## Leila Chikha 1\*, Adel Ziadi 2

<sup>1</sup> LEEM Research Laboratory, Faculty of Economics, University of Batna1 (Algeria),

leila.chikha@univ-batna.dz

<sup>2</sup> LEMAC Research Laboratory, Faculty of Economics, University of Setif1 (Algeria),

ziadi.adel@univ-setif.dz

Received: 11-04-2022

#### 1eceivea: 11-04-2022

Abstract
Studying access to medicines dimensions is crucial in helping policy makers to take suitable measures that ensure equitable access for citizens. The present paper aims to define the determinants that shape Algerian people's perceptions about access to medicines during Covid-19 pandemic. Data were collected via a questionnaire and Microsoft Excel software was used to code, present and analyze data.

The results revealed that 68.75% of participants reported they had access to requested medicines and 31.25% think they had not. Respondents were interested in the type of medicines followed by the time factor, the price, the origin of the drugs, and the location of pharmacies respectively. 50% affirmed that their perceptions are the same during and out of Covid-19 period. The geographic dimension determinants were the most significant. Surprisingly, the financial dimension determinants were not important at all. The result is due to the effect of a third-party payment system.

Accepted: 16-05-2022

Volume: 12 / N°: 01 (2022)

#### **Keywords:**

Access to Medicines:

Access Determinants;

Covid-19:

Pandemic:

People's Perceptions.

**JEL Classification Codes:** L65: H51: I13:

I18: P46

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

The world health organization estimates that more than one-third of world's population lacks regular access to needed medicines; they generally belong to developing countries. In these countries, 83.5% of children's death, under five years old, is due to the lack of access to essential drugs (Timmermans & Hutadjulu, 2000). By 2017, there were 2 billion people around the world with lack of access to essential medicines (CHAN, 2017).

Lack of access has many facets: it is a concern in developed and developing countries (Abbas, Hasan, Curley, & Babar, 2020; Vella & Wilson, 2017); and it matters for rural and urban areas (Ooms, Klatser, van den Ham, & Reed, 2019). In another hand, having similar health systems doesn't necessary mean the same level of access (Aaltonen, Ragupathy, Tordoff, Reith, & Norris, 2010); and having different health systems can lead to some access similarities (Babar, Gammie, Seyfoddin, Hasan, & Curley, 2019). Those ambiguities make access to medicines' definition, determinants, and dimensions still unclear, knowing that some research included irrelevant dimensions like accommodation (Roy Penchansky, 1977, 2000; R. Penchansky & Thomas, 1981). For them access to medicines' and access to healthcare services' dimensions are the same. Paniz, Fassa, Maia, Domingues, and Bertoldi (2010) denied the validity of this idea.

The most complete workshop about defining and measuring access to medicines was the workshop of the WHO-MSH that took place in Ferney-Voltaire, France in 2000; it concluded that access to medicines is constituted of five dimensions: availability, accessibility, affordability, acceptability, and quality as a crosscutting dimension (Roy Penchansky, 2000). Another key

work was of R. Penchansky and Thomas (1981) who replaced quality by accommodation. The overwhelming majority of papers focused only on two dimensions at most; mainly availability, affordability or both (Odoch, Dambisya, Peacocke, Sandberg, & Hembre, 2021; Paniz et al., 2010; Perehudoff, 2020; Petrou & Vandoros, 2016; Rockers et al., 2019). Emphasizing two dimensions creates the illusion that the others are less important or immeasurable. Some works gave special importance to geographical access (Tharumia Jagadeesan & Wirtz, 2021). Garcia et al. (2019) and Rizk, Elkholy, Barakat, Elsayed, and Abd El Fatah (2021) was the only works that took in consideration all the dimensions described by Penchansky and Thomas.

In some papers, studying access to medicines refers to studying only the dimensions as abstract concepts (Ooms et al., 2019), while some research went beyond and discussed access using specific indicators, factors, or determinants without referring them to any access dimension. In fact, all access to medicines' dimensions are important to achieve full access (Garcia et al., 2019; Liberman, 2011) however, we do not know if determinants and indicators that constitute the dimensions are all important as well. The present paper discusses the importance of some determinants related to the three common access dimensions between WHO-MSH workshop and R. Penchansky and Thomas (1981) paper. The accommodation dimension is excluded because it's proper to healthcare service access. Quality is not addressed because it is not an independent dimension in the WHO-MSH work. The exclusion of availability will be also justified later in the coming paragraphs.

The aim of the present paper is to find answers to the following questions: According to the people's perceptions, are all

determinants important to shape access or non-access to medicines? amongst the important determinants, how do people rank them? for every single determinant, what are the limits adopted to make difference between access and non-access? are access/non-access to medicines determinants the same during pandemics and under normal circumstances?

#### 2. Method

In this paper, "medicines" refers to pharmaceutical and parapharmaceutical products. Data were gathered using an unrestricted self-selected survey approach according to Couper (2000). A questionnaire (Arabic/French), was distributed via LinkedIn and 543-Algerian Facebook groups. This approach was the most suitable to contact respondents because of the confinement forced by high authorities to prevent the spreading of Covid-19 and the absence of an official consumer database that enable researchers to conduct probabilistic surveys. Data were collected from 4/12/2020 to 12/22/2020. Microsoft Excel was used to code, present and analyze data.

In the first section, the respondents were asked to provide information about the nature of their income, their individual monthly income (IMI), family monthly income (FMI) and the medicines they looked for during covid-19 pandemic. They constitute the main groups of medicines for non-chronic diseases widely consumed in Algeria (ZIANI & BRAHAMIA, 2016) and preventive products promoted through the official campaign. The respondents should tell us either they think that they had access or not to the medicines they looked for during Covid-19 pandemic. According to the responses, they were oriented to section 2 or 3. They had to express/justify their perceptions regarding access or

non-access by selecting *Yes* or *No* for all listed access to medicines determinants using the suitable formulation as showed in Table 1.

**Table 1.** Selected items formulation in case of access or non-access to medicines

**Main Question**: Do you think that you obtained the needed drugs during Covid-19 pandemic?

| Response = Yes  From the following elements, what are the reasons that made you think that you got the needed drugs? |  | Response                   | = No   |     |    |
|--|--|----------------------------|--|-----|----|
|  |  |                            |  |     |    |
|  | Yes No   |                            |  | Yes | No |
| Item 3:  | The family income enabled me to buy the needed drugs                               | <b>en</b><br>bu            | ne family come <b>did not able</b> me to my the needed ugs                     |     |    |
| Item<br>8:   | The drugs I needed were available in the wilayat where I live                      | 8: ne <b>no</b> in         | ne drugs I seeded were ot available the wilayat here I live                    |     |    |
| Item<br>14:  | The drugs provided by pharmacies were imported or produced in a foreign laboratory | ph<br>ww<br>in<br>no<br>in | ne drugs ovided by narmacies ere not nported or ot produced a foreign boratory |     |    |

**Source:** By authors from the questionnaire

The Last section was about the habits and preferences to purchase medicines (ie: payment modalities, generic medicines' preferences). Some determinants are eligible to be converted into indicators by analyzing the responses to 6 additional questions.

To get the global rank of the items that influence the respondents' perceptions, for each item, the sum of all responses was calculated after replacing them by a descendant weight. For example, the weight of rank 1 is 5 and the weight of rank 5 is 1.

#### 3. Results

304 responses were received with no missing data, because all questions were automatically controlled to be mandatory. The number of observations is enough because descriptive studies emphasize on the number of respondents rather than the population representation (Couper, 2000) like the survey conducted by Rizk et al. (2021).

**Table 2.** Summary of respondent's demographics (N = 304)

| Gender | n (%)       |
|--------|-------------|
| Female | 190 (62.5)  |
| Male   | 114 (37.5)  |
| Age    | n (%)       |
| 18- 35 | 139 (55.59) |
| 36-45  | 96 (31.58)  |
| 46-55  | 30 (9.87)   |
| 56-65  | 7 (2.30)    |
| > 65   | 2 (0.66)    |

**Source:** By authors from the software

Table 3. Respondents' economic status

| Income Type   | n (%)       |  |  |
|---|-------------|--|--|
| Daily   | 7 (2.30)    |  |  |
| Weekly  | 3 (0.99)    |  |  |
| Monthly (wage, grant, pension)  | 200 (65.79) |  |  |
| Open (handicraft, shop, project,)   | 14 (4.61)   |  |  |
| No income   | 80 (26.32)  |  |  |
| IMI compared to the NGBW  | n (%)       |  |  |
| IMI < 1 (to be selected even there is no                                  | 102 (33.55) |  |  |
| individual income)  |             |  |  |
| $1 \leq IMI \leq 2$   | 66 (21.71)  |  |  |
| $2 < IMI \le 3$   | 53 (17.43)  |  |  |
| $3 < IMI \le 4$   | 12.17       |  |  |
| $4 < IMI \le 5$   | 17 (5.59)   |  |  |
| $5 < IMI \le 6$   | 10 (3.29)   |  |  |
| IMI > 6   | 19 (6.25)   |  |  |
| FMI compared to the NGBW  | n (%)       |  |  |
| FMI < 1   | 36 (11.84)  |  |  |
| $1 < \text{FMI} \le 2$  | 68 (22.37)  |  |  |
| $2 < \text{FMI} \le 3$  | 63 (20.72)  |  |  |
| $3 < \text{FMI} \le 4$  | 39 (12.83)  |  |  |
| $4 < \text{FMI} \le 5$  | 27 (8.88)   |  |  |
| $5 < \text{FMI} \le 6$  | 21 (6.91)   |  |  |
| FMI > 6   | 50 (16.45)  |  |  |
| <b>FMI</b> = Family Monthly Income <b>NGBW</b> = National Guaranteed Base |             |  |  |

**Source:** By authors from the software

Wage **IMI** = Individual Monthly Income

The majority of respondents [Table 2] where females (62.5%) and aged under 56 years old (97.04%). The revenue status was assessed using three items (Table 3). 65.79% receive a monthly income. Whatever the income type, the majority (33.55%) receives an IMI less than the national guaranteed base wage (NGBW) at the time of the research, followed by those who receive a monthly income between one-time and two-times the NGBW (21.71%). The group of people with an FMI between one-time to three-times the NGBW was predominant (43.09%). During the survey period, the respondents reported they, mostly, looked for Antiseptics, Analgesics and Alcohol respectively. Anti-

diarrhea medicines were the less requested (Table 4). 68.75% reported they had access to the medicines requested during the pandemic and 31.25% think they had not.

**Table 4.** Requested medicines during Covid-19 pandemic

| Medicines                 | Yes (%)     | No (%)      |
|---------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Antiseptics               | 249 (81.91) | 55 (18.09)  |
| analgesics/pain relievers | 177 (58.22) | 127 (41.78) |
| Alcohol                   | 177 (58.22) | 127 (41.78) |
| Vitamins                  | 140 (46.05) | 164 (53.95) |
| Anti-flu                  | 105 (34.54) | 199 (65.46) |
| Antipyretic               | 96 (31.58)  | 208 (68.42) |
| Antibiotics               | 83 (27.3)   | 221 (72.7)  |
| Anti-inflammatory         | 70 (23.03)  | 234 (76.97) |
| Anti-diarrhea             | 41 (13.49)  | 263 (86.51) |

**Source:** By authors from the software

## 3.1. Importance and ranking of access to medicines' determinants

To assess whether every determinant is important or not, determinants of access and non-access are treated as the same. For example, when a respondent says that he had access to medicines and chooses *Yes* for Item 8 (Table 1), and another respondent chooses *Yes* for the same Item when he says that he had not access, it means that item 8 is important in both cases.

Results revealed that all financial purposes did not influence the respondents' perceptions regarding access to medicines, including the medicines prices, individual income, family income, the possibility of getting medicines for free, being covered by health insurance and compensable medicines. The other unimportant items were availability of generic drugs and imported or produced by a foreign laboratory drugs (Table 5).

Respondents reported that their perceptions were influenced by geographical reasons including the availability of drugs in the street where do they live, in the *wilayat*, and at most in Algeria. The time factor, availability of genuine drugs and medicines produced by a national laboratory constituted also important (Table 5).

Regardless the importance of the determinant, respondents argue that the type of medicines is the most important factor (1113 points score) followed by the time spent to look for medicines (1029 points), the medicines' price (866 points) and the medicines' origin (782 points). The location of the pharmacy was the less important (770 points).

# **3.2.** Limits to differentiate between access and non-access *The time factor limits*

Regardless of getting access or not, the majority of respondents (45.72%) think that medicines are considered as not accessed when they look for them for over three days. They constitute: 51.58% of those who did not get access, 45.97% of those who said that the time factor is important and 45.16% of those who considered time as not important. Hence, the standard of getting access is 3 days. Beyond that limit, medicines are not accessed.

#### The location factor limits

Respondents (45.72%) declared that there are less than three neighborhood pharmacies and they usually use transportation to get medicines from two pharmacies at most (50%). Both responses were predominant for those who think they get access (44.98%, 51.2%) or those who think they didn't get access (47.37%, 47.37%), those who think the location of pharmacies is important (42.26%, 52.57%), or those who don't care about the location (50.39%, 46.51%). The combination between the number of neighborhood pharmacies and those reached by transportation expressed in the responses, whatever the perception regarding access, means that the standard of access is three neighborhood pharmacies; under that number is a sign of non-access.

#### The preference/acceptance limits

Respondents prefer genuine medicines (80%). People who think they got access thanks to the availability of genuine medicines in pharmacies, affirmed their perceptions by selecting genuine medicines when they were asked to specify which type do they prefer (80.17%). Also people who think they suffered from non-access because of unavailability of genuine medicines, affirmed their perceptions by declaring that they prefer genuine medicines (78.95%). Surprisingly, both categories responded that they prefer genuine drugs too (82.14% and 71.43% respectively). Therefore, it's hard to discern the threshold between access and non-access concerning the type of drugs.

## The financial factor limits

Most respondents who think they had access and they rely on their IMI (26.79%), they earn a monthly income less than three-

times the NGBW. The FMI of the majority who had access and rely on the family income (41.07%) is limited between one and three-times the NGBW. If we take into consideration also those who think they didn't get access, the pervious percentages rise to 27.48% and 41.40% respectively. It can be argued that access cannot be achieved unless the IMI or the FMI is at least equal to the NGBW.

# 3.3. Determinants' validity during Covid-19 pandemic and out of pandemic period

The participants were asked to specify whether the determinants, on which they based their perceptions, are the same out of pandemics period. The respondents who felt getting access affirmed that the financial determinants (76.44%),geographical determinants (71.63%), the time ones (68.27%), the type of medicines (74.64%), and their origins (77.40%) are the same during and before the pandemic, whereas the respondents who lacked access said that all determinants were different during covid-19 compared to the period before the pandemic. But when we combine the responses of both groups, it appears that all determinants are the same during and before covid-19 with a percentage over than 50%.

**Table 5-a.** Important determinants influencing access to medicines' perceptions (number of answers for participants who think they had access to medicines)

**Question**: Do you think that you obtained the needed drugs during Covid-19 pandemic? (Yes)

| Corra 15 paracrime. (168)   |     |   |    |  |
|---|-----|---|----|--|
| Item 1/Section 2: The drugs were cheap                                    |     | Item 8/Section 2: The drugs I needed were available in the Wilayat where I live |    |  |
| Yes   | No  | Yes   | No |  |
| 49  | 160 | 195   | 14 |  |
| Item 2/Section 2: My individual income enabled me to buy the needed drugs |     | Item 9/Section 2: The drugs I needed were available in Algeria                  |    |  |
| Yes   | No  | Yes (n)   | No |  |
| 112   | 97  | 190   | 19 |  |
| Item 3/Section 2: The family income enabled me to buy the drugs           |     | Item 10/Section 2: I did not spend a lot of time looking for the drugs          |    |  |
| Yes   | No  | Yes   | No |  |
| 118   | 91  | 172   | 37 |  |
| Item 4/Section 2: I could get drugs for free                              |     | Item 11/Section I purchased we  | _  |  |
| Yes   | No  | Yes   | No |  |
| 8   | 201 | 116   | 93 |  |

| Item 5/Section 2: I am covered by health insurance   |     | Item 12/Section 2: The drugs I purchased were generic                                      |   |
|--|-----|--|---|
| Yes  | No  | Yes  | No  |
| 133  | 76  | 112  | 97  |
| Item 6/Section 2: Most of the drugs I needed are compensating  |     | Item 13/Section 2: The drugs provided by pharmacies were produced in a national laboratory |   |
| Yes  | No  | Yes  | No  |
| 60   | 149 | 174  | 35  |
| Item 7/Section 2: The drugs I needed were available in a pharmacy close to my residence (street or the neighborhood) |     | provided by pl   | on 2: The drugs harmacies were produced by a tory |
| Yes  | No  | Yes  | No  |
| 148  | 61  | 90   | 119   |

**Table 5-b.** Important determinants influencing access to medicines' perceptions (number of answers for participants who think they had not access to medicines)

**Question**: Do you think that you obtained the needed drugs during Covid-19 pandemic? (No)

| •   | , ,                  |   |   |
|---|----------------------|---|---|
| Item 1/Section 3: The drugs were expensive  |                      | Item 8/Section 3: The drugs I needed were not available in the Wilayat where I live |   |
| Yes   | No                   | Yes   | No  |
| 33  | 62                   | 21  | 74  |
| Item 2/Section 3: My individual income did not enable me to purchase the needed drugs |                      | Item 9/Section 3: The drugs I needed were not available in Algeria                  |   |
| Yes   | No                   | Yes   | No  |
| 19  | 76                   | 16  | 79  |
| Item 3/Section 3: The family income did not enable me to buy the needed drugs         |                      | <b>Item 10/Section 3</b> : I spent a lot of time looking for the drugs              |   |
| Yes   | No                   | Yes   | No  |
| 19  | 76                   | 39  | 56  |
| Item 4/Section drugs for free   | n 3: I could not get |   | Section 3: The drugs I d were not genuine |
| Yes   | No                   | Yes   | No  |
| 24  | 71                   | 38  | 57  |

| Item 5/Section 3: I do not benefit from health insurance   |    | Item 12/Section 3: The drugs I purchased were not generic   |    |
|--|----|---|----|
| Yes  | No | Yes   | No |
| 17   | 78 | 38  | 57 |
| Item 6/Section 3: Most of the needed drugs were not compensating   |    | Item 13/Section 3: The drugs provided by pharmacies were not produced in a national laboratory                    |    |
| Yes  | No | Yes   | No |
| 34   | 61 | 24  | 71 |
| Item 7/Section 3: The drugs I needed were not available in a pharmacy close to my residence (street or the neighborhood) |    | <b>Item 14/Section 3</b> : The drugs provided by pharmacies were not imported or produced by a foreign laboratory |    |
| Yes  | No | Yes   | No |
| 27   | 68 | 26  | 69 |

**Source:** By authors from the software

#### 4. Discussion

Contrary to Garcia et al. (2019), the results showed that not all determinants are important for Algerians. Unlike Rizk et al. (2021) ENREF 22 ENREF 22 and Rockers et al. (2019), the financial aspect didn't influence Algerians' perceptions regarding access. It's the same result issued by Kamphuis and Kanavos (2021). This can be explained by the Algerian health system based on the third-party payment, via *chifa* card, where the patient pays cash the 20% not covered by health insurance (ZIANI & BRAHAMIA, 2016).

This argument is supported by more than 60% of those who had access or not and were not interested in the financial aspect. The importance of the third-party payment system was revealed by Husnain et al. (2019) but it doesn't meet the results of Vogler et al. (2017). The power of the third-party payment explains the lack of importance of the IMI and FMI in the financial aspect whereas an early study revealed that FMI is an important factor in medicines demand in Algeria (Oufriha, 1990).

The attitude of the participants towards the financial determinants related to health insurance contradicts the results of Garcia et al. (2019) and Morgan, McMahon, and Greyson (2008). It's due to the nature of requested medicines listed in the questionnaire. They are generally inexpensive compared to chronic diseases' medicines, and they are almost compensating drugs at 80%. Among the first three most requested kinds, there are Antiseptics and Alcohol. They are Para-pharmaceutical products and are not expensive. Moreover, Algerian authorities adopted a pricing policy which makes medicines prices under control for imported and national medicines (Kamphuis & Kanavos, 2021) according to the Article N°5 of the executive decree N°20-272 (Journal, 2020a) ENREF 85.

Cheap generic drugs were not important contrary to many papers (Husnain et al., 2019; Liberman, 2011). Firstly, because the respondents do not care about the price (Table 5). Secondly, Algerian people prefer naturally genuine (Table 5) and imported drugs (Chikha & Kahia, 2020). The paradox, is that imported drugs also were not of interest by respondents contrary to Chikha and Kahia (2020). May be it happens, firstly, because people were influenced by the general atmosphere of fear that there will be a

drugs shortage in neighborhood pharmacies and may be throughout the country. In fact, many countries have already banned export of protective equipment or medicines related to COVID-19 (Kohler & Mackey, 2020). Therefore, Algerian people were interested in getting drugs whatever the type and the origin, especially after the cancelation of all international flights early in the beginning of the pandemic and the restrictions of public transportation. This argument is supported by the importance given by the respondents to medicines produced by national laboratories. Secondly, genuine drugs, even though preferred, are likely to be primordial for some consumers only in case of serious health disorders like heart problem and blood pressure as argued ENREF 35 ENREF 35 ENREF 48Husnain a1. et. the listed medicines in (2019) ENREF 35, whereas the questionnaire are related to less risky diseases.

For this study, the standards/limits of people's preferences regarding genuine and generic drugs was unclear contrary to the results of Lakhdar (2018). But what is certain is that Algerian people prefer genuine drugs as reported in the results. Unfortunately, they are obliged to purchase generic drugs for two reasons. First, because generic substances dominate 77.7% of the medicines nomenclature (Keddad, 2020). Second, because of the restrictions implemented on pharmaceutical imports. The new pharmaceutical industry policy promotes the domestic production of imported medicines substitutes (Kamphuis & Kanavos, 2021). of the decree N°20-272 confirms 4 pharmaceuticals import programs must be directed to complement the national industry (Journal, 2020a). ENREF 85 During Covid-19, the authorities allowed an exceptional import only for pharmaceutical products used to fight the virus (Journal, 2020b).

In another hand, this restrictive policy on imports risks failing to change the preferences of Algerians. It is proved by the first rank given to the type of medicines when respondents expressed the importance of this suggested determinant amongst the others. Another proof appears by deeply analyzing the income status. The majority of respondents who reported they prefer genuine drugs are people who earn an IMI less than the NGBW (29.22%) followed by those who earn one or two times the NGBW (23.04%). According to that, it is worth to take into account the consumer preferences regarding generic and genuine medicines when studying access to medicines instead of focusing only on the financial aspect in future research.

We preferred to use NGBW as a standard of measurement instead MPR adopted by the WHO as did Rockers et al. (2019) and Yang et al. (2020) because NGBW remains suitable to measure access since it presents the threshold that distinguish the most vulnerable segment of society. The standard/limit of at least one time NGBW concluded by the study seams low, but it is realistic and sufficient because the medicines listed in the questionnaire were not expensive compared to chronic disease medicines. Even in the opened question about requested medicines, only 7% said they looked for chronic disease medicines during the pandemic.

The determinants that shape people's perceptions regarding access were the same before and during Covid-19 at more than 50%. First, because the medicines included in the study are usually used and are naturally available in every house, as responded two participants, and they belong, generally, to overthe-counter medicines; Second, the treatment of Covid-19 was not available in the pharmacies, so its demand was entirely absent at

the date of the survey, and the patients continued to look for the medicines they usually request. The chloroquine, domestically produced, was the treatment adopted by the Algerian health authorities. Since then, its supply has been banned in the pharmacies, otherwise, the demand would have increased dramatically. This argument is supported by responses for open questions.

The study encompasses a number of limitations related to the sample size that is not infallible from coverage error resulting from missing people without internet access. Online survey can be a limitation in ordinary circumstances, but during Covid-19 it constitutes the only solution to conduct the study due to the general confinement forced by high authorities. Couper (2000) stated that there is no pattern to predict the failure or the success of online surveys compared to other survey methods.

More access determinants must be included to better shape people's perceptions. We are aware that the results might be better clear if the research has been conducted for every group separately (ie: antibiotics, chronic disorders' medicines...) or if chronic disease medicines were included. The inclusion of more open questions would, surely, have clarified some disparities and ambiguities. Since the study was conducted during the first year of Covid-19, there is a need for a new survey to assess whether people's perceptions remain the same regarding determinants ranking and importance in the new circumstances characterized by the availability of the vaccine and the appearance of many new mutant strains of Covid-19.

Despite the limitations, the results remain valuable because, to our knowledge, it's the first survey conducted in Algeria about

a set of access to medicines' determinants englobed at once during a pandemic period. The findings provide important new insights that can be used to guide future works. The adopted method enables to track and check for within-country and withinprovinces access inequalities.

#### 5. Conclusion

The findings argue that the conception of a successful system that meets Algerian's perceptions regarding access to medicines must be based on the establishment of at least three pharmacies that do not require transportation, a waiting time does not exceed three days, and an IMI and an FMI of at least one time the NGBW. These standards are relevant with maintaining the third-party payment system and the availability of genuine medicines.

The concluded access limits are eligible to be used as indicators to measure access to medicines, named as follows: The number of neighborhood pharmacies, IMI and FMI compared to NBGW and the number of days spent to find drugs.

## 6. Bibliography List:

Aaltonen, K., Ragupathy, R., Tordoff, J., Reith, D., & Norris, P. (2010). The Impact of Pharmaceutical Cost Containment Policies on the Range of Medicines Available and Subsidized in Finland and New Zealand. Value in Health, 13(1), 148-156. doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1524-4733.2009.00598.x

Abbas, N., Hasan, S. S., Curley, L., & Babar, Z.-U.-D. (2020). Access to medicines - a systematic review of the literature. Research in Social and Administrative Pharmacy, 16(9), 1166-1176. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sapharm.2019.12.009

- Babar, Z.-U.-D., Gammie, T., Seyfoddin, A., Hasan, S. S., & Curley, L. E. (2019). Patient access to medicines in two countries with similar health systems and differing medicines policies: Implications from a comprehensive literature review. Research in Social and Administrative Pharmacy, 15(3), 231-243. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sapharm.2018.04.006
- CHAN, M. (2017). Access to medicines: making market forces serve the poor. In WHO (Ed.), Ten years in public health, 2007–2017: report by Dr Margaret Chan, Director-General, World Health Organization (pp. 13-24). Geneva: WHO.
- Chikha, L., & Kahia, A. C. (2020, March 1-2, 2020). "Description of the determinants of Access to Medicines Differences in the Customer's Perception, A comparative Study between Algeria and Jordan" Paper presented at the International Conference about Health and Health Systems in Developing Countries-Evidences and Perspectives-, Sousse, Tunisia.
- Couper, M. (2000). Web surveys: a review of issues and approaches. Public opinion quarterly, 64 4, 464-494.
- Garcia, M. M., Barbosa, M. M., Silva, R. M., Reis, E. A., Alvares, J., Assis Acurcio, F., . . . Guerra Junior, A. A. (2019). Indicator of access to medicines in relation to the multiple dimensions of access. J Comp Eff Res, 8(12), 1027-1041. doi:10.2217/cer-2019-0031
- Husnain, S. Z., Bukhari, N. I., Hussain, K., Babar, Z. U., Hashmi, F. K., Saleem, Z., . . . Curley, L. (2019). Cross verification of prescribing trends through loop evaluation of physicians, patients and medical store personnel. BMC health services research, 19(1), 328. doi:10.1186/s12913-019-4145-7
- Executive Decree Defining the Power of the Minister of Pharmaceutical Industry, 20-272 C.F.R. (2020a).
- Executive Decree on Exceptional Measures Facilitating National Market Procurement with Pharmaceutical Products, Medical Instruments, Screening Equipments to Fighting Covid-19 20-109 C.F.R. (2020b).

- Kamphuis, B. W., & Kanavos, P. (2021). Assessing pricing and reimbursement policies for generic pharmaceuticals in the MENA region for improved efficiency, affordability and generic penetration. Health Policy OPEN, 2, 100045. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hpopen.2021.100045
- Keddad, A. (2020) Bulletin du Pharmacien. In: Vol. 37 (pp. 2): Pharma Invest.
- Kohler, J. C., & Mackey, T. K. (2020). Why the COVID-19 pandemic should be a call for action to advance equitable access to medicines. BMC Medicine, 18(1), 193. doi:10.1186/s12916-020-01661-3
- Lakhdar, H. I. (2018). Le rôle du risque associe à l'achat des médicaments et des variables sociodémographiques dans l'acceptation des médicaments génériques. Revue de l'Université d'Oran 2, 3(1), 98-115.
- Liberman, J. (2011). Implications of international law for the treatment of cancer: The Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs and the TRIPS Agreement. Public Health, 125(12), 840-846. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.puhe.2011.09.032
- Morgan, S., McMahon, M., & Greyson, D. (2008). Balancing health and industrial policy objectives in the pharmaceutical sector: Lessons from Australia. Health Policy, 87(2), 133-145. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthpol.2008.01.003
- Odoch, W. D., Dambisya, Y., Peacocke, E., Sandberg, K. I., & Hembre, B. S. H. (2021). The role of government agencies and other actors in influencing access to medicines in three East African countries. Health Policy and Planning, 36(3), 312-321. doi:10.1093/heapol/czaa189
- Ooms, G. I., Klatser, P., van den Ham, H. A., & Reed, T. (2019).

  Barriers to Accessing Internationally Controlled Essential

  Medicines in Uganda: A Qualitative Study. Journal of Pain and

  Symptom Management.

  doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpainsymman.2019.07.002

- Oufriha, F. Z. (1990). Etude des déterminants de la consommation de produits pharmaceutiques à travers la deuxième enquête de consommation des ménages en Algérie. Cahiers du CREAD(22), 91-107.
- Paniz, V. M. V., Fassa, A. G., Maia, M. d. F. S., Domingues, M. R., & Bertoldi, A. D. (2010). Measuring access to medicines: a review of quantitative methods used in household surveys. BMC health services research, 10, 146-146. doi:10.1186/1472-6963-10-146
- Penchansky, R. (1977). The concept of access: A definition: National Health Planning Information Center.
- Penchansky, R. (2000). Defining and Measuring Access to Essential Drugs, Vaccines, and Health Commodities Report for WHO-MSH Consultative Meeting. Retrieved from Ferney-Voltaire, France:
- Penchansky, R., & Thomas, J. W. (1981). The concept of access: definition and relationship to consumer satisfaction. Med Care, 19(2), 127-140. doi:10.1097/00005650-198102000-00001
- Perehudoff, K. (2020). Universal access to essential medicines as part of the right to health: a cross-national comparison of national laws, medicines policies, and health system indicators. Global Health Action, 13(1), 1699342. doi:10.1080/16549716.2019.1699342
- Petrou, P., & Vandoros, S. (2016). Pharmaceutical price comparisons across the European Union and relative affordability in Cyprus. Health Policy and Technology, 5(4), 350-356. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hlpt.2016.07.009
- Rizk, H. I., Elkholy, M. M., Barakat, A. A., Elsayed, R. M. M., & Abd El Fatah, S. A. M. (2021). Perspectives of pharmaceutical stakeholders on determinants of medicines accessibility at the primary care level. J Egypt Public Health Assoc, 96(1), 1. doi:10.1186/s42506-020-00062-x
- Rockers, P. C., Laing, R. O., Ashigbie, P. G., Onyango, M. A., Mukiira, C. K., & Wirtz, V. J. (2019). Effect of Novartis Access on availability and price of non-communicable disease medicines in Kenya: a cluster-randomised controlled trial. The Lancet Global Health, 7(4), e492-e502. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X(18)30563-1

- Tharumia Jagadeesan, C., & Wirtz, V. J. (2021). Geographical accessibility of medicines: a systematic literature review of pharmacy mapping. Journal of Pharmaceutical Policy and Practice, 14(1). doi:10.1186/s40545-020-00291-7
- Timmermans, K., & Hutadjulu, T. (2000). The TRIPS Agreement and Pharmaceuticals. Retrieved from Jakarta, Indonesia: <a href="https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/206475/B0515.Pdf">https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/206475/B0515.Pdf</a> <a href="mailto:?sequence=1&isAllowed=y">?sequence=1&isAllowed=y</a>
- Vella, S., & Wilson, D. (2017). Access to medicines: lessons from the HIV response. The Lancet HIV, 4(4), e147-e149. doi:10.1016/s2352-3018(17)30052-8
- Vogler, S., Paris, V., Ferrario, A., Wirtz, V. J., de Joncheere, K., Schneider, P., . . . Babar, Z.-U.-D. (2017). How Can Pricing and Reimbursement Policies Improve Affordable Access to Medicines? Lessons Learned from European Countries. Applied Health Economics and Health Policy, 15(3), 307-321. doi:10.1007/s40258-016-0300-z
- Yang, C., Hu, S., Ye, D., Jiang, M., Babar, Z.-U.-D., & Fang, Y. (2020). Evaluating Price and Availability of Essential Medicines in China: A Mixed Cross-Sectional and Longitudinal Study. Frontiers in Pharmacology, 11(1781). doi:10.3389/fphar.2020.602421
- ZIANI, F., & BRAHAMIA, B. (2016). La consommation de médicaments en Algérie entre croissance, financement et maîtrise. Les cahiers du MECAS(13), 191-209.