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Practical Difficulties of Delivering Medicines Where Infrastructure Does Not Exist

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Presentation Outline

- 1. Background
- 2. Case studies on Afghanistan and Liberia
- 3. Pilots of last-mile distribution models and lessons learned
- 4. Effective interventions for improving availability of medicines, based on published studies



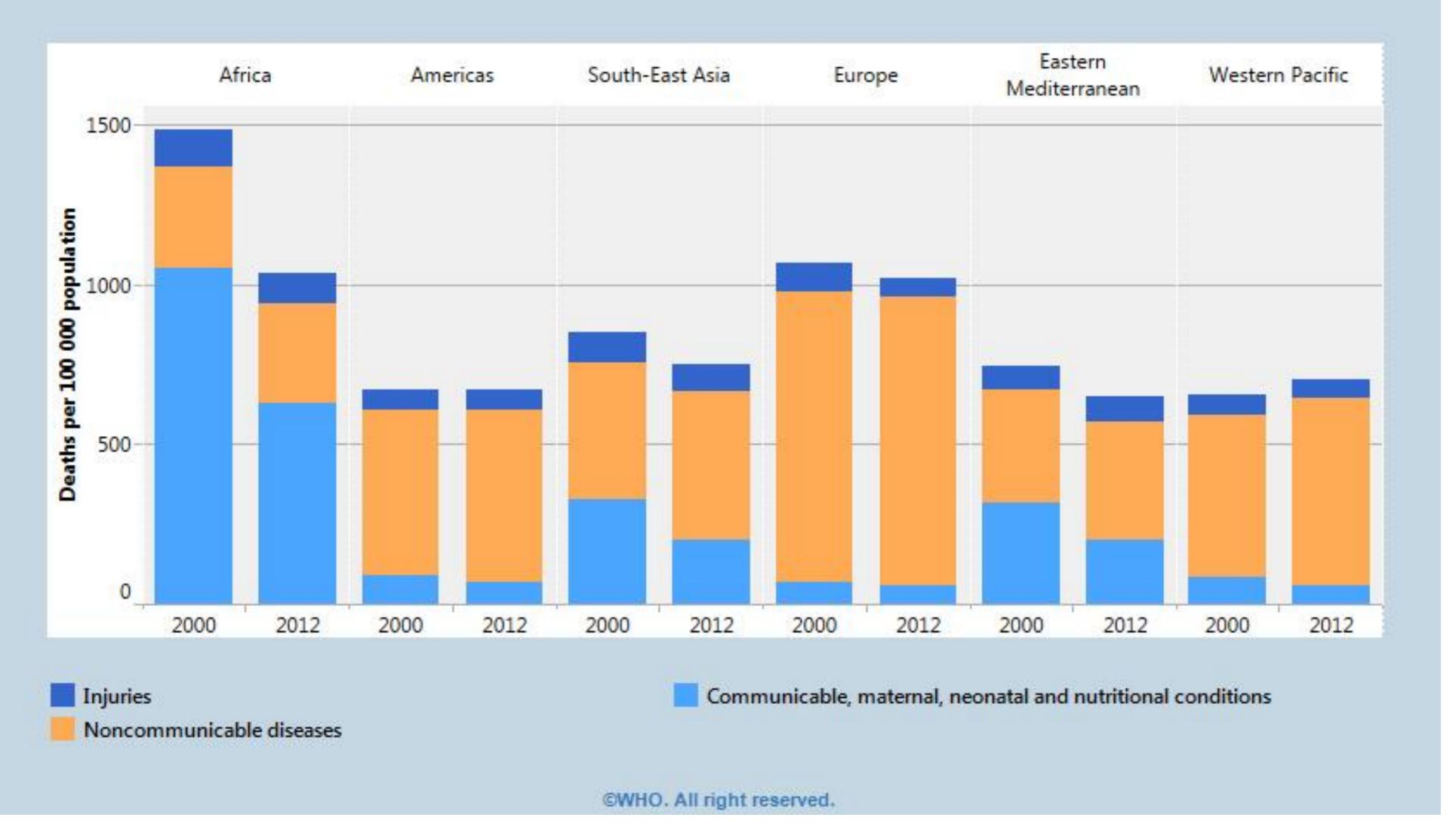
Background

- 1. About a third of the world's population does not have access to essential medicines, worsening morbidity and mortality
- 2. Medicines have a significant health impact, and the market is thriving; however, their delivery in low- and middle- income countries (LMICs) is hindered by lack of infrastructure. Lower levels of the health system, particularly "last mile", have fewer medicines available than teaching or district hospitals
- 3. Effective distribution models must be adopted to achieve health goals, such as the Joint United Nations Program on HIV/AIDS' (UNAIDS) ambitious 90-90-90 global goals: 90% of people with HIV diagnosed, 90% of them on ART, and 90% of them virally suppressed by 2020
- 4. Definitions of infrastructure
 - **Hard:** utilities, transport vehicles, telecommunication systems, roads, railways, airports **Soft:** software and programs, governing rules and regulations, financial system, and the organizational structure required to operate and maintain supply systems
- 5. Reasons infrastructure may not exist (or is nonfunctional)
 - Lack of political commitment and leadership
 - Lack of transparency and accountability allowing corruption
 - Conflicts
 - Natural disasters

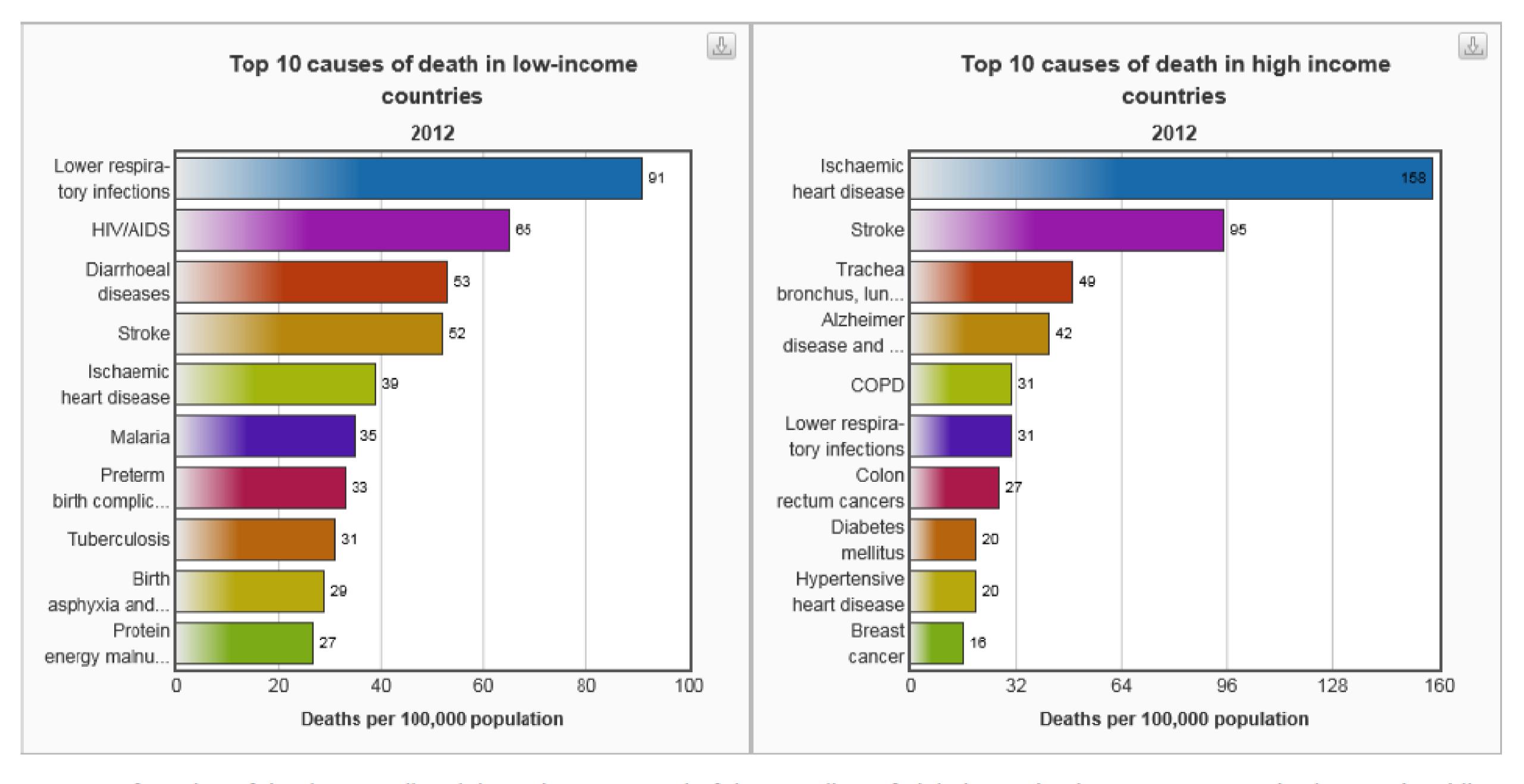


Crude death rate by broad cause group, 2000 and 2012 By WHO region





Source: Global Health Observatory, causes of death by WHO region. http://www.who.int/gho/mortality_burden_disease/causes_death/region/en/



In terms of number of deaths, 28 million (about three quarters) of the 38 million of global NCD deaths in 2012 occurred in low- and middle-income countries. Source: http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs310/en/index2.html

Case Studies



Afghanistan, Post-Conflict: Problem

Problem: Political crisis that ended in 2001 left a devastated health system

- Damaged infrastructure, limited human resources, weak stewardship, proliferation of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs)
- Dysfunctional public-sector health system
- 80% of health services provided by NGOs with huge gaps in critical services and inequity in service distribution
- Only 10% of population had access to health services
- Some of the world's worst health indicators, e.g., maternal mortality ratio approximately 1,600 per 100,000 live births (highest ever recorded); infant and child mortality rates of 165 and 257 per 1,000 live births, respectively, ranked 4th highest in the world in 2002 (W. Newbrander et al.)

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28 September - 3 October

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Afghanistan, Post-Conflict: Response (1)

Response: Ministry of Public Health (MOPH), donors, and international agencies

- MOPH's desire to prioritize underserved rural areas
- Interest of many donors (European community, USAID, World Bank) to strengthen the health system, coordinate and provide considerable funding
- Development and implementation of Basic Package of Health Services (BPHS) to tackle the most urgent health problems while rebuilding the health system



Afghanistan, Post-Conflict: Response (2)

Response: MOPH, donors, and international agencies

- BPHS defined: Type of health facility and size of catchment population, including linked services and types and number of staff, and required equipment and essential medicines
- MOPH competitively contracted NGOs to deliver the BPHS in defined geographic areas, and payment based on achievement of agreed goals
- Institutionalization of Grants and Contracts Management Unit in MOPH, leading planning and implementation of BPHS
- BPHS-enabling strategies: Community-based health care, including midwives and monitoring and evaluation



Afghanistan, Post-Conflict: Results

Results: Significantly improved health indicators and health system strengthened between 2003 to 2011

Illustrative results:

- Medicines and other technologies: 20% decrease in percentage of facilities with stock-outs of one essential medicine
- Service delivery: 70% increase in active BPHS facilities
- Information: 60% increase in number of facilities regularly reporting their data to the Health Management Information System
- 70% of the NGOs provide comprehensive training for CHWs, 95% of CHWs reported regular supervision, and more than 60% of the health posts had adequate essential medicines



Liberia, Post-Conflict: Problem

Problem: Liberia emerged from a brutal 14-year civil war in 2003 with a ruined economy, infrastructure, health system, and the health and education of its people

- Fragmented health system, lack of basic information about health care, and 70% facilities operated by NGOs
- Human resources for service provision and management severely limited
- Extreme logistical challenges, for example, infrastructure for communication and transport extremely poor (no landlines and power by diesel generators only)

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 Under-5 mortality 235 per 1,000 (WHO 2006), and maternal mortality rose to 994 per 100,000 live births (Liberia Institute of Statistics & Geo-Information Services Statistics)

Liberia, Post-Conflict: Response (1)

Response: Strengthen the health system by multi-faceted approaches and stakeholder engagement

- Election of President Ellen Johnson Sirleaf in 2005
- New National Health Policy (NHP) and National Health Plan (2007–2011), including BPHS free of charge

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- > BPHS enabled facilities to be funded by donors through competitive bidding process
- NHP and BPHS are consistent with observation that a focus on *primary care initiatives and infrastructure* is an effective method for health system strengthening (Kruk et al. 2010)
- NHP included government commitment to:
 - > Decentralize, including management authority by county health teams
 - Progressively increase health spending to eventually reach Abuja target of 15% of national budget

Liberia, Post-Conflict: Response (2)

Response: Strengthen the health system by multi-faceted approaches and stakeholder engagement

- Innovative financing mechanism Health Sector Pool Fund, established in 2008 by agreement between government and partners
- Launch of BPHS accreditation process to assess and monitor implementation (Cleveland et al. 2011)



Liberia, Post-Conflict: Results

- Alignment of health actors through the Pool Fund
- Government funding increased, but funding gap grew due to departure of NGOs
- Rapid scale-up of health facilities and health workers
 - ➤ However, 41% of all households (15% urban and 66% rural) did not have ready access to a health facility (Lee et al., 2011)
- Accreditation process enabled
 - ➤ MOHSW to gather unprecedented amounts of comprehensive, timely, and detailed information about health facilities, including data on availability of essential medicines and key supplies

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- Increased accountability (needs, priorities, and responsibilities more clearly defined and monitored at all levels)
- Under-5 mortality rate declined from **235** (in 2006) to **75** (in 2012) per 1,000 live births

Difficulties of Delivering Medicines in LMICs

1. Inadequate public financing

• Medicines account for 25-70% of overall health care expenditure, compared to less than 10% in most high-income countries (WHO 2008)

2. Weak procurement and supply management

- Medicine procurement procedures are inefficient, nontransparent, and probably corrupt (Kotwani 2011)
- Insufficient qualified personnel

3. Weak regulatory and quality assurance frameworks

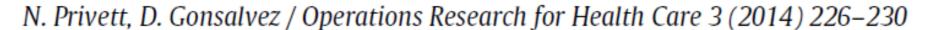
 5.6% of total samples of antibiotic, antimalarial, and anti-TB medicines tested between 2003 and 2013 in 17 countries of Africa, Asia, and South America failed quality test (Hajjou et al. 2015)

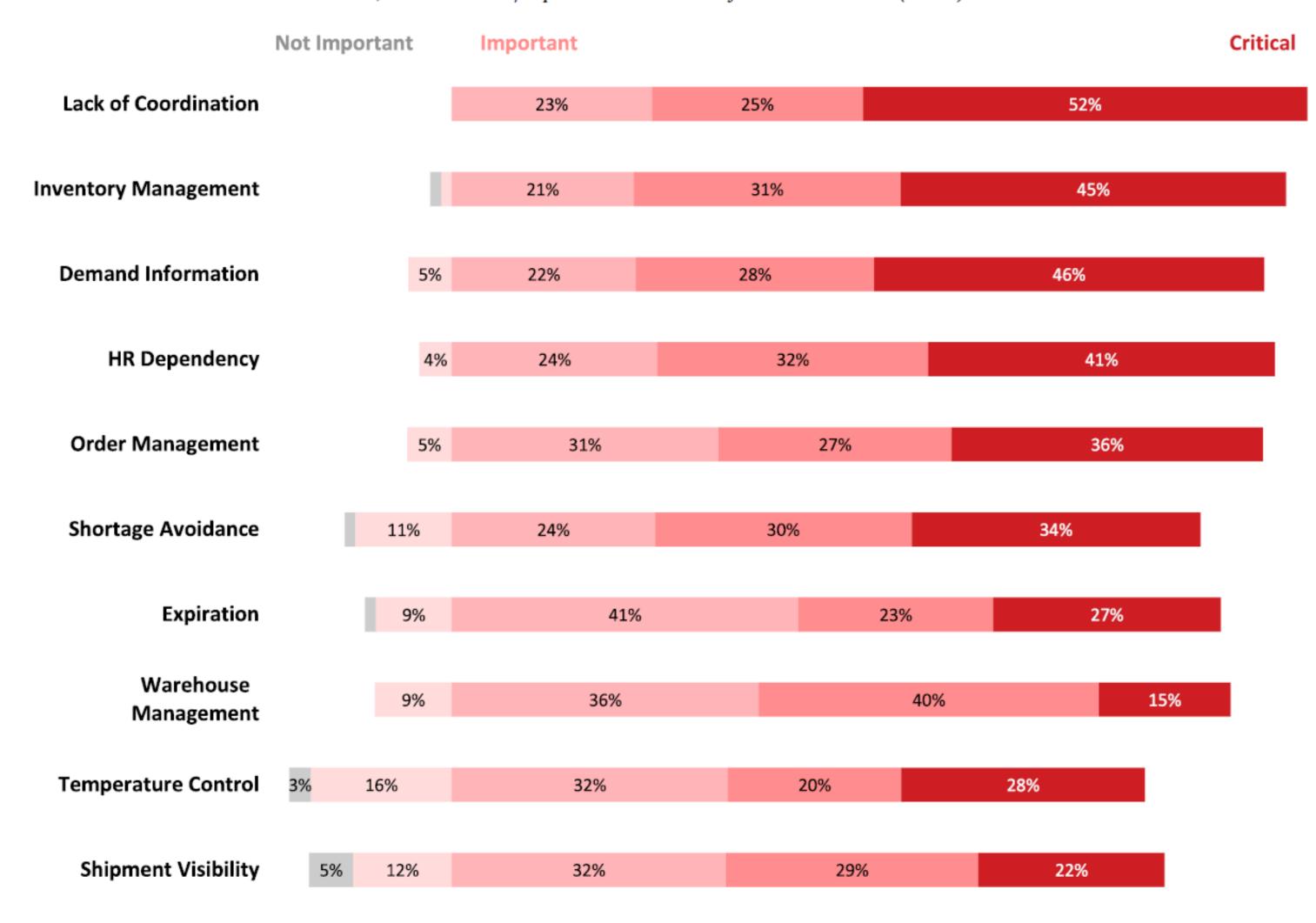
4. Unaffordable prices

 Up to 90% of population in LMICs pays for medicines out-of-pocket because of lack of social insurance and inadequate publicly subsidized services (McIntyre, Thiede, Dahlgren, and Whitehead 2006)



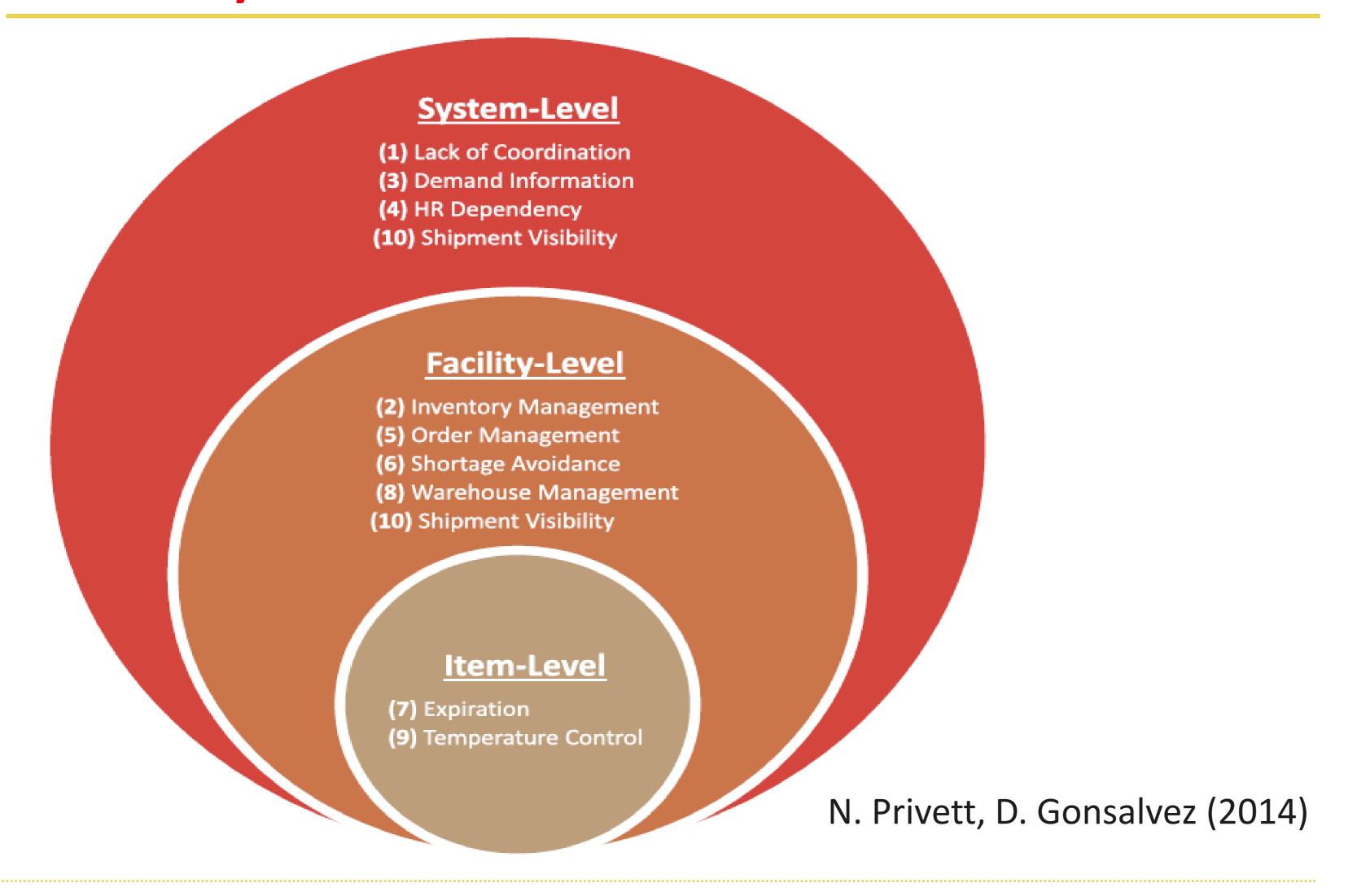
Top 10 Global Health Medicine Delivery Difficulties







Dependency Model: "System-Level" Difficulties are Key Drivers





Community-Level ("Last Mile") Medicine Delivering Difficulties

- 1. Medicine stock-out at community health workers' (CHWs) resupply points
- 2. Inadequate supply chain knowledge and capacity among CHWs and their supervisors
- 3. Lack of adequate or reliable transport

Chandani et al. 2012



Pilots of Last-Mile Distribution Models

Informed push model (IPM): trained drivers and staff monitor and restock medicines at service delivery points (SDPs)

- 1. Direct distribution and information capture (DDIC) Nigeria
- 2. Delivery team topping up (DTTU) Zimbabwe
- 3. IPM for contraceptive distribution Senegal
- 4. Dedicated logistics system (DLS) Mozambique



Pilots of Last-Mile Distribution Models: Lessons Learned

- 1. Third-party logistics company (3PL): Capacity, management, key performance indicators, monitoring and performance improvement, cost recovery, cost barrier to servicing extremely rural locations
- 2. Human resources: Drivers require literacy and numeracy skills, in addition to knowledge of terrain and routine vehicle maintenance
- 3. Communication and coordination: Plan, link between 3PL, SDPs, and IPM management
- 4. Data collection: Type of software and computers and connections to other existing information systems
- 5. Advocacy and partnerships: System optimization, leadership, government, and donor-funding flows
- 6. Medicine supply at central level



Effective Interventions for Improving Availability of Medicines, based on Published Studies reviewed by Nunan et al. 2011 (1)

Good evidence (controlled trials)

- 1. Structured supervision of health facilities (Zimbabwe: Trap et al. 2001)
- 2. Community-directed interventions for facilitation and delivery of medicines (Cameroon, Nigeria, Uganda: Special Program for Research & Training in Tropical Diseases 2008)

Some evidence (program description only)

- 1. Staff training
- 2. Integration of disease-specific programs

Weak/mixed evidence (operational intervention with historical control)

- 1. Privatized distribution
- 2. Public-private partnerships
- 3. User-fees
- 4. Revolving drug funds



Effective Interventions for Improving Availability of Medicines, based on Published Studies (2)

- 1. Home- or community-based interventions, which provide antimalarial drugs free of charge probably improve prompt access to antimalarials (Okwundu et al. 2013)
- 2. Public-private partnerships using government accreditation (ADDO model) increases access to quality medicines and services in underserved areas; ADDO model is scalable, sustainable and transferable (Rutta 2014)
- 3. Antiretroviral therapy provided at home by trained volunteers shows no difference in outcomes when compared to facility-based care (Kredo et al. 2013)



Conclusion

- CHWs serve as village primary care providers, functioning as a liaison between the community and health care facilities
- LMIC governments, international community, pharmaceutical industry, and NGOs must identify and support scale-up of effective interventions to close medicine-access gaps in order to meet global health goals.
- Last-mile delivery solutions must be affordable, simple, and sustainable; these solutions should be informed by evidence and country context, including:
 - i. Community-based interventions, including CHWs
 - ii. Public-private partnerships, including accreditation and use of private logistics services

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28 September - 3 October

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 Transparent, accountable, sustainable supply systems are possible, provided high-level political commitment exists to mandate and enforce the system

Thank you!



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DÜSSELDORF 2015

28 September - 3 October

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DÜSSELDORF 2015

28 September - 3 October

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