In contrast, urban residents often have easier access to a wide
78 range of drug outlets, which may increase exposure to a greater variety of medicines and raise the risk of
79 polypharmacy. Despite these distinct patterns, systematic investigation of urban rural differences in self-medication
80 within Bangladesh remains limited (Osei-Tutu *et al.*, 2024). In addition, the rapid expansion of digital health
81 resources and loosely regulated online medicine vendors has further intensified self-medication practices by
82 enabling direct access to drug-related information and products. Such autonomous medicine use frequently occurs
83 without appropriate diagnostic evaluation, thereby increasing the likelihood of inadequate management of chronic
84 health conditions. Strengthening regulatory oversight alongside targeted public education initiatives is therefore
85 essential to promote patient safety and rational use of medicines (Mackey *et al.*, 2016; Limbu *et al.*, 2023).
86 Furthermore, the role of non-professional medicine sellers and informal advisors remains underexplored in many
87 settings, despite their significant influence on treatment decisions. Understanding these dynamics is essential for
88 designing effective interventions aimed at promoting rational medicine use. The influence of pharmacies and easy
89 access to medicines has been linked with higher self-medication practices in community settings (Chautrakarn *et*
90 *al.*, 2021). In Bangladesh, perceived convenience and medication knowledge have shown significant associations
91 with self-medication behavior among university populations (Tohan *et al.*, 2024). Table 1 summarizes commonly
92 used prescription medicines involved in self-medication practices and highlights their intended therapeutic use
93 along with associated safety concerns. The table illustrates that a wide range of drug classes including antibiotics,
94 analgesics, acid-suppressing agents, and medications for chronic and acute conditions are frequently used without
95 professional supervision, underscoring the potential public health risks associated with inappropriate self-
96 medication.

97

Table 1. Common prescription medicines used for self-medication and associated safety concerns.

Self-medication Category	Common Examples	Intended Use	Potential Concern	Reference
Antibiotics	Amoxicillin, Azithromycin	Infections	Antimicrobial resistance	(Shah <i>et al.</i> , 2014)
NSAIDs	Diclofenac, Naproxen	Inflammation, pain	GI bleeding, cardiovascular risk	(Krasniqi <i>et al.</i> , 2024)
Cough & Common Cold Medicines	Codeine containing syrups, antihistamine & decongestant combinations	Cold, flu symptoms	Sedation, dependence	(Tian <i>et al.</i> , 2025)
Vitamins & Minerals	Vitamin D (high dose), Iron, Zinc	Immunity, fatigue	Toxicity, organ damage	(Badr <i>et al.</i> , 2022)
Acid-Suppressing Drugs	Pantoprazole	Acidity, GERD	Nutrient malabsorption, rebound acidity	(Häcker & Morck, 2012)
Antihistamines	Cetirizine, Loratadine	Allergy relief	Drowsiness, masking disease	(Idris <i>et al.</i> , 2016)
Weight-Loss Drugs	Orlistat, Metformin	Weight management	GI effects, metabolic risk	(Abdalfattah <i>et al.</i> , 2025)
Antidiarrheal / Antimicrobials	Metronidazole	Diarrhea	Masking infection, resistance	(Saha <i>et al.</i> , 2023)
Prescription Analgesics	Tramadol	Moderate to severe pain	Dependence, organ toxicity	(Osei-Tutu <i>et al.</i> , 2024)
Emergency Contraceptives	Ulipristal acetate	Unplanned pregnancy	Hormonal imbalance	(Barbian <i>et al.</i> , 2021)
Ophthalmic Drops	Steroid antibiotic combinations	Eye infection	Glaucoma, resistance	(Alamer <i>et al.</i> , 2023)

While self-medication has been widely studied globally, limited research compares self-medication practices between urban and rural populations in Bangladesh. Despite extensive research on self-medication, nationally comparative evidence examining urban rural differences in Bangladesh remains scarce. Existing studies primarily focus on specific cities or diseases, lacking a comprehensive evaluation of the socio-demographic factors and drug types involved in self-medication across different regions. The aim of this study is to compare self-medication practices between urban and rural populations in Bangladesh, focusing on prevalence, patterns, and socio-demographic influences. The objectives of this study were to assess the prevalence of self-medication among the general population in Bangladesh, to compare self-medication practices between urban and rural areas, to identify the common medicines and health conditions associated with self-medication, to examine the sources of information influencing self-medication behavior, and to evaluate the role of socio-demographic factors in shaping self-medication practices.

Materials and Methods

3.1 Study Design, Setting, and Population

This study was designed as a survey-based cross-sectional study to evaluate self-medication practices among the general population of Bangladesh. A total of 530 respondents, including both male and female participants from various age groups, were enrolled in the study. Data collection was conducted over a one-year period from November 2014 to October 2015. Participants were recruited from community settings without restriction to occupation, education level, or socioeconomic status. Participation was entirely voluntary, and all respondents were informed about the purpose and objectives of the survey prior to inclusion. The study was carried out across 15 districts representing diverse geographic and sociodemographic backgrounds, including Dhaka, Chattogram, Madaripur, Munshiganj, Narayanganj, Faridpur, Shariatpur, Patuakhali, Comilla, Noakhali, Barisal, Khulna,

122 Rajshahi, Rangpur, and Sylhet. Selection of these locations considered population diversity, accessibility, and time
 123 feasibility.

124 **3.2 Data Collection Instrument and Procedure**

126 Data were collected using a structured questionnaire designed to obtain information on sociodemographic
 127 characteristics, patterns of self-medication, indications for self-medication, sources of information, and types of
 128 medicines used. The questionnaire was reviewed for clarity and consistency prior to data collection. Participants
 129 were approached voluntarily, and the purpose of the study was explained before administering the questionnaire.
 130 The study was conducted in accordance with ethical principles for research involving human participants. Verbal
 131 informed consent was obtained from all respondents before data collection. Participation was voluntary, and
 132 anonymity and confidentiality of participants' information were strictly maintained throughout the study.

134 **3.3 Data Analysis**

136 All collected data were checked for completeness and consistency before analysis. Data were entered and analyzed
 137 using Microsoft Excel (Microsoft Corp., USA). Descriptive statistics were used to summarize frequencies and
 138 percentages. Chi-square (χ^2) tests were applied to examine associations between categorical variables, including
 139 sociodemographic factors and self-medication practices. A p-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically
 140 significant.

141 **Results**

142 **Distribution of Sociodemographic Characteristics of the Respondents**

144 The study population consisted of respondents of varying ages, gender, and residential backgrounds. Male
 145 participants predominated, and most respondents belonged to the economically active age group. A higher
 146 proportion of participants were married, and representation from both urban and rural areas was comparable.
 147 Overall, the sample reflected a diverse sociodemographic profile suitable for evaluating self-medication practices.

149 Table 2. Sociodemographic characteristics of respondents with chi-square analysis (n = 530)

Variable	Category	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	χ^2 value	p-value
Gender	Male	435	82.0	218.11	<0.001
	Female	95	18.0		
Place of Residence	Urban	281	53.0	1.93	0.165
	Rural	249	47.0		
Age Group (years)	15–30	276	52.0	238.75	<0.001
	31–60	244	46.0		
	>60	10	2.0		
Marital Status	Married	339	64.0	316.46	<0.001
	Unmarried	186	35.0		
	Widowed/Divorced	5	1.0		
Monthly Income (BDT)	0–5000	196	37.0	110.11	<0.001
	5001–15000	170	32.0		
	15001–30000	127	24.0		
	>30000	37	7.0		
Educational Status	Illiterate	117	22.0	128.82	<0.001
	Primary	32	6.0		
	Secondary	191	36.0		
Occupation	University	190	36.0	286.29	<0.001
	Employed	334	63.0		
	Unemployed	180	34.0		
	Retired	16	3.0		

150 Chi-square tests were used to examine distributional differences across categorical variables within the study
 151 population. The findings indicate that self-medication was commonly practiced, with most respondents reporting

regular use on a weekly or monthly basis. The primary motivation for self-medication was the perception of illness as minor, followed by prior experience with similar health conditions. Retail pharmacies emerged as the most influential source of information guiding self-medication practices, while previous prescriptions and advice from family or friends also played a notable role. Formal sources such as drug information leaflets and mass media contributed minimally. Overall, the results highlight the central role of retail pharmacies and personal experience in shaping self-medication behavior.

Table 3. Framework of the self-medication Decision Process among Respondents

Step	Component	Key Contributor
Step 1	Frequency of practice	Regular use (weekly or monthly)
Step 2	Motivation for self-medication	Perceived minor or simple illness
Step 3	Information pathway	Retail pharmacy
Step 4	Reinforcing factor	Previous experience with similar conditions

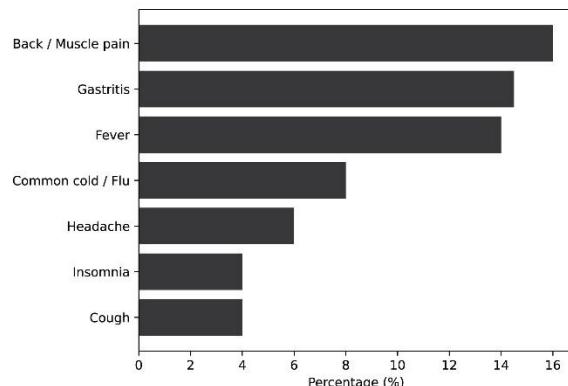


Figure 1: Major indications for self-medication among the study population. Back or muscle pain was the most frequently reported indication, followed by gastritis and fever, while conditions such as headache, insomnia, and cough were reported less frequently.

The distribution of health conditions for which self-medication was practiced differed between urban and rural populations. To better understand these variations, the most frequently reported indications were analyzed comparatively. Figure 2 presents the top indications for self-medication in urban and rural areas, highlighting differences in the pattern and prevalence of commonly reported conditions between the two settings.

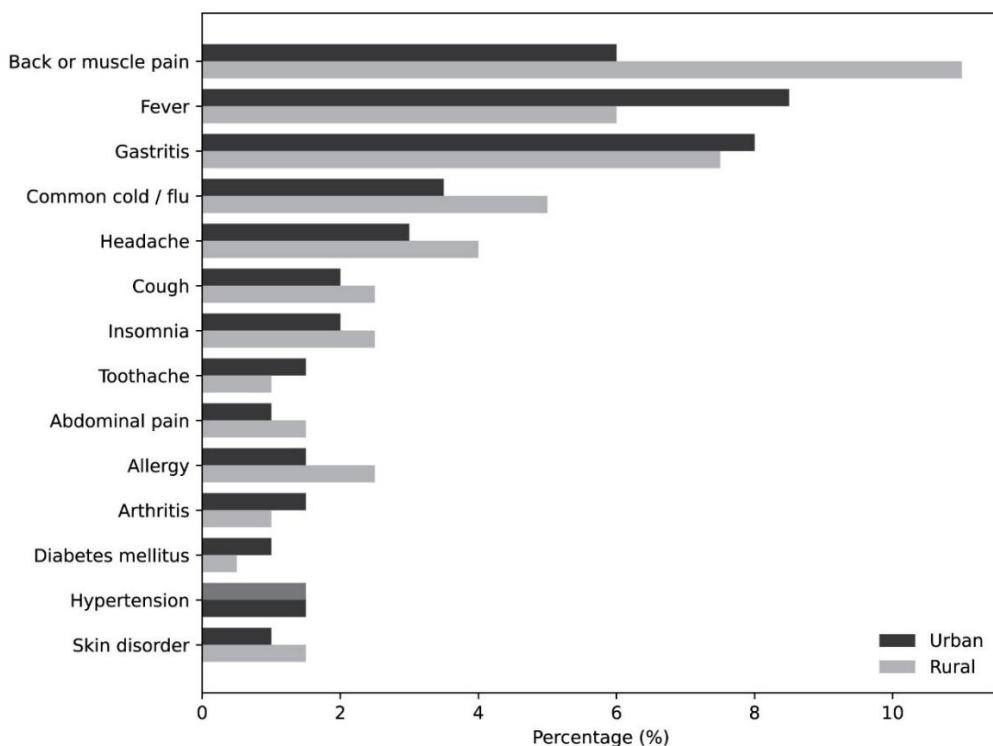


Figure 2: Comparative Indications for self-medication in Urban and Rural Areas (Top 14). The comparative analysis of indications for self-medication shows clear differences between urban and rural populations. Back or muscle pain was the most common indication in rural areas, while fever and gastritis were more frequently

180 reported in urban settings. Rural respondents showed higher self-medication practices for common cold, headache,
 181 insomnia, and allergy, whereas urban respondents demonstrated relatively greater use for fever, gastritis, and
 182 toothache. Overall, rural populations relied more on self-medication for pain-related and common illnesses, while
 183 urban populations showed higher use for gastrointestinal and febrile conditions.
 184

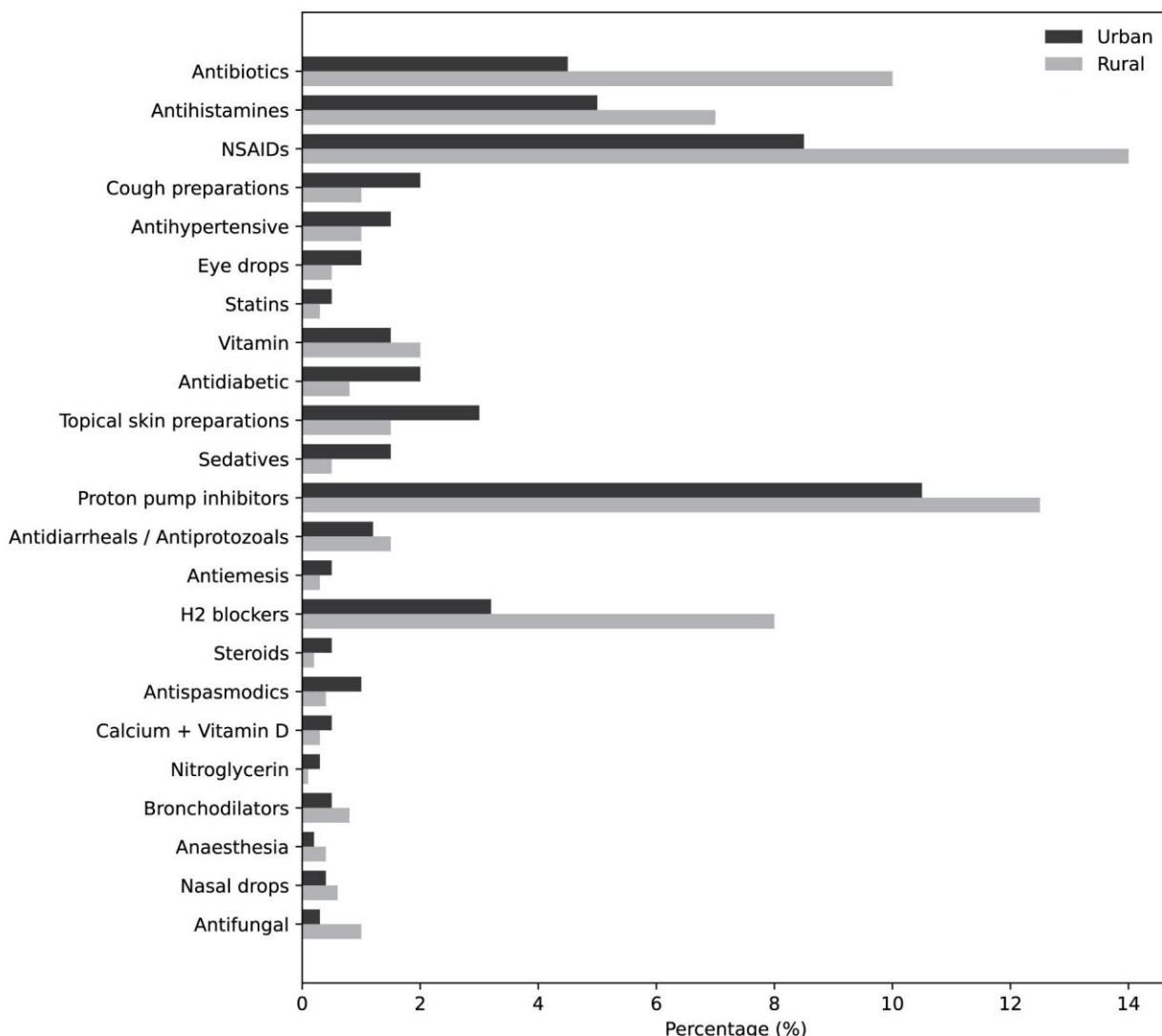
185 Table 4. Medicine Groups Used for Self-medication (n = 530)

Medicine group	Number of respondents (n)	Percentage (%)
Proton pump inhibitors	121	22.8
Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs)	119	22.5
Antibiotics	76	14.3
Cough preparations	67	12.6
Antihistamines	65	12.3
H2 blockers	29	5.5
Antacids	14	2.6
Vitamins	14	2.6
Topical skin preparations	14	2.6
Anti-diabetic drugs	12	2.3
Antihypertensive drugs	11	2.1
Eye drops	11	2.1
Antidiarrheals / antiprotozoal agents	11	2.1
Sedatives	6	1.1
Antiemetics	6	1.1
Steroids	5	0.9
Herbal preparations	4	0.8
Bronchodilators	2	0.4
Antispasmodics	2	0.4
Antifungal drugs	1	0.2

186
 187 Comparative analysis of medication use between urban and rural respondents demonstrates a consistently higher
 188 tendency toward self-medication among individuals residing in rural areas for most medicine groups. Antibiotic
 189 use was notably higher in the rural population compared to the urban population, indicating a greater reliance on
 190 antibiotics without prescription in rural settings. A similar pattern was observed for non-steroidal anti-
 191 inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), where rural respondents showed higher usage than their urban counterparts. Proton
 192 pump inhibitors and H2 blockers were also more frequently used in rural areas, suggesting increased self-
 193 management of gastrointestinal symptoms among rural respondents. Antihistamines and cough preparations
 194 followed the same trend, with rural usage exceeding urban usage, reflecting a higher prevalence of self-treatment
 195 for allergic and respiratory conditions in rural communities.

196 In contrast, urban respondents showed relatively comparable or slightly higher use of certain medications such as
 197 eye drops, topical skin preparations, and vitamins; however, the overall differences remained modest. Less
 198 frequently used medication groups including antidiabetic drugs, antihypertensives, antispasmodics,
 199 bronchodilators, and antifungal agents were reported at low levels in both settings, though rural use remained
 200 marginally higher in most categories.

201 Overall, the findings indicate that rural populations exhibit a greater inclination toward self-medication across
 202 multiple therapeutic categories, particularly for antibiotics, NSAIDs, and acid-suppressing drugs, compared to
 203 urban populations. A higher proportion of antibiotic self-medication was observed among rural respondents than
 204 urban respondents (68% vs. 32%), with chi-square analysis indicating a significant association between place of
 205 residence and antibiotic use ($p < 0.05$).



206
207 **Figure 3:** Comparative distribution of self-medicated drug categories in urban and rural populations. The
208 percentage distribution of commonly self-medicated drug categories among urban and rural respondents. Higher
209 use of antibiotics, NSAIDs, and proton pump inhibitors was observed in rural areas compared to urban areas.
210 Urban respondents showed relatively lower but comparable use across most medication groups. The findings
211 highlight notable rural and urban differences in self-medication practices, particularly for analgesics and
212 gastrointestinal medications.

213 Discussion

214 Comparing results of this study with those of other studies conducted in other countries seems somewhat difficult
215 due to differences in cultures, health care systems, and the roles of community pharmacies. This study found that
216 male respondents practiced self-medication to a larger extent than females. This result is consistent with the
217 findings of another study (Jasim *et al.*, 2014) and contradicts other studies (Carrasco *et al.*, 2009; Chua *et al.*,
218 2011).

219 This study indicated that about 98% of the study population were 15–60 years old, which seems logical since
220 individuals in this age group have a greater ability than older individuals to move and seek medications, due to
221 fewer incidences of joint or cardiovascular diseases compared to older people (Kaye *et al.*, 2010; Lakatta, 2002;
222 North *et al.*, 2012).

223 In this study, most respondents were married, which may be attributed to religious and traditional considerations
224 that encourage marriage at younger ages.

228 About two-thirds of the study population ranked their monthly income as less than good. This result is consistent
229 with other studies conducted in developing countries, which found that the majority of the population practicing
230 self-medication belonged to a low economic status group (Worku *et al.*, 2003).

231 This study demonstrated that about 71% of respondents were literate. This could be explained by the increasing
232 percentage of educated individuals in the general population.

233 The primary reason mentioned by 41% of respondents for practicing self-medication was the perception of having
234 a simple ailment that did not require physician consultation. This finding is consistent with another study, which
235 showed that patients' perception of their current conditions as simple illnesses was the dominant factor behind self-
236 medication practices (James *et al.*, 2008).

237 The second most common reason for practicing self-medication among nearly two-thirds of the study population
238 was prior experience and knowledge of treatment from similar previous ailments. This may be explained by
239 individuals' ability to remember medications, whether prescribed or over-the-counter (OTC), used for similar
240 previous conditions, especially when such medications were effective in improving symptoms (Widayati *et al.*,
241 2011).

242 The most important source of information for self-medication reported in this study was retail dispensers, who are
243 licensed to sell medicines but not to prescribe them.

244 The second most important source was previous prescriptions, which were reused without re-consultation. Friends
245 and family members who had suffered from similar conditions were also identified as important sources of
246 information. The study showed that some conditions treated through self-medication were minor and did not
247 require physician consultation; however, other conditions required medical supervision for appropriate evaluation
248 and treatment.

249 Pain (17%), fever (15%), and gastritis (15%) were the main indications for self-medication. However, some critical
250 conditions, such as diabetes mellitus and hypertension, were also treated through self-medication, which require
251 proper medical consultation and supervision.

252 Respondents used a wide range of drug classes for self-medication. Some of these drugs were available over the
253 counter and could be dispensed based on patient requests, while others were prescription only medications that
254 should be used under physician supervision. Approximately 14% of the study population reported using antibiotics
255 without prescription. Among antibiotic users, 32% were from urban areas, whereas 68% were from rural areas.
256 This higher use in rural areas may reflect limited access to healthcare facilities and delayed physician consultation.
257 Additionally, the use of sedatives (5%) and cough preparations (2%) raises concerns regarding potential misuse.
258 The self-medication use of antidiabetic (2%) and antihypertensive drugs (3%), often sourced from retail dispensers
259 or previous prescriptions, also poses significant health risks.

260 **Study Limitations**

261 This study has certain limitations. The data were self-reported and therefore subject to recall bias. Cross-sectional
262 design limits causal interpretation. Additionally, the study was conducted in selected districts, which may limit the
263 generalizability of the findings to the entire population of Bangladesh. Although data were collected earlier, the
264 findings remain relevant due to persistent self-medication practices and ongoing regulatory challenges in
265 Bangladesh.

266 **Conclusion and Future Direction**

267 This study demonstrates that self-medication is a widespread practice among the general population of Bangladesh,
268 occurring in both urban and rural communities. The findings indicate that self-medication is most prevalent among
269 individuals aged 15–60 years and is strongly influenced by perceptions of illness as minor, previous treatment
270 experience, and advice obtained from retail pharmacy dispensers. Despite relatively high literacy levels among
271 respondents, inappropriate self-medication practices persisted, including the use of prescription only medicines
272 such as antibiotics, sedatives, antihypertensive, and antidiabetic drugs without professional consultation. A notable
273 rural urban disparity was observed, with rural populations exhibiting higher reliance on antibiotics and other

284 prescription medicines, likely reflecting limited access to qualified healthcare services and greater dependence on
285 nonprofessional dispensers. The predominant use of analgesics, acid-suppressing drugs, and antibiotics raises
286 significant public health concerns, particularly regarding antimicrobial resistance, drug misuse, and delayed
287 diagnosis of chronic diseases. Overall, the findings highlight gaps in regulatory enforcement, public awareness, and
288 pharmacy practice that contribute to unsafe medication behaviors.

289 Future efforts should focus on strengthening regulatory control over the dispensing of prescription-only medicines,
290 particularly antibiotics, through stricter enforcement of existing drug laws and enhanced monitoring of retail
291 pharmacy practices. Capacity building and formal training for retail pharmacy dispensers are essential to promote
292 rational medicine use and appropriate referral to qualified healthcare professionals.

293 Public health education campaigns targeting both urban and rural populations should be implemented to improve
294 awareness of the risks associated with inappropriate self-medication, especially for chronic and infectious diseases.
295 Further research using longitudinal and intervention-based study designs is recommended to assess causal factors
296 and evaluate the effectiveness of policy and educational interventions. Integrating pharmacists more effectively
297 into primary healthcare services and expanding access to affordable medical consultation, particularly in rural
298 areas, may play a critical role in reducing unsafe self-medication practices in Bangladesh.

301 **List of Abbreviations**

302 **(List all the abbreviations appeared in your manuscript as given below)**

303 SM: Self-medication, OTC: Over the Counter, NSAIDs: Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs, PPI: Proton
304 Pump Inhibitor, H2 blocker: Histamine 2 Receptor Antagonist, GERD: Gastroesophageal Reflux Disease, WHO:
305 World Health Organization, BDT: Bangladeshi Taka, GI: Gastrointestinal

309 **Conflicts of Interest**

310 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships
311 that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

314 **Author Contributions Statement (State the contributions of each author as given below)**

315 Conceptualization: BMS conceptualized and designed the study. BMS, ZI, MNR, and FA were responsible for data
316 collection, including prescription review and participant interviews. MKM, MR, and UA contributed to data
317 organization and initial manuscript drafting. BMS conducted critical review, editing, and overall supervision of the
318 manuscript. Final manuscript preparation and approval were carried out by BMS, ZI, MNR, and FA. NN provided
319 project supervision and methodological guidance. All authors read and approved the final version of the
320 manuscript.

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331 participants for their voluntary participation and for providing valuable information and prescriptions that
332 contributed significantly to the completion of this study.

334 **Data Availability Statement**

335 Data relevant to the study is already included in the article or attached in the supplements. Raw data will be
336 provided upon reasonable request by contacting the corresponding author.

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