

Household Catastrophic Health Expenditure Due to Tuberculosis: Analysis from Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Group, Central India

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Abstract

Tuberculosis (TB) is disproportionately affects the most economically disadvantaged strata of society. Many studies have assessed the association between poverty and TB, but only a few have assessed the direct financial burden TB treatment and care can place on households. Patient costs can be catastrophic health expenditure for TB affected households in Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Groups (PVTGs). A survey of pulmonary tuberculosis (PTB) was carried out in Saharia dominated Pohri Block of Shivpuri district of Madhya Pradesh state in central India during the period 2013 to 2014. Of 9964 surveyed, 280 PTB cases identified formed the study population for the present study. Among 280 TB patients identified, 220 (79

Index terms— tuberculosis, economic impact, catastrophic health expenditure, poverty, vulnerable population, tribal group, india.

1 I. Introduction

Health is one of the most important components of an effective poverty reduction strategy. Since health can increase productivity and household income, while poor health is likely to reduce output. Health improvements can provide poor households with the opportunity to escape poverty. However, use of health services is critical with a view to out-of-pocket (OOP) payments and it is the primary means of financing healthcare in many low-income Asian countries. OOP payments can result in households facing catastrophic health spending, lead to impoverishment, and financial risk protection measures are missing. Globally it is estimated that 150 million people suffer financial catastrophe each year due to health care payments and about 100 million are pushed into poverty because of OOP payments (Xu et al. 2007). Protecting households from catastrophic health care costs is a desirable objective of health systems worldwide. The WHO call for universal health coverage emphasized the need to protect households from catastrophic medical expenses and impoverishment arising from seeking health care.

TB is an airborne infectious disease thought to infect almost one-third of the world's population. It commonly manifests as an infection of the lungs, usually with symptoms of coughing, weight loss and other constitutional symptoms. Individuals suffering from TB are often in their economically most productive age, which poses a significant economic burden on the household. Poor people have longer pathways to care and costs of accessing care are generally higher before than after diagnosis (Nhlema et al. 2003;Rajeswari et al. 1999). Evidence indicates that the damaging effects of TB are catastrophic to those who were relatively poor or marginalized before being infected with TB and subsequently pushes the income insolvent into poverty (Croft et al. 1998;Jackson et al. 2006;Zhang et al. 2007). TB is a chronic disease requiring long duration (6-8 months) of treatment make the poor patients vulnerable, deprived and locks them in the poverty stricken condition (Nhlema et al. 2003;Hossain et al. 2012). Thus poverty and TB are locked in a vicious cycle, as one triggers the other. The Directly Observed Treatment Short course (DOTS) strategy is cost-effective strategy both from provider and patient point of view against historical controls (Burman et al. 1997;Dholakia 1997;Floyd et al. 1997;Sawert

6 E) DEFINITIONS USED

44 et al. 1997; . Key components of the DOTS is that patient is VIP, programme's responsibility to cure them,
45 each dose of anti-tuberculosis drugs should be administered to patients under the supervision of a DOT provider,
46 either from the community or the health system, according to patient's convenience, so that patients do not lose
47 wages or incur transportation charges for treatment under the programme ??Khatari et al. 2002). This strategy
48 has been successful in reducing costs to patients, death rates 38/100000/per year in 1990 to 22/100000/per year
49 in 2012 and increasing cure rates (Central TB Division 2014).

50 TB disproportionately affects the poor people and TB control programs therefore need to ensure that the
51 economically and socially disadvantaged groups do not face barriers that keep them from seeking treatment. It
52 was estimated that on an average, 3-4 months of work time are lost if an adult has TB, resulting in a loss of about
53 20-30% of annual household income (Rajeswari et al. 1999). Relative costs for poor people as a percentage of their
54 income is much higher than for nonpoor patients, although aggregate real costs may be smaller (Nhlema et al.
55 2003). India has a high concentration of indigenous tribal population constitutes 8.6% of the total population of
56 the country (Census 2011). As many as 705 groups are identified as tribal across 30 states, 75 have been identified
57 as Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Groups (PVTGs) and Saharia population in Madhya Pradesh is one among
58 them. It was reported that high magnitude of TB among Saharia tribe (1518/100000) (Chakma et al. 1996;Rao
59 et al. 2010). Any development programme initiated by government of India will take time to reach this segment
60 with limited access to health care services due to isolation, low social status and weaker economic position. TB
61 programme therefore need to ensure that the economically and socially disadvantaged groups do not face barriers
62 that keep them from seeking treatment. Hence, studies on patient costs towards costs of accessing care before
63 than after diagnosis are needed particularly among most vulnerable population. Therefore, we undertook a study
64 to estimate the OOP expenditure (diagnosis and treatment) to Saharia PVTG on account of TB in India. In this
65 paper, we present the results of our study in terms catastrophic health spending through direct medical, direct
66 non-medical, indirect and total costs.

67 2 II. Methodology a) Setting

68 The areas of habitation of Saharia population in Madhya Pradesh are Gwalior, Datia, Morena, Sheopur, Bhind,
69 Shivpuri, Ashoknagar and Guna. This study was carried out in Shivpuri, district considering the operational
70 feasibility, rapport with community and willingness to support by district authorities. Community survey done
71 among Saharias in these areas by National Institute for Research in Tribal Health (NIRTH) showed most of them
72 were labourers and annual family income of Rs <10000. Majority was illiterate and they resided in Kachcha
73 houses/huts with no separate kitchen in houses.

74 3 b) Study area

75 A survey of pulmonary tuberculosis (PTB) was carried out in f Saharia dominated Pohri Block of Shivpuri district
76 in Chambal Division of Madhya Pradesh during the period 2013 to 2014. The same area was selected for this
77 study.

78 4 c) Study population

79 All individuals aged 15 years and above were screened for PTB by chest symptoms such as persistent cough for
80 two weeks or more; chest pain for one month or more; fever for one month or more; and haemoptysis anytime in
81 last 6 months. All symptomatics were investigated by sputum smear and culture examinations. All the bacillary
82 cases detected from the survey formed the study population.

83 5 d) Data collection

84 Semi-structured, pre-coded, pre-tested questionnaire was used for data collection. The interviews were conducted
85 at home in their local language (Hindi) by trained field investigators. The interview included household
86 identification, demographic and socio-economic characteristics of respondents. In addition, data on various
87 costs such as direct medical (fess, investigations, drugs); non-medical costs like travel and special food for patient
88 and escort; and indirect costs due to work absenteeism and loss of income were also collected. The interview
89 team was supervised by trained supervisors during data collection. Costs data were validated throughout the
90 interview by repeated questioning and cross checked with the prevailing rates of doctor's consultation fees, costs
91 for investigations, and market price of drugs, medical bills wherever possible. All the filled forms sent to NIRTH
92 to check for correctness and completeness, any incomplete forms sent back to field for corrections within 15 days.

93 6 e) Definitions used

94 Information about the costs was ascertain for full course of treatment of newly diagnosed pulmonary TB patients,
95 classified as category one as per Revised National Tuberculosis Control Programme (RNTCP) guidelines. All
96 costs were calculated period starting from the moment of onset of symptoms up to the completion of treatment
97 which included cost for diagnosis and treatment. Total cost covered expenditure incurred under direct and indirect
98 costs (The Tuberculosis Coalition for Technical Assistance) for 6-8 months of treatment. All these patients had
99 taken treatment in government hospitals where the investigations and the medicines were offered free of costs

100 for TB treatment. However they had to spend for travel etc., the distribution of costs is uneven and we are of
101 the opinion that this variation is expected from all economic data such as income and expenditure. Further we
102 classified the costs into nil cost, those who spent and mean, Standard Deviation, median, range was calculated
103 among those who incurred expenditures. The cost was calculated in terms of Indian rupees and US dollars
104 (exchange rate at the time of writing: \$1 US =Rs. 60).

105 **7 i. Direct patient costs**

106 Direct patient costs included all OOP expenditures of patients that were attributable to their illness. Consultation
107 fees and money spent on investigations and drugs were classified as medical costs. Money spent for transportation
108 to health facilities and costs of food bought during waiting time at the health facility. These costs were assessed
109 both the patient as well as persons accompanying the patient. These costs classified as non-medical costs.

110 ii. Indirect patient costs Indirect patient costs refer to the costs associated with work absenteeism and loss
111 of wages due to illness. These costs included visits to the health facilities and hospitalization as well as other
112 work absenteeism and loss of wages due to the inability to work as a result of the illness. In order to quantify
113 the magnitude of loss of income, the number of days absent for work was multiplied by the estimated income of
114 the patient and escort.

115 iii. Total cost Total cost includes the expenditure incurred pre treatment and during treatment under direct
116 and indirect costs.

117 iv. Catastrophic spending There is no single accepted definition of catastrophic spending. Some studies assess
118 payments in relation to the budget share (Russell et al. 2004; Pradhan et al. 2002), while others argue that
119 catastrophic spending should be measured in relation to capacity to pay (i.e. household expenditure net of food
120 spending) (Xu et al. 2006). Nonetheless, all measures suggest that when households spend a large proportion
121 of their budget on health care, they often forego other goods and services, which can have negative implications
122 for living standards (O'Donnell et al. 2008). Often, the choice of the threshold is arbitrary but two commonly
123 used ones are 10% of total income or 40% of non-food income (referred to as capacity to pay) (Jane et al. 2012).
124 To capture the burden on these households, a measure of the depth of poverty is needed (Saksena et al. 2014).

125 v. Data management and analysis Data entry was done by using the Census and Survey Processing System
126 (CSPRO) software package version 5.0. Data entry format was developed with logical expressions and conditional
127 statements used to minimize the errors in data entry. Data were analysed using Statistical Package for Social
128 Sciences (SPSS/PC version 20.0; SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) package. In univariate analysis, average
129 (mean) costs were compared and independent t-test was used to compare their demographic and socioeconomic
130 characteristics and tested for statistical significance. A p-value of <0.05 was considered as statistically significant.
131 We reported mean values to allow comparison with other published cost estimates.

132 **8 vi. Human subject protection**

133 This study was approved by the technical advisory committee and Institutional Ethics Committee of NIRTH,
134 ICMR. We interviewed respondents after obtaining voluntary, written informed consent.

135 **9 III. Results**

136 **10 a) Source of intake and coverage of study population**

137 During the period 2013 to 2014, all individuals aged 15 years and above were screened for PTB by chest symptoms
138 such as persistent cough for two weeks or more; chest pain for one month or more; fever for one month or more;
139 and haemoptysis anytime in last 6 months. All symptomatics were investigated by sputum smear and culture
140 examinations. Saharia tribal population surveyed was 9964 and 280 TB cases identified was the source for the
141 present study. Among 280 TB patients identified, 60 (21%) could not be interviewed, 42 moved temporarily, and
142 18 had expired. The remaining 220 (79%) cases interviewed at their residence (Figure ??1).

143 **11 b) Profile of study population**

144 Majority of the patients (81%) belonged to the more than 35 years age group and the study group included 178
145 (81%) males and females 42 (19%). Most of the patients 185 (84%) were illiterates and 204 (93%) were working
146 as a labour. Based on monthly per-capita income (definition of Planning Commission, Government of India;
147 those per capita income Rs. <660), patients were grouped into below poverty line and above poverty line. It was
148 found that majority of patients were living below the poverty line. With reference to their living standards, 201
149 (91%) living in katcha houses, 196 (89%) were single room houses; 212 (96%) don't have separate kitchen and
150 cooking in sleeping room (Table-1). The life style characteristics of patients were 58% smokers and 36% alcohol
151 consumers.

152 **12 c) Overall patient costs**

153 The overall average direct, indirect and total costs to patient with TB are given in Table-2. It was estimated
154 that direct, indirect and total costs were averaged Rs. 1642 (US\$ 27.4), Rs. 1882 (US\$ 31.4), and Rs. 2466 (US\$

155 41.1 respectively. Overall direct and indirect costs were almost similar. Proportion of patients incurred indirect
156 costs was slightly higher than the proportion of patients incurred direct costs in both before and after diagnosis
157 of TB. Figure-3 describes the different components of costs. Overall, patients spent more medical costs during
158 shopping for diagnosis like medicines (35%) followed by investigations (15%), and fees (8%). Non-medical costs
159 major portion incurred was due to wage loss (16%).

160 **13 d) Costs for diagnosis**

161 This was a community survey to find out the TB cases (active case finding), so around 86% of patients dint spent
162 any costs for diagnosis and treatment (Overall 45% of TB cases in this community detected through active case
163 finding; they didn't take any action for their symptoms. Remaining 46% approached government health facilities
164 and 9% approached local healers (Table-3). It was also measured the patients perception about the accessing
165 health facilities, majority 40% find difficult to reach health facilities and 31% felt lack of money to approach
166 health facility for diagnosis.

167 **14 e) Costs for treatment**

168 During the treatment none of the patient incurred any direct medical costs. The average direct non-medical cost
169 was incurred only 11% of patients and it was mean Rs. 579 (US\$ 9.65). Indirect costs was incurred only 5% of
170 patients, it was estimated to be mean Rs. 1718 (US\$ 28.6). Total treatment costs were also incurred only 11%
171 and it was mean Rs. 1335 (US\$ 22.25). It was observed that indirect treatment costs were higher than the direct
172 costs (Rs. 579 vs rs. 1718).

173 Those patients didn't not spent any costs during treatment reported that majority (61%) of patients taken
174 treatment under the community DOT providers; 65% of patients DOT providers are living in the same village; 46%
175 perceived that DOT is convenient to them; and 50% reported that they are satisfied with their DOT providers.
176 However, 34% of patients returned from DOT centre more than once without medicine due to non-availability of
177 DOT providers.

178 **15 f) Catastrophic expenditure**

179 In our sample, majority getting treatment free of costs and those who incurred costs, they faced catastrophic TB
180 care expenditure amounted to 10%, which is the proportion of various costs in relation to annual family income
181 (Figure -3). The intensity of catastrophic health payments are shown on Figure -4. Results showed among 33
182 patients, six households reported that share of OOP payments are much more than their income (Figure -4).

183 **16 IV. Discussion**

184 This study demonstrates the economic burden in terms of direct, indirect costs and total costs for both diagnosis
185 and treatment that Saharia tribe, one among the PVTGs living in central India face during their TB disease.
186 Because of the profound connection between poverty and TB, our study confirms that TB patients are from
187 vulnerable groups, having poor living conditions, depending on primitive agriculture, low cost closed economy
188 based on low level of technology, working as a daily wage labourer and not having regular incomes before their
189 disease. Average incomes are substantially lower due to the informal economy and there is a higher prevalence
190 of impoverished employees working in the informal sector. It is very clear that majority of TB patients didn't
191 incurred any costs due to active case finding. Very small proportion incurred OOP payments due to shopping for
192 diagnosis and non-medical costs during treatment was considerably high, since Saharia's are already economically
193 poor and socially vulnerable becoming poor and many more are being trapped further into poorer due to the
194 various costs of TB diagnosis and treatment. There is an urgent need; the Government of India should consider
195 alternative health financing mechanisms that offer financial risk protection to the PVTGs in general and Saharia's
196 in particular.

197 RNTCP in India is the largest national TB control programme in the world and also financing to improve
198 outcomes in tribal areas. It has addressed many challenges and special provision was given in tribal areas on
199 reducing financial burden to the TB patients throughout the course of treatment. Travel costs as bus fares for
200 patients and one attendant is provided for follow-up and treatment. To cover these costs the patients are given
201 an aggregate amount of Rs.250 (US\$ 4.2) on completion of treatment. Volunteers are encouraged for sputum
202 collection and transportation and provided Rs.100 to Rs.200 (US\$ 1.7 to 3.3) per month per volunteer based on
203 number of visits to DMC to hand over collected sputum. An amount of Rs.100 (US\$ 1.7) per month if there is
204 a minimum of one visit to the health center per week with collected samples (Surender et al. 2013). There is
205 a need to ensure the implementation of these schemes, and its functions and impact in these areas. Since the
206 Saharia's poor have less income higher proportion of their expenditure must go towards food than TB treatment.

207 There was evidence from India that direct OOP payments could push 2.2% of all healthcare users and one-
208 fourth of all hospitalized patients, into poverty in a year (Peters et al. 2002). According to the NSSO data 55 th
209 Round, households spend about 5-6% of their total consumption expenditure on health (National Sample Survey
210 Organization 2001). As per RNTCP the case findings are passive, chest symptomatic expected to go to hospital
211 on their own. Finding from the current series, patients are diagnosed through active case finding, majority (85%)
212 did not incurred any costs. On the other hand, it could also mean that households do not seek care if they cannot

213 afford it or non-availability of services. This emphasizes the earlier point that it is also important to explore
214 the extent to which households do not use services because of inability to pay. It was report The availability
215 of services proved to be significantly positively correlated with catastrophic spending in low and middle income
216 countries but not in high income countries (Xu et al. 2003;Chuma et al. 2007). In many other European countries
217 health insurance coverage is very comprehensive and OOP payments are either absent or do not differ across
218 provider alternatives (Marco et al. 2010). In low and middle income countries, supply constraints limit the use
219 of services, so countries with greater supply show higher levels of use and more financial catastrophe. Increasing
220 the availability of services in poor countries is important to improving health.

221 It was also observed from this study that small proportion of patients' need to spent costs when they go
222 for DOT in health facility based DOT centre or noncommunity based DOT provider. Also need to spent for
223 follow-up examinations and these costs are seems to be very high ie 10% of annual family income. Our study
224 finding corroborate with the study done in other countries Malawi and Kenya reported that patient and household
225 costs of TB diagnosis are prohibitively high where services are provided free of charge ??Kemp et In tribal areas
226 most of the places there are only mud roads and travel facilities are poor. Health centres are not always easily
227 accessible due to poor travel facilities. A sick person may have to travel 25 km to reach the nearest PHC and
228 patients may have to spend more for travel to attend these centres. The main occupation is agriculture mostly
229 daily wages; if daily wage labourer going to faraway health centre may result in work absenteeism and loss of
230 income. These costs made him to borrow money for treatment or manage family expenditure. This catastrophic
231 expenditure causes force to very deprived position. OOP costs for public and private health-care services may
232 stand at the beginning of a spiral into poverty for many families and exacerbate the poverty of the already
233 poor. This situation has been termed the 'the medical poverty trap' (Whitehead et al. 2001(Whitehead et al.
234 & 2006;;Iyer 2005). The loss of productive labour and frequently unaffordable expense of seeking treatment can
235 thrust TB patients and their families deeper into poverty. When aggregated to the national level, the cost of
236 TB to economic development and poverty reduction is tremendous (World Health Organization 2004). However
237 the encouraging finding is that due to active case finding many poor TB patients dint not incurred any costs.
238 Thus, TB control programme should consider active case finding strategy that provides financial risk protection
239 to these kinds of vulnerable segments of population. So that the contribution of TB control makes to alleviation
240 of poverty by reducing the economic burden that the disease inflicts on the poor.

241 Government of India was invested huge budget US\$ 252 million for the year 2014 alone for National Tuberculosis
242 Control Programme. The DOTS strategy was based on global scientific and operational guidelines and evidence,
243 and that evidence has continued to evolve with time. As new evidence became available, the TB control
244 programme has made necessary changes in its policies and programme management practices. In addition, with
245 the changing global scenario, RNTCP is incorporating newer and more comprehensive approaches to TB control.
246 To generate the evidence needed to guide policy makers and programme managers, the programme implemented
247 measures to encourage operational research. Efforts of RNTCP to promote operational research yielded success
248 and most of the studies has are linked to the main priorities of TB control. The programme requires more
249 knowledge and evidence of the effectiveness of interventions to optimize policies, improve service quality, and
250 increase operational efficiency. The current study provided evidence on different dimension to improve TB and
251 economic outcomes among poor people living in poor countries.

252 The RNTCP has continuously been innovative and progressive in addressing issues related to TB control in the
253 country. The programme is decentralized and diagnosis and treatment is provided free of costs to all patients.
254 Despite these a patient suffering from TB incurred out of pocket expenditure for travel, stay and food while
255 shopping for diagnosis and treatment. When people have to pay fees if they go to private or traditional healers
256 or co-payments for health care, the amount can be so high in relation to income that it results in 'Financial
257 Catastrophe' for the individual or the household. Such high expenditure can mean that people have to cut down
258 on necessities such as food and clothing, or are unable to pay for their children's education. It was estimate
259 that every year, approximately 44 million households, or more than 150 million individuals, throughout the
260 world face catastrophic expenditure, and about 25 million households or more than 100 million individuals are
261 pushed into poverty by the need to pay for services (World Health Organization 2005). Moreover, the impact of
262 these OOP payments for health care goes beyond catastrophic spending alone. Many people may decide not to
263 use services, simply because they cannot afford either the direct costs, such as for consultations, medicines and
264 laboratory tests, or the indirect costs, such as for transport and special food. This was true from our study 45%
265 didn't take any action for their symptoms suggestive of TB. DOTS may be failing to reach the poor because
266 of the barriers that obstruct accessing TB control services along the pathway to cure from onset of symptoms
267 to achieving a cure. Such impediments may undermine progress towards achieving the regional targets for TB
268 control. Strategies are thus needed to improve the accessibility of DOTS for the poor. These strategies will also
269 begin to address inequity in the burden of TB and access to TB control.

270 17 a) Limitations of the study

271 The possible limitation of the analysis was this study captures only the patients making OOP payments for health
272 services and does not consider people who need services but cannot afford them. Also the data on OOP payment
273 collected for different recall periods using different questions introduce more memory bias. But it is undoubtedly

274 important to continue to develop the database and the methods to strengthen knowledge about this important
275 topic.
276 V.

277 18 Conclusion

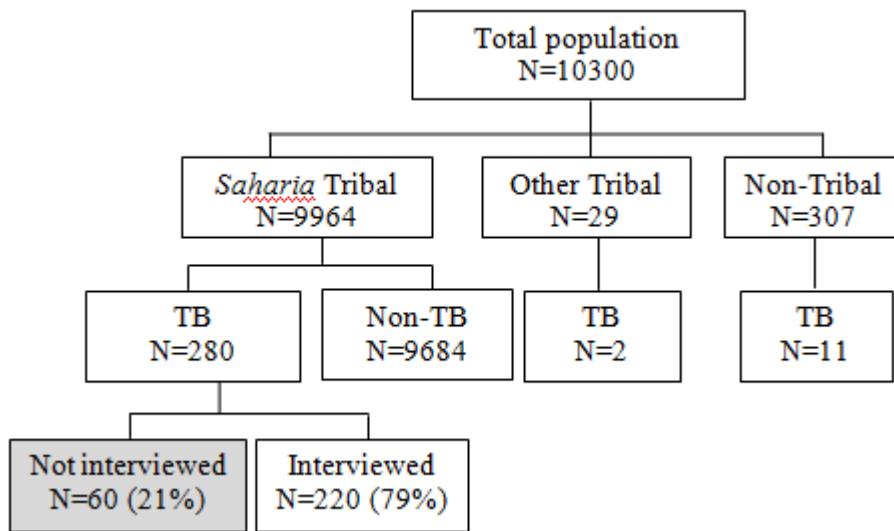
278 TB is a disease that disproportionately affects the poor. TB control program therefore need to ensure that the
279 economically and socially disadvantaged groups do not face barriers that keep them from seeking treatment. It is
280 a major challenge, not only for TB control, but also for overall health system to protect households from the risk
281 of impoverishment resulting from health expenditure, and to ensure that the population receives health services
282 when needed. Decision makers can use the information presented in this paper to better target financial risk
283 protection strategies. Although decision makers in the health sector do not control many of the levers necessary
284 to reduce income inequality and poverty directly, they can do so indirectly. But, Ministry of Health can actively
285 advocate for complementary policies to reduce social inequalities and increased funding for health because they
286 can improve health, reduce the chances of financial catastrophe, help poor households escape from poverty, and
contribute to overall economic growth.¹



Figure 1:

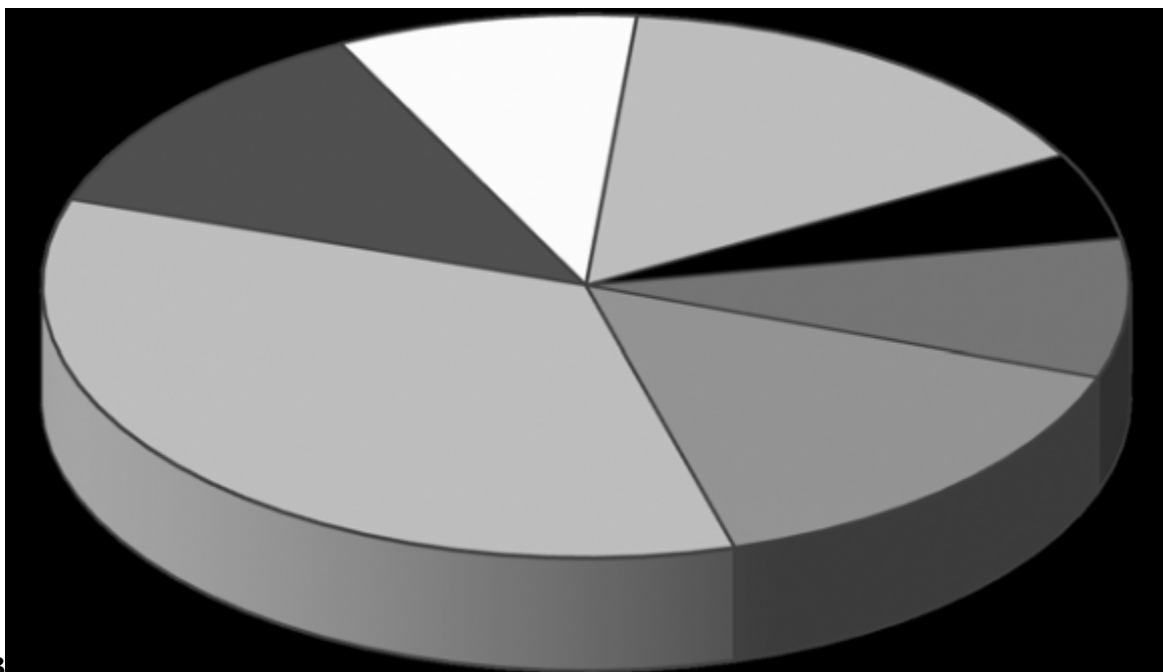
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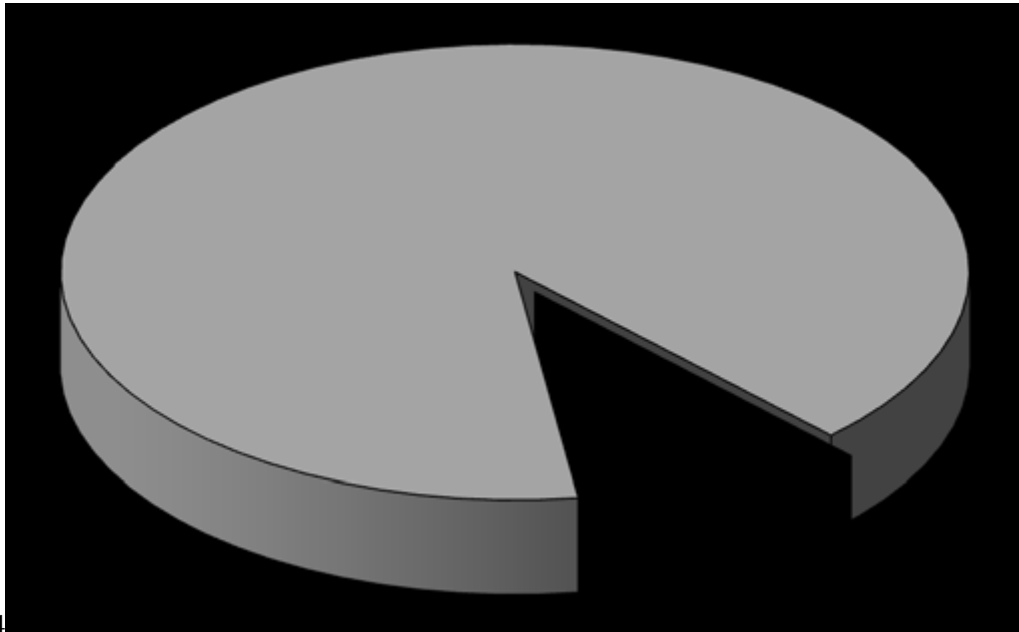
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Figure 2: Figure 1 :Figure 2 :



3

Figure 3: Figure 3 :



4

Figure 4: Figure 4 :

Figure 5:

1

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Demographic Age in years Sex Family size

?35 >35 Female ?4 member

Total patients No % 87 40 133 60 42 19 178 81 80 36

Socioeconomic Education	Literate	35	16
	Illiterate	185	84
Occupation	Labour	204	93
	Others	16	7
Poverty	BPL	173	79
	APL	47	21
Housing House type	Pucca	19	9
	Kuchcha	201	91
No of room	One	196	89
	> One	24	11
Separate kitchen	Yes	8	4
	No	212	96
Smoking Status	Yes	127	58
	No	93	42
Alcoholism Consumption	Yes	80	36
	No	140	64

Figure 6: Table 1 :

2

	Diagnosis	Treatment	Total
Direct Nil (No. & %)	189 (86)	195 (89)	188 (85)
Mean (SD)	1229 (1193)	579 (567)	1642 (1530)
Median (Range)	1000 (520-5250)	340 (60-2400)	1105 (210-6350)
Indirect Nil (No. & %)	207 (94)	209 (95)	206 (94)
Mean (SD)	573 (499)	1718 (2074)	1882 (2003)
Median	400 (200-2000)	800 (200-7000)	1150 (300-7400)
Total Nil (No. & %)	189 (86)	195 (89)	188 (85)
Mean (SD)	1469 (1419)	1335 (2016)	2466 (2794)
Median	1000 (210-6000)	500 (60-1800)	1300 (210-10100)

Figure 7: Table 2 :

3

Nil cost		Cost incurred		Total	
No	%	No	%	No	%

[Note: K © 2015 Global Journals Inc. (US)]

Figure 8: Table 3 :

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