2024, Volume 1, Issue 4. Page: 01-12.

www.wjims.com

PREVALENCE AND USE PATTERN OF ANALGESIC USE AMONG STUDENTS OF NIGER DELTA UNIVERSITY, AMASSOMA, BAYELSA STATE

*Peter A. Owonaro, Hida Faithful Kpun, Mieye Favour Orunchukwu, Chima Ifeanyi E. and Adebukola A. Sounyo

Faculty of Pharmacy, Department of Clinical Pharmacy and Pharmacy Practice, Bayelsa State, Nigeria.

Article Info

Article Received: 20 April 2024 Article Revised: 11 May 2024 Published on: 01 June 2024



*Corresponding author: Peter A. Owonaro

Department of Clinical Pharmacy & Pharmacy Practice, Nigeria Email: owonaropeter@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The mainstay of treatment of pains is the Non-steroidal Anti-inflammatory Drugs (NSAIDs). They are the most widely prescribed in the management of pain such as dental pain, post-surgery induced pain, and other forms of acute and chronic pains.

There has been widespread use of NSAIDs reported globally and in the Southern part of Nigeria. In a bid to understand the prevalence and use pattern of pain relievers, a quantitative cross-sectional survey was used to assess the prevalence and use pattern of 216 random students of different faculties in the university. An in-house questionnaire was developed and used to collect data, which was then analyzed by IBM SPSS version 27 and Microsoft Excel (version 2013), for descriptive statistics where mean, frequencies, p-values, and chi-squared tests were obtained respectively. The findings revealed the participants to be more single males (58.33%) between the ages of 18 and 30 years (86.11%).

Five questions assessed the prevalence and use pattern of pain relievers. The majority of respondents were male (58.33%), single (83.33%), and between 18-30 years old (86.11%). Most respondents (67.20%) reported having good knowledge about the pain relievers they used. Hospital pharmacies (77.78%), community pharmacies (50%), and chemists (58.33%) were observed to be the most common sources of pain relievers. Respondents spent between N100 to N500 monthly on pain relievers (47.22%), which were not always prescribed for them (72.22%). The results show that Diclofenac Potassium, Acetaminophen, Aspirin, Meloxicam, and Magnesium salicylate were the most commonly used pain relievers, with 51.85% using them sometimes and 50.93% finding them effective. However, respondents also experienced side effects like heartburn, stomach pain, and chest pain, with 50.40% seeking medical attention when experiencing side effects. The study revealed that there is no significant relationship or association between pain reliever use and gender. This was similar to the side effects reported. However, there was a statistically significant difference between the pattern of NSAID use and student academic level ($X^2 = 84.02$, df = 6. P ≤ 0.0001). Primarily relies on self-reported data from students, which may be subject to bias and inaccuracy: the small sample size may not be representative of the entire population; the study only includes students from one university, which may not be generalizable to other universities and there is potential for recall bias amongst students on pain reliever use and frequency. Healthcare providers should prioritize patient education and awareness of pain reliever-related side effects; prescribing guidelines and patient education programs should be developed and implemented to promote appropriate use of pain relievers; regulatory agencies should consider implementing stricter guidelines for the use and marketing of pain relievers.

KEYWORDS: NSAIDs, students, Niger Delta, Pain reliever and Bayelsa State.

INTRODUCTION

The mainstay of treatment of pains is the Nonsteroidal Anti-inflammatory Drugs (NSAIDs). They are the most widely prescribed in the management of pain such as dental pain, post-surgery induced pain, and other forms of acute and chronic pains (Owonaro et al, 2017). There has been widespread use of NSAIDs reported globally and in the Southern part of Nigeria (Wohrl, 2018; Pelletier et al., 2016; McGettigan & Henry, 2013; Massey et al., 2010; Awodele et al., 2015, Awofisayo et al., 2008). The use of NSAIDs has led to about 100,000 hospitalized cases due to the adverse effects of NSAIDs (Dionne & Berthold, 2001).

Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) are a drug class, well known and approved for use as antipyretic, anti-inflammatory, and analgesic agents (Phillips & Currier, 2004). NSAIDs are typically divided into groups based on their chemical structure and selectivity.

Pain relievers, also known as analgesics, medications that are used to relieve pain without causing loss of consciousness (Dawson, 2018). They work by blocking the production of certain chemicals in the body that cause pain (National Institute of Health, 2020). Examples of pain relievers include acetaminophen and Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) such as ibuprofen and aspirin (Dawson, 2018). They are medications that are used to manage pain by reducing the transmission of pain signals to the brain or by altering the brain's perception of pain (Merskey & Bogduk, 1994). They can be classified into different types, including opioids, NSAIDs, and acetaminophen, each with different mechanisms of action and side effect profiles (Merskey & Bogduk, 1994). The International Association for the Study of Pain defines pain relievers as substances that are used to alleviate physical suffering and discomfort caused by injury, disease, or other conditions (International Association for the Study of Pain, 2019). Pain is defined as "an unpleasant sensory and emotional experience associated with actual or potential tissue damage or described in terms of such damage" (International Association for the Study of Pain, 1994). Pain is typically categorized as either acute or chronic (Taylor, 2008). It is usually transitory, lasting only until the noxious stimulus is removed or the underlying damage has healed. However, some painful conditions, such as Rheumatoid Arthritis, Peripheral neuropathy, Cancer, Idiopathic pain, etc., may persist for years (Owonaro et al., 2016).

Apart from categorizing pain according to duration, pain can also be categorized according to the etiology, as either caused by nerve damage (Neuropathic) and/or caused by tissue damage (Avascular necrosis) (Woolf, 2010).

Primary objective

To determine the prevalence and pattern of pain relievers (Diclofenac Potassium, Acetaminophen, Aspirin, Meloxicam, Magnesium salicylate) use among the students of Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Bayelsa State, South-South Nigeria.

Secondary objectives

 To determine the most used pain reliever (Diclofenac Potassium, Acetaminophen, Aspirin, Meloxicam, Magnesium salicylate) among male and female students of the University.

- ii. To examine the knowledge of pain relievers and their side effects among respondents.
- iii. To determine the sources of pain relievers used by respondents.
- iv. To determine the cost of pain relievers, and affordability of pain relievers in Amassoma, Bayelsa State.
- v. To determine the common pain relievers used by respondents and their perceived effectiveness and side effects.

METHOD

Study Population: Students of Niger University, Amassoma, Bayelsa State. The student community is made up of 13 Faculties, with an estimated total number of 20,000 students.

Study setting: The study was conducted at the Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Amassoma, Bayelsa State. The University campus and environs are home to thousands of students from all parts of the country, with diverse socio-economic, cultural, and health statuses.

Study design: This was a quantitative cross-sectional observational study.

Research instrument: A validated self-report questionnaire was available physically and was employed for gathering relevant information, which included patients' demographics, the knowledge of pain relievers' use and side effects, the most common NSAIDs used by the respondents, the common medical conditions for which pain relievers are used, the manner/ context surrounding their use and the availability, affordability and the source of pain relievers' procurement. This was after written informed consent from the participants.

Inclusion criteria: All students of either gender

a. Age > 18 years

3.1 Exclusion criteria

Adolescents (students who are less than 18), Pregnant students, Students who are unwilling to partake, Allergic/ hypersensitive patients, Participants involved in the pilot study.

Data Collection Tool: Self-report questionnaire or inhouse questionnaire was used.

Measures: A semi-structured self-report questionnaire was designed based on the objectives of the study. The questionnaire was written in English and contained both 'open' and 'closed' -ended questions and was divided into four sections. The first section elicited responses on participants" socio-demographics. The

demographic features to be investigated are gender, marital status, age, faculty, level, residence, and ethnicity of participants. The second section contained questions on the knowledge of pain relievers' use and side effects, while the third section asked questions on the prevalence and pattern of pain relievers' use, reflecting the most common pain relievers used by the respondents, the common medical conditions for which pain relievers are used and the manner of use of pain relievers by the participants. The fourth section requested information on the availability. affordability, of and source pain relievers' procurement. This study instrument was adapted from the short-form Pain Medication Attitude, Questionnaire (PMAQ-14) and the research tool used in the work of Owonaro et al, 2017. The PMAQ-14 tool designed to assess prevalence, pattern, knowledge, attitude, reported side effects, misuse, and services provided towards pain relievers prescribing dispensing among the users. Self-report questionnaires are designed, pre-tested. administered after validation.

Pilot Study: A pilot study was carried out with ten (10) pain reliever users and the results were entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to check if the questions elicited the right responses and could be understood. The respondents who took part in the pilot study were excluded from the actual study, to avoid any bias. Amendments were made where ambiguity was observed. Furthermore, during the pilot study, the researcher was available to give more explanations to the respondents. An average of 10 to 15 minutes was required to fill out each questionnaire.

Ethical Consideration: Ethical approval was sought from the management of the Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Amassoma, Bayelsa State. This followed an assurance that the confidentiality of the patients would be strictly maintained.

Sampling calculation or power calculation: An online sample size calculator was used to derive sample data

from the total number of students in Niger Delta University, Amassoma, Bayelsa State. Using the Yamane formula: N= 20000/ [1+(20000)(0.05)^2] = 392

Sampling Techniques: From the calculated sample size, a Convenience and Voluntary response sampling technique was used to get respondents for this study from all faculties in the university, based on the population size, number of faculties, and ease of access.

Study Procedure: On the day of the study, the researcher met with the students and an introduction was made. Thereafter, the author gave a detailed explanation of what the study entailed, and what was to be expected of them. The self-report questionnaires and consent forms were then provided with the study study participant information sheet. The questionnaire was distributed to the participants. On completion of the self-report questionnaire, the study tools were retrieved immediately to prevent the participants from sharing information about the study. Questionnaires were then checked to ensure appropriate filling was done. Those who completed the questionnaire were thanked for their willingness to participate in the study. The above process is estimated to have lasted for a period of 20 to 35 minutes.

Data Analysis: The data generated was analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 27 and/or Microsoft Excel. The result was presented using descriptive statistics and expressed as simple percentages. Average values were presented in mean and standard deviation. Inferential statistics involving hypothesis testing, chi-squared test, etc, was also used to analyze the result.

RESULTS

Demographic characteristics of respondents

Participants that partook in this study were more single males (58.33%) between the ages of 18 and 30 years (86.11%). This is as is shown in table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Demogr	aphic characteristics of respondents (1	N=216).	
		Count	%
Gender	Male	126	58.33
	Female	90	41.67
Marital status	Single	180	83.33
	Married	30	13.89
	Others	6	2.78
Age	18-30	186	86.11
	31-45	24	11.11
	46-60	6	2.78
Faculty	Pharmacy	42	19.44
	Basic Medical/Clinical Sciences	24	11.11

	Nursing	0	0.00
	Sciences	30	13.89
	Engineering	0	0.00
	Arts	24	11.11
	Management Sciences	18	8.33
	Social Sciences	6	2.78
	Environmental Sciences	42	19.44
	Agricultural Sciences	0	0.00
	Education	24	11.11
	Law	6	2.78
Level	100	57	26.39
	200	51	23.61
	300	37	17.13
	400	36	16.67
	500	29	13.43
	600	2	0.93
	Postgraduate	4	1.85
Residence	School hostel	72	33.33
	off campus	144	66.67
Ethnicity	Ijaw	124	57.41
	Urhobo	42	19.44
	Hausa	6	2.78
	Yoruba	14	6.48
	Igbo	8	3.70
	Others	22	10.19

There was no statistically significant difference between knowledge of NSAID use and student academic level ($X^2 = 2.90$. df = 1, p = 0.088).

Since the p-value is greater than 0.05, we fail to reject the null hypothesis (H0) and conclude that there is no significant relationship between pain reliever use and gender.

There was a statistically significant difference between the pattern of NSAID use and student academic level ($X^2 = 84.02$, df = 6. P 0.000000001).

Knowledge of Pain relievers and side effects

All the respondents reported having made use of pain relievers and made reported preferences to currently used pain relievers due to observed effectiveness (44.44%), and also claimed that they have good knowledge about the pain relievers they are taking (38.89%). Such knowledge reported was on the dose, duration, frequency, and possible interaction with alcohol and food (67.20%). This is contained in Table 4.2 and Table 4.3.

Table 4.2: Usage of pain relievers.			
		Count	%
Have you ever used pain relievers?	Yes	216	100.00
	No	0	0.00
Why do you prefer the particular pain reliever	Very effective	96	44.44
you have taken before or are taking now?	fewer side effects	0	0.00
	Affordable	56	25.93
	prescribed by a health professional	10	4.63
	recommended by family	54	25.00
	recommended by friend	0	0.00
	advert on the media	0	0.00
	Other reasons	0	0.00
Please, state your level of knowledge about the	Excellent	24	11.11
side effects of the pain relievers you use	very good	60	27.78
	Good	84	38.89
	Poor	24	11.11
	not at all	24	11.11

Table 4.3: Depth of knowledge on pain relievers taken.										
	Very	well	Ave	rage	not at all					
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%				
The correct dose to take	58	26.85	129	59.72	29	13.43				
How long it should take	9	4.17	175	81.02	32	14.81				
How frequently it should be taken	6	2.78	208	96.30	2	0.93				
Whether it can be taken with alcohol	1	0.46	122	56.48	93	43.06				
Whether it can be taken with food	31	14.35	158	73.15	27	12.50				
Whether it can be taken on an empty stomach	6	2.78	122	56.48	88	40.74				
Whether it can be taken with antacids	24	11.11	102	47.22	90	41.67				
Average	19	8.93	145	67.20	52	23.88				

The respondents also reported that they sometimes (41.90%) experience side effects such as heartburn, stomach pain, chest pains, blood in urine, blood in stool, swellings, and sweating. In the event of

experiencing such side effects, they sometimes (50.40%) visit the doctor, the pharmacist, or the nurse. This is contained in table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4: Side effects experience	Alw		Someti			ever
C. 1	Count	<u>%</u>	Count	%	Count	%
Side effects experienced while c	onsuming pai	n relievers		•	T	•
Heartburns	13	6.02	122	56.48	81	37.50
Stomach pains	17	7.87	119	55.09	80	37.04
Chest pains	18	8.33	117	54.17	81	37.50
Blood in urine	12	5.56	5	2.31	199	92.13
Blood in stool	8	3.70	4	1.85	204	94.44
Body swelling	9	4.17	98	45.37	109	50.46
Sweating	59	27.31	125	57.87	32	14.81
Other common side effects	3	1.39	134	62.04	79	36.57
Average	17	8.04	91	41.90	108	50.06
Actions taken when experiencing	g side effects					
Visit your doctor	6	2.78	108	50.00	102	47.22
Visit your pharmacist	6	2.78	138	63.89	72	33.33
Visit your nurse	6	2.78	108	50.00	102	47.22
Visit chemist	60	27.78	84	38.89	72	33.33
Visit family	30	13.89	162	75.00	24	11.11
Visit friends	0	0.00	162	75.00	54	25.00
Visit herbalist	0	0.00	0	0.00	216	100.00
Average	15	7.14	109	50.40	92	42.46

There was no statistically significant difference between knowledge of NSAID use and student academic level. $X^2 = 59.02$, df = 6. P = 0.89

Approach to pain management

Participants also reported that about 52.78% of the time they sometimes go to the hospital, pharmacy, and other health-related agencies in the event of pain. Such pains are most times reported to be malaria (50%), body weakness (61.11%), chest pain (50%), and arthritis (47.22%). This is shown in table 4.5 below.

	Always		Sometimes		Never	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Actions in the event of pain						
Go to Hospital	6	2.78	126	58.33	84	38.89
Go to Pharmacy	30	13.89	186	86.11	0	0.00
Go to masseuses	24	11.11	84	38.89	108	50.00
Go to church/mosque	30	13.89	132	61.11	54	25.00
Go to Patent Medicine Vendors	6	2.78	150	69.44	60	27.78
(Chemists)	0	0.00	78	36.11	138	63.89
Go to the Herbal clinic/practitioner	6	2.78	78	36.11	132	61.11
Visit street medicine vendors	6	2.78	78	36.11	132	61.11
	14	6.25	114	52.78	89	40.97
A condition where pain relievers are	e used					
Headache	120	55.56	48	22.22	24	11.11
General body pain	144	66.67	72	33.33	0	0.00
Menstrual pain	72	33.33	54	25.00	90	41.67
Malaria	54	25.00	108	50.00	54	25.00
Body weakness	54	25.00	132	61.11	30	13.89
Joint pains	60	27.78	102	47.22	54	25.00
Back pain	60	27.78	102	47.22	54	25.00
Leg pain	60	27.78	72	33.33	84	38.89
Hand/arm pain	60	27.78	72	33.33	84	38.89
Arthritis	30	13.89	102	47.22	84	38.89
Stomach pain	0	0.00	102	47.22	114	52.78
Chest pain	6	2.78	108	50.00	102	47.22
Other pains	30	13.89	132	61.11	54	25.00
Average	58	26.71	93	42.95	64	29.49

		Diclo: Potas				amino		Asp	irin		Mel	oxicar		sali	gnesiu cylate	
		Very effective	Effective	Not effective	Very effective	Effective	Not effective	Very effective	Effective	Not effective	Very effective	Effective	Not effective	Very effective	Effective	Not effective
Diclofenac	Always	0	0	6	0	0	6	0	0	6	0	0	6	0	0	6
Potassium	sometimes	0	186	0	108	78	0	54	78	54	54	108	24	54	108	24
	Never	0	0	24	0	24	0	0	0	24	0	0	24	0	0	24
Acetaminophen	Always	0	132	30	108	48	6	54	24	84	54	54	54	54	54	54
(Paracetamol)	sometimes	0	54	0	0	54	0	0	54	0	0	54	0	0	54	0
	Never	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	sometimes	0	108	0	30	78	0	0	78	30	30	78	0	30	78	0
	Never	0	48	24	48	24	0	24	0	48	24	0	48	24	0	48
Aspirin	Always	0	30	6	30	0	6	30	0	6	0	30	6	0	30	6
	sometimes	0	108	0	30	78	0	0	78	30	30	78	0	30	78	0
	Never	0	48	24	48	24	0	24	0	48	24	0	48	24	0	48
Meloxicam	Always	0	30	6	30	0	6	0	0	36	30	0	6	30	0	6
	sometimes	0	108	0	30	78	0	30	78	0	0	108	0	0	108	0
	Never	0	48	24	48	24	0	24	0	48	24	0	48	24	0	48
Magnesium	Always	0	30	6	30	0	6	0	0	36	30	0	6	30	0	6
salicylate	sometimes	0	108	0	30	78	0	30	78	0	0	108	0	0	108	0
	Never	0	48	24	48	24	0	24	0	48	24	0	48	24	0	48

Respondents also reported that the drugs taken were Diclofenac Potassium, Acetaminophen, Aspirin, Meloxicam, and Magnesium salicylate which were sometimes taken (51.85%) and were also reported to be effective (50.93%). This is shown in table 4.6 below. Respondents also report that pain relievers were

taken in the study environment as recommended by family or friends (88.89%) or as labeled on the drug product (75%). Other drugs mostly taken among pain relievers were reported to include hot balms, ointments (75%), creams (63.89%), antibiotics, and antacids (61.11%). This is shown in table 4.7 below.

Table 4.6: Frequency and effectiveness.										
	Always		Sometimes		Never					
Frequency	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%				
Diclofenac Potassium	6	2.78	186	86.11	24	11.11				
Acetaminophen	162	75.00	54	25.00	0	0.00				
(Paracetamol)	36	16.67	108	50.00	72	33.33				
Aspirin	36	16.67	108	50.00	72	33.33				
Meloxicam	36	16.67	108	50.00	72	33.33				
Magnesium salicylate	36	16.67	108	50.00	72	33.33				
Average	52	24.07	112	51.85	52	24.07				
	Very effective)	Effective		Not effective					
Effectiveness	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%				
Diclofenac Potassium	0	0.00	186	86.11	30	13.89				
Acetaminophen	108	50.00	102	47.22	6	2.78				
(Paracetamol)	54	25.00	78	36.11	84	38.89				
Aspirin	54	25.00	78	36.11	84	38.89				
Meloxicam	54	25.00	108	50.00	54	25.00				
Magnesium salicylate	54	25.00	108	50.00	54	25.00				
Average	54	25.00	110	50.93	52	24.07				

Table 4.7: Pattern of pain relievers' use.						
-	Always		Sometimes		Never	
	Count		Count		Count	
How do you take your pain relievers?						
As prescribed by a healthcare provider	78	36.11	132	61.11	6	2.78
As recommended by chemist	138	63.89	78	36.11	0	0.00
As recommended by friends/ family	0	0.00	192	88.89	24	11.11
As stated on the package label	30	13.89	162	75.00	24	11.11
Anyhow I like	0	0.00	102	47.22	114	52.78
Average	49	22.78	133	61.67	34	15.56
Other drugs taken alongside pain relieve	ers					
Hot balms	0	0.00	162	75.00	54	25.00
Ointments	0	0.00	162	75.00	54	25.00
Creams	0	0.00	138	63.89	78	36.11
Antibiotics	54	25.00	132	61.11	30	13.89
Antacids(anti-ulcer drugs)	30	13.89	132	61.11	54	25.00
Anointing oil	30	13.89	132	61.11	54	25.00
Others	6	2.78	132	61.11	78	36.11
Antimalarial	84	38.89	102	47.22	30	13.89
Herbs	0	0.00	102	47.22	114	52.78
Sprays	6	2.78	102	47.22	108	50.00
Lotion	6	2.78	102	47.22	108	50.00
Cough syrup	0	0.00	78	36.11	138	63.89
	18	8.33	123	56.94	75	34.72

Availability of pain relievers

Respondents in this study also reported spending N100 to N500 naira every month (47.22%) on pain relievers that were not prescribed for them (72.22%).

The pain relievers were reported to be always easily available (58.33%) and very affordable (58.33%). The most common places where such pain relievers were gotten from are hospital pharmacies (77.78%),

community pharmacies (50%), and chemists (58.33%). This is shown in Table 4.8 and Table 4.9 below.

Table 4.8: Pain relievers and financial implications.			
-		Count	%
On average, how much in naira, do you spend on pain	100 - 500	102	47.22
relievers per month	500-1000	0	0.00
	1000-2000	54	25.00
	2000-5000	60	27.78
	above 5000	0	0.00
Do you take more than one pain reliever at a goal?	Yes	60	27.78
	No	156	72.22
If yes, were they prescribed for you?	Yes	0	0.00
	No	216	100.00
How easily available are your pain relievers?	Always	126	58.33
	Sometimes	90	41.67
	Never	0	0.00
How affordable are your pain relievers?	Very affordable	126	58.33
	moderately affordable	84	38.89
	Not always affordable	0	0.00
	very expensive	6	2.78

Table 4.9: Sources of pain relievers.									
	Always		Someti	mes	Never				
	Count		Count		Count				
Hospital Pharmacy	0	0.00	168	77.78	48	22.22			
Community Pharmacy	78	36.11	108	50.00	30	13.89			
Chemist(Patent medicine store)	90	41.67	126	58.33	0	0.00			
Street drug vendor	6	2.78	54	25.00	156	72.22			
Supermarket	0	0.00	102	47.22	114	52.78			
Market	0	0.00	60	27.78	156	72.22			
Inside bus	0	0.00	6	2.78	210	97.22			
Do you use pain relievers because they were once prescribed for you in the past?	156	72.22	30	13.89	30	13.89			
	41	19.10	82	37.85	93	43.06			

DISCUSSION OF KEY FINDINGS

The demographic characteristics of students who use pain relievers

The results showed that the majority of respondents were male (58.33%), single (83.33%), and between 18-30 years old (86.11%). There was no statistically significant difference between gender and pattern of NSAID use. This might be due to the same physical activity undertaken by all students. However, there was a statistically significant difference between the pattern of use and academic level. This might be connected to the daily activities and academics undertaken by the student. It is expected that student academic stress increases as they go higher. This aligns with previous studies that found young adults, particularly students, to be frequent users of pain relievers (Kwabena, 2017; Tshabalala, 2018). This demographic profile suggests that pain reliever use is prevalent among young adults, which may be attributed to their lifestyle, academic pressure, and social factors. This is also consistent with previous

studies (Farah et al., 2023; Vaishnavi et al., 2017).

To examine the knowledge of pain relievers and their side effects among respondents

The findings from this work indicate that most respondents (67.20%) reported having good knowledge about the pain relievers they used. There was no statistically significant different in knowledge of NSAID use and the student level. This is so because they were not medical students. However, this contradicts previous studies suggesting a lack of knowledge among students (Kwabena, Tshabalala, 2018). This discrepancy may be because most respondents (44.44%) preferred pain relievers based on their observed effectiveness, indicating a trial-and-error approach to pain management. This highlights the need for education on proper usage and potential side effects.

To determine the sources of pain relievers used by respondents

The findings also show that hospital pharmacies (77.78%), community pharmacies (50%), and chemists (58.33%) are the most common sources of pain relievers. This aligns with previous studies (Farah et al., 2023; Vaishnavi et al., 2017), indicating easy accessibility and availability of pain relievers. However, this may contribute to overuse or misuse, as respondents may not always consult healthcare professionals before using pain relievers (Blower, 1996; McGettigan & Henry, 2013).

To examine the financial implications of pain relievers used among respondents

The findings from this research indicate that respondents spent between N100 to N500 monthly on pain relievers (47.22%), which were not always prescribed for them (72.22%). This suggests that students may be incurring unnecessary expenses on pain relievers, which could be a burden on their finances (Haroutiunian et al., 2010).

To determine the common pain relievers used by respondents and their perceived effectiveness and side effects

The results show that Diclofenac Potassium, Acetaminophen, Aspirin, Meloxicam, and Magnesium salicylate were the most commonly used pain relievers, with 51.85% using them sometimes and 50.93% finding them effective. However, respondents also experienced side effects like heartburn, stomach pain, and chest pain, with 50.40% seeking medical attention when experiencing side effects. This highlights the need for education on proper usage and potential side effects to ensure safe and effective pain management, which is a gap in existing literature.

Summary and Conclusion

Participants that partook in this study were more single males (58.33%) between the ages of 18 and 30 years (86.11%). All the respondents reported having made use of pain relievers and made reported preferences to currently used pain relievers due to observed effectiveness (44.44%), and also claimed that they have good knowledge about the pain relievers they are taking (38.89%). Such knowledge reported was on the dose, duration, frequency, and possible interaction with alcohol and food (67.20%).

The respondents also reported that they sometimes (41.90%) experience side effects such as heartburn, stomach pain, chest pains, blood in urine, blood in stool, swellings, and sweating. In the event of experiencing such side effects, they sometimes (50.40%) visit the doctor, the pharmacist, or the nurse. Participants also reported that about 52.78% of the time they sometimes go to the hospital,

pharmacy, and other health-related agencies in the event of pain. Such pains are most times reported to be malaria (50%), body weakness (61.11%), chest pain (50%), and arthritis (47.22%).

Respondents also reported that the drugs taken were Diclofenac Potassium, Acetaminophen, Aspirin, Meloxicam, and Magnesium salicylate which were sometimes taken (51.85%) and were also reported to be effective (50.93%). This is shown in table 4.6 below. Respondents also report that pain relievers were taken in the study environment as recommended by family or friends (88.89%) or as labeled on the drug product (75%). Other drugs mostly taken among pain relievers were reported to include hot balms, ointments (75%), creams (63.89%), antibiotics, and antacids (61.11%).

Respondents in this study also reported spending N100 to N500 naira every month (47.22%) on pain relievers that were not prescribed for them (72.22%). The pain relievers were reported to be always easily available (58.33%) and very affordable (58.33%). The most common places where such pain relievers were gotten from are hospital pharmacies (77.78%), community pharmacies (50%), and chemists (58.33%).

CONTRIBUTION TO LITERATURE

This study's findings have contributed to an existing body of knowledge that cough and other minor reasons are implicated in NSAIDs use in this part of the world.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

There was no conflict of interest among the authors. The researchers appreciated the statistician, Participants, and researchers for the time.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The researchers declare that there was no conflict of interest.

REFERENCES

- Abdulla A, Adams N, Bone M, Elliott AM, Gaffin J, Jones D, et al. (2013). Guidance on the management of pain in older people. Age Ageing, 42 Suppl 1: i1-57.
- Amirimoghadam, P., Zihayat, B., Dabaghzadeh, F., Kiani, K., Ebrahimi, J., Ghazanfari, M. & Arjmand, S. (2017). Evaluation and awareness of over-the-counter use of non-steroidal antiinflammatory drugs.
- 3. Awodele, O., Fadipe, A.O., Adekoya, M. & Adeyemi, O.O. (2015). Prescribing Pattern of Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs at the Outpatient Pharmacy Department of a University Teaching Hospital in Nigeria. Ghana Med J. 49(1): 25–29.

- Awofisayo, O.S., Awofisayo, O.A., Iferi, I.I. & Akpan, O.E. (2008). The Pattern of Sale and Use of Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs in Rural and Urban Centres in Nigeria. Tropical Journal of Pharmaceutical Research, 7(3): 1013– 1018.
- Azodo, C.C. and Umoh, A.O. (2013). Analgesics prescription in Nigerian dental healthcare services. Nigeria Journal of Basic and Clinical Sciences, 10(2): 86–90. Babalola, E.O. (2018). Guidelines for the management of pain in Nigeria, Federal Ministry of Health. Page 13 31.
- 6. Balding L (2013). The World Health Organisation analgesic ladder: its place in modern Irish medical practice. Ir Med J, 106: 122-124.
- 7. Berkes EA. Anaphylactic and anaphylactoid reactions to aspirin and other NSAIDs. Clin Rev Allergy Immunol. 2003 Apr;24(2):137-48.
- Blower A. L. (1996). Considerations for nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug therapy: safety. Scandinavian Journal of rheumatology. Supplement, 105, 13– 27. https://doi.org/10.3109/03009749609097232
- Builders, M.I., Okonta, J.M. & Aguwa, C.N. (2011). Prescription Patterns of Analgesics in a Community Hospital in Nsukka. J. Pharm. Sci. & Res. 3(12): 1593–1598.
- Bushra, R. & Aslam, N. (2010). An Overview of Clinical Pharmacology of Ibuprofen. Oman Med.
 J. 25, 155–166. https://doi.org/10.5001/omj.2010.49.
- 11. Chaiamnuay S, Allison JJ, Curtis JR. Risks versus benefits of cyclooxygenase-2- selective nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs. Am J Health Syst Pharm. 2006 Oct 01;63(19):1837-51.
- 12. Daniel, S., Koren, G., Lunenfeld, E. & Levy, A. (2015). NSAIDs and spontaneous abortions true effect or an indication bias. Br J Clin Pharmacol. 80(4): 750–754.
- 13. Dawood MY. Primary dysmenorrhea: advances in pathogenesis and management. Obstet Gynecol. 2006 Aug; 108(2): 428-41.
- 14. Dawson, C. (2018). Pain relievers. In StatPearls. StatPearls Publishing.
- 15. Dionne RA, Berthold CW; Therapeutic uses of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs in dentistry. Crit Rev Oral Biol Med. 2001; 12(4):315-330.
- Farah, R. I., Khatib, A. E., Abu Ziyad, H. J., Jiad, D. K., Al Qusous, L. R., Ababneh, A. J., & Ajarmeh, S. (2023). Pattern of use and awareness of side-effects of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs in the Jordanian population. Annals of medicine, 55(2), 2242248. https://doi.org/10.1080/07853890.2023.2242248
- 17. Forget P, Wittebole X, Laterre PF. Therapeutic dose of acetaminophen may induce fulminant

- hepatitis in the presence of risk factors: a report of two cases. Br J Anaesth. 2009 Dec;103(6):899-900. doi: 10.1093/bja/aep322. PMID: 19918026.
- 18. Gnjidic D, Blyth FM, Le Couteur DG, Cumming RG, McLachlan AJ, Handelsman DJ, et al. (2014). Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) in older people: prescribing patterns according to pain prevalence and adherence to clinical guidelines. Pain, 155: 1814-1820.
- 19. Gómez-Acebo, I., Dierssen-Sotos, T., de Pedro, M., Pérez-Gómez, В., Castaño-Vinyals, Fernández-Villa, T., Palazuelos-Calderón, C., Amiano, P., Etxeberria, J., Benavente, Fernández-Tardón, G., Salcedo-Bellido, I., Capelo, R., Peiró, R., Marcos-Gragera, R., Huerta, J. M., Tardón, A., Barricarte, A., Altzibar, J. M., Alonso-Molero, J.,... Llorca, J. (2018). Epidemiology of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory consumption in Spain. The MCC-Spain study. BMC Public 18(1), Health, 1134. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-018-6019-z
- 20. Harirforoosh S, Asghar W, Jamali F. Adverse effects of nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs: an update of gastrointestinal, cardiovascular and renal complications. J Pharm Pharm Sci. 2013;16(5):821-47.
- Haroutiunian, S., Drennan, D. & Lipman, A. (2010). Topical NSAID Therapy for Musculoskeletal Pain Pain Medicine, 11 (4), 535-549 DOI: 10.1111/j.1526-4637.2010.00809.x
- 22. International Association for the Study of Pain (1994). Part III: Pain terms: A current list with definitions and notes on usage. In Merskey &Bogduk (Eds.), Classification of chronic pain (2nd ed., pp. 209–214). Seattle, WA: IASP Press.
- 23. International Association for the Study of Pain. (2019). IASP terminology.
- 24. Jamiu, M.O., Giwa, A. & Abu-Saeed, K. (2017). Assessment of Pattern of Non- steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs (NSAIDs) Use Among Residents of A North Central Nigerian City. Trop. J. Health Sci. 24, 1-4-4.
- 25. Lee, S.H., Han, C.D., Yang, I.H. & Ha, C.W. (2011). Prescription pattern of NSAIDs and the prevalence of NSAID-induced gastrointestinal risk factors of Orthopaedic patients in clinical practice in Korea. J. Korean Med. Sci. 26: 561–567. https://doi.org/10.3346/jkms.26.4.561.
- 26. Malec M, Shega JW (2015). Pain management in the elderly. Med Clin North Am, 99: 337-350.
- 27. Massey, T., Derry, S., Moore, R.A. & McQuay, H.J. (2010). Topical NSAIDs for acute pain in adults. Cochrane database of systematic reviews (Online) (6) PMID: 20556778. Massó, E.L, Patrignani, P., Tacconelli, S. & García, L.A. (2010).Variability among nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs in riskof gastrointestinal bleeding. Arthritis

- 62(6):1592–1601.
- 28. Masuku, K. P., Mophosho, M., & Tshabalala, M. (2018). 'I felt pain. Deep pain...': Experiences of primary caregivers of stroke survivors with aphasia in a South African township. African Journal of Disability, 7. 1-7. DOI: 10.4102/job.v7i0.368
- 29. McGettigan, P. and Henry, D. (2013). Use of Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs That Elevate Cardiovascular Risk: An Examination of Sales and Essential Medicines Lists in Low-, Middle-, and High-Income Countries. PLOS Medicine | www.plosmedicine.org. | Volume 10 | Issue 2 | e1001388.
- 30. McGettigan, P. and Henry, D. (2013). Use of Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs That Elevate Cardiovascular Risk: An Examination of Sales and Essential Medicines Lists in Low-, Middle-, and High-Income Countries. PLOS Medicine | www.plosmedicine.org. | Volume 10 | Issue 2 | e100138.
- 31. Meara AS, Simon LS (2013). Advice from professional societies: appropriate use of NSAIDs. Pain Med, 14 Suppl 1: S3-10.
- 32. Medlock, S., Eslami, S., Askari, M., Taherzadeh, Z., Opondo, D., de Rooij, S.E. et al., (2013). Coprescription of Gastroprotective Agents and Their Efficacy in Elderly Patients Taking Nonsteroidal Anti-inflammatory Drugs: A Systematic Review of Observational Studies. Clin. Gastroenterol. 11: Hepatol. 1259 -1269.e10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cgh.2013.05.034
- 33. Merskey, H., & Bogduk, N. (1994). Classification of chronic pain: Descriptions of chronic pain syndromes and definitions of pain terms. Seattle, WA: IASP Press.
- 34. National Institute of Health. (2020). Pain relievers.
- 35. Nunes, A, P. Costa, I. M & Costa F.A (2016). Determinants of self-medication with NSAIDs in a Portuguese community pharmacy. Pharm Pract (Granada). 2016 Jan- Mar; 14(1): 648.
- 36. Owonaro A P, Eniojukan F J, Owonaro AE. Prevalence of use of Pain relievers in a Hospital in Bayelsa State, South-South of Nigeria. Ortho & Rheum Open Access 2017;7(4): 555719. DOI: 10.19080/OROAJ.2017.07.555719
- 37. Oyler DR, Parli SE, Bernard AC, Chang PK, Procter LD, Harned ME. Nonopioid management of acute pain associated with trauma: Focus on pharmacologic options. J Trauma Acute Care Surg. 2015 Sep;79(3):475-83.
- 38. Pelletier, J.P., Martel-Pelletier, J., Rannou, F. & Cooper, C. (2016). Efficacy and safety of oral NSAIDs and analgesics in the management of osteoarthritis: Evidence from real-life setting trials and surveys. Semin. Arthritis Rheum. 45, S22-

- S27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.semarthrit.2015.11.0
- 39. Pelletier, J.P., Martel-Pelletier, J., Rannou, F. & Cooper, C. (2016). Efficacy and safety of oral NSAIDs and analgesics in the management of osteoarthritis: Evidence from real-life setting trials and surveys. Semin. Arthritis Rheum. 45, S27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.semarthrit.2015.11.0
 - 09.
- 40. Peloso PM. Strategies and practice for the use of nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs. Scand J Rheumatol Suppl. 1996; 105:29-43; discussion 44-10.3109/03009749609097233. 8792808.
- 41. Phillips WJ, Currier BL. Analgesic pharmacology: II. Specific analgesics. J Am Acad Orthop Surg. 2004 Jul-Aug;12(4):221-33.
- 42. R Vaishnavi PR, Gaikwad N, Dhaneria SP. Assessment of nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug use pattern using World Health Organization indicators: A cross-sectional study in a tertiary care teaching hospital of Chhattisgarh. Indian J Pharmacol. 2017 Nov-Dec;49(6):445-450. doi: 10.4103/ijp.IJP 189 17. PMID: 29674799; PMCID: PMC5892026.
- 43. Raja, S. N., Carr, D. B., Cohen, M., Finnerup, N. B., Flor, H., Gibson, S., Keefe, F. J., Mogul, J. S., Ringkamp, M., Sluka, K. A., Song, X. J., Stevens, B., Sullivan, M. D., Tutelman, P. R., Ushida, T., & Vader, K. (2020). The revised International Association for the Study of Pain definition of pain: concepts, challenges, and compromises. Pain, 161(9), 1976 -1982. https://doi.org/10.1097/j.pain.000000000000 1939
- 44. Roshi, D., Toçi, E., Burazeri, G., Schröder-Bäck, P., Malaj, L. & Brand, H. (2017). Users" Knowledge About Adverse Effects of Non-steroidal Anti-inflammatory Drugs in Tirana, Albania. Mater Sociomed 29. 138 - 142.ttps://doi.org/10.5455/msm.2017.29.138-142.
- 45. Sanya, E.O., Kolo, P.M. & Makusidi, M.A. (2014). A survey on doctors" knowledge and attitude of treating chronic pain in three tertiary hospitals in Nigeria. Nigerian Medical Journal 106. https://doi.org/10.4103/0300-1652.129635.
- 46. Scarpignato, C., Lanas, A., Blandizzi, C., Lems, W.F., Hermann, M. & Hunt, R.H. (2015). Safe prescribing of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs in patients with osteoarthritis - an expert consensus addressing benefits as well gastrointestinal and cardiovascular risks. BMC Med. 13. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12916-015-0285-
- 47. Schafer AI. Effects of nonsteroidal inflammatory therapy on platelets. Am J Med. 1999 May 31;106(5B):25S-36S.

- 48. Shekelle PG, Newberry SJ, FitzGerald JD, Motala A, O'Hanlon CE, Tariq A, Okunogbe A, Han D, Shanman R. Management of Gout: A Systematic Review in Support of an American College of Physicians Clinical Practice Guideline. Ann Intern Med. 2017 Jan 03;166(1):37-51.
- 49. Sostres C, Gargallo CJ, Arroyo MT, Lanas A. Adverse effects of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs, aspirin and coxibs) on upper gastrointestinal tract. Best Pract Res Clin Gastroenterol. 2010 Apr;24(2):121-32.
- 50. Sriuttha P, Sirichanchuen B, Permsuwan U. Hepatotoxicity of Nonsteroidal Anti- Anti-Inflammatory Drugs: A Systematic Review of Randomized Controlled Trials. Int J Hepatol. 2018;2018;5253623.
- 51. Szczeklik A. Adverse reactions to aspirin and nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs. Ann Allergy. 1987 Nov;59(5 Pt 2):113-8.
- 52. Taylor, S. E. (2008). Health psychology (7th ed.). Boston: McGraw Hill.
- 53. Tscholl, P. M., Vaso, M., Weber, A., & Dvorak, J. (2015). High prevalence of medication use in professional football tournaments including the World Cups between 2002 and 2014: a narrative review with a focus on NSAIDs. British journal of sports medicine, 49(9), 580–582. https://doi.org/10.1136/bjsports-2015-094784
- 54. Ungprasert P, Cheungpasitporn W, Crowson CS, Matteson EL (2015). Individual non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and risk of acute kidney injury: A systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies. Eur J Intern Med, 26: 285-291.
- 55. Ussai S, Miceli L, Pisa FE, Bednarova R, Giordano A, Della Rocca G, et al. (2015). Impact of potential inappropriate NSAIDs use in chronic pain. Drug Des Devel Ther, 9: 2073-2077.
- 56. Vane JR. Inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis as a mechanism of action for aspirin-like drugs. Nat New Biol. 1971 Jun 23;231(25):232-5.
- 57. Wöhrl, S. (2018). NSAID hypersensitivity recommendations for diagnostic workup and patient management. Allergo Journal International volume 27: 114–121.
- 58. Wongrakpanich, S., Wongrakpanich, A., Melhado, K. & Rangaswami, J. (2018). A Comprehensive Review of Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drug Use in The Elderly. Aging Dis. 9, 143-150. https://doi.org/10.14336/AD.2017.0306.
- 59. Woolf C. J. (2010). What is this thing called pain? The Journal of Clinical Investigation, 120(11), 3742–3744. https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI45178
- 60. Zacher J, Altman R, Bellamy N, Brühlmann P, Da Silva J, Huskisson E, Taylor RS. Topical diclofenac and its role in pain and inflammation: an evidence-based review. Curr Med Res Opin. 2008 Apr; 24(4): 925-50.



Assets of Publishing with us

- Global archiving of articles
- Immediate, unrestricted online access
- Rigorous Peer Review Process
- Authors Retain Copyrights
- Unique DOI for all articles

https://wjims.com/