

1 **Effectiveness of GP online training and an information booklet for parents on antibiotic**
2 **prescribing for children with RTI in primary care: a cluster randomised controlled trial**

3 Anne R.J. DEKKER^{1*}, Theo J.M. VERHEIJ¹, Berna D.L. BROEKHUIZEN¹, Christopher C.
4 BUTLER², Jochen W.L. CALS³, Nick A. FRANCIS⁴, Paul LITTLE⁵, Elisabeth A.M. SANDERS⁶,
5 Lucy YARDLEY⁷, Nicolaas P. A. ZUITHOFF¹, Alike W. VAN DER VELDEN¹

6 Author Affiliations:

7 ¹Julius Center for Health Sciences and Primary Care, University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht,
8 The Netherlands; ²Nuffield Department of Primary Care Health Sciences, University of Oxford,
9 Oxford, UK; ³Department of Family Medicine, CAPHRI School for Public Health and Primary Care,
10 Maastricht University, Maastricht, the Netherlands; ⁴Department of Primary Care and Public
11 Health, School of Medicine, Cardiff University, Cardiff, UK; ⁵Primary Care Medical Group,
12 University of Southampton Medical School, Southampton, UK; ⁶Department of Paediatric
13 Immunology, Wilhelmina Children's Hospital, University Medical Center, Utrecht, the Netherlands;
14 ⁷Academic Unit of Psychology, Faculty of Social and Human Sciences, University of
15 Southampton, Southampton, UK.

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17 *Corresponding author. Tel: +31-88-756-8364, Fax: +31-88-756-8099, E-mail: a.r.j.dekker-
18 8@umcutrecht.nl

19 **Running title:** Improving antibiotic use for children with RTI

20

21 **ABSTRACT**

22 **Objectives:** Antibiotics are too often prescribed in childhood respiratory tract infection (RTI),
23 despite limited effectiveness, potential side-effects, and bacterial resistance. We aimed to reduce
24 antibiotic prescribing for children with RTI by online training for general practitioners (GP) and
25 information for parents.

26 **Methods:** A pragmatic cluster randomised, controlled trial in primary care. The intervention
27 consisted of an online training for GPs and an information booklet for parents. The primary
28 outcome was the antibiotic prescription rate for children presenting with RTI symptoms, as
29 registered by GPs. Secondary outcomes were number of reconsultations within the same disease
30 episode, consultations for new episodes, hospital referrals and pharmacy dispensed antibiotic
31 courses for children.

32 **Results:** After randomisation, GPs of in total 32 general practices registered 1009 consultations.
33 An antibiotic was prescribed in 21% of consultations in the intervention group, compared to 33%
34 in the usual care group, controlled for baseline prescribing (RR 0.65, 95% CI 0.46-0.91). The
35 probability of reconsulting during the same RTI episode did not differ significantly between the
36 intervention and control group, nor did the numbers of consultations for new episodes and hospital
37 referrals. In the intervention group antibiotic dispensing was reduced with 32 courses per 1000
38 children/year, compared to the control group, and adjusted for baseline prescribing (RR 0.78,
39 95% CI 0.66-0.92). The numbers and proportion of second choice antibiotics did not differ
40 significantly.

41 **Conclusion:** A concise, feasible, online GP training, with an information booklet for parents
42 showed a relevant reduction in antibiotic prescribing for children with RTI.

43 This trial was registered at the Dutch Trial Register (NTR), registration number: NTR4240

44 INTRODUCTION

45 Respiratory tract infections (RTI), including ear-infections, are the most common indication for
46 consulting a general practitioner (GP) during childhood and for prescribing antibiotics.^{1,2} Most
47 RTIs are viral and self-limiting, and many high-income countries have guidelines aiming to restrict
48 the use of antibiotics.³⁻⁵ However, even in a low-prescribing country like the Netherlands, one third
49 of antibiotic prescriptions for children are not congruent with guideline recommendations.⁶ The
50 main drivers of over-prescription are GPs' interpretation of patient or parent expectations, time
51 pressure, diagnostic and prognostic uncertainty and unfamiliarity with recent guidelines.⁷⁻⁹
52 General practice has a major contribution and responsibility towards antibiotic stewardship, since
53 primary care is a driver of antibiotic resistance.¹⁰⁻¹² Efforts to reduce antibiotic prescribing in
54 primary care have been ongoing for decades, most often focusing on antibiotic use in adults, and
55 consisting of a wide range of strategies.¹³⁻¹⁶ A different approach might be needed for childhood
56 RTI, because of child-specific indications and risk factors, and communication with parents
57 instead of patients themselves.¹⁷ Multifaceted approaches have been shown to be most effective,
58 however, broad implementation of these interventions is rare because of time and costs.^{13,18-20}
59 Online educational programs could be a feasible and cost-effective intervention that could be
60 broadly implemented, updated easily, and ensure a more enduring antibiotic stewardship. Little
61 *et al.* showed that such an intervention was effective in improving antibiotic management of adults
62 with lower RTI.¹⁶ In children, only online instruction on the use of information material was studied
63 in the UK, which was effective.²¹ In our study we aimed to assess the effects of an online training
64 for GPs and an information booklet for parents on antibiotic prescribing for children with RTI in
65 general practice.

66

67 **METHODS**

68 **Trial design**

69 The RAAK (Rational Antibiotic use Kids) study was a pragmatic, cluster randomised, two-arms,
70 controlled trial with measurements before and after the intervention, to allow for adjustment for
71 baseline antibiotic prescribing (baseline audit). GPs within a general practice influence each other
72 and patients within a practice are often managed by different GPs, therefore, the general practice
73 was the unit of randomisation and the unit of analysis to minimize contamination and dilution of
74 the intervention effect. GPs in the control group practised care as usual. We followed the
75 Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials guidelines, extended for cluster randomised trials.²²

76 **Ethics approval**

77 This trial was exempted by the Ethics Committee of the University Medical Center Utrecht from
78 obtaining parents' or patients' consent (reference number METC 13-237/C). The trial assigned
79 GPs with the aim to improve their prescribing behaviour according to the national practice
80 guidelines. Children were not the subject of the intervention and were treated according to the
81 guidelines.

82 **General practices and participants**

83 For the baseline audit, GPs were asked to register 40 consecutive consultations of children
84 younger than 18 years with signs and symptoms of RTI (nose, ear, throat and/or lower RTI
85 symptoms), presenting at their general practice during the winter season 2013-2014. GPs
86 registered the following anonymous information on consultation report forms: age, duration of
87 symptoms, fever, most prominent symptoms, findings of physical examination, overall illness
88 severity (1= minimally ill, 5=severely ill), the International Classification of Primary Care code for
89 diagnosis, and whether an antibiotic was prescribed, including which one. General practices were

90 excluded if GPs registered less than ten patients in total per general practice, since low numbers
91 could result in poor estimations of the baseline antibiotic prescription rates. After randomisation
92 and implementation of the intervention, this registration of consultations was repeated in the
93 follow-up audit, during the winter season 2014-2015. In addition, parents were invited to fill in a
94 diary for up to two weeks following the index consultation, and give permission to review the
95 child's medical records after six months to collect secondary outcomes.

96 **Intervention**

97 The intervention consisted of online training for GPs and a written information booklet for parents.
98 These were adapted from an intervention for adults that was: a) theory-based: the educational
99 content was designed to promote positive expectations and self-confidence in GPs and patients
100 to manage the infection without antibiotics, b) person-based: the content was developed with
101 extensive feedback from GPs and patients to ensure that it addressed their concerns and was
102 persuasive.²³⁻²⁵ The online training consisted of three parts. The first part was a general
103 background about the relevance of prudent antibiotic use and information about antibiotic-related
104 problems. We presented over-prescription by percentages of prescribed antibiotics, not congruent
105 with guideline recommendations, from a recent Dutch study, to make GPs aware of their
106 responsibility in prudent antibiotic use.⁶ The second part informed about the child-specific parts
107 of the four national RTI guidelines of the Dutch College of GPs⁵, including assessment of disease
108 severity, risk factors, signs and symptoms, when to prescribe antibiotics, and the advised first and
109 second choice antibiotic treatment. This part was summarized in a printable document, which is
110 available as supplementary data at JAC online. The third part focused on training in enhanced
111 communication skills, supported by videos of consultation techniques. The communication skills
112 training was based on the elicit-provide-elicite framework, used in prior antibiotic interventions,
113 adapted to communication with parents.^{7,15,26} In summary, the GP first elicits what the parent's
114 main worries and expectations are. Crucially, the GP actively asks how the parent feels about

115 and what he/she expects from antibiotics. Secondly, the GP provides information relevant to the
116 parents individual understanding and interest, including findings from the medical history and
117 physical examination of the child. Then, the GP elicits the parents interpretation about what has
118 been said and done, to reach mutual agreement and concludes with concrete safety netting,
119 explaining specific signs and symptoms when to reconsult.

120 GPs were invited by email to commence the training. If the training was not started or completed,
121 a weekly reminder email was automatically sent with the request to complete the online training.

122 The booklet contained the following information in text and pictograms: epidemiology of RTI, their
123 predominant viral cause, self-limiting prognosis, rationale to withhold antibiotics, and antibiotic
124 related problems, including bacterial resistance. Additionally, self-management strategies for their
125 child and signs and symptoms when to consult the GP were explained.

126 **Outcomes, sample size, and randomisation**

127 The primary outcome was the antibiotic prescription rate per general practice in the follow-up
128 audit, as documented on the consultation report forms filled in by the GPs.¹⁶ The following
129 secondary outcomes were assessed from the patients' medical records: number of
130 reconsultations during the same disease episode, number of consultations for new RTI episodes
131 and the number of hospital referrals during a follow-up of six months. Total and types of dispensed
132 antibiotic courses for all children under 18 years were collected via the Dutch Foundation for
133 Pharmaceutical Statistics.²⁷ Affiliated pharmacies of the participating general practices (n=68)
134 were asked for permission to collect all dispensed antibiotics that resulted from prescribing by the
135 participating GPs of that practice. Numbers of dispensed systemic antibiotics (ATC-code J01)
136 were collected via an online module for the complete years prior to and after introducing the online
137 training. Total numbers of antibiotics mainly used for RTIs were: tetracyclines (J01AA), amoxicillin
138 (J01CA), pheneticillin (J01CE), amoxicillin/clavulanate (J01CR) and macrolides (J01FA).

139 Amoxicillin (J01CA) and pheneticillin (J01CE) were considered as first choice antibiotics, the
140 others as second choice. The numbers of registered children in the practice for the corresponding
141 year were collected. The median duration of the time being logged-in and the short online
142 evaluation of the GP training were assessed.

143 We calculated that we would need a minimum of 157 consultations per arm, to be able to detect
144 an absolute difference of 15% in prescribing rate (42% and 27%), with 80% power and a 5%
145 significance level. To adjust for clustering of the effect within general practices, we assumed an
146 intra-cluster coefficient of 0.07 and a cluster size of 40, requiring a total of 1171 consultations in
147 both arms.²⁸ In order to achieve this we set out to ask 30 practices to register 40 consultations
148 each. Simple random allocation was performed by a computer generated list on general practice
149 level.

150 **Data analysis**

151 The primary analysis was according to the principle of intention-to-treat and assessed the
152 intervention effect on antibiotic prescribing to children as registered by the GPs in the follow-up
153 audit. We aggregated the data to the cluster level and used a generalized linear model for Poisson
154 distributed count outcomes, controlled for overdispersion.²⁹ We calculated Rate Ratios (RR) with
155 corresponding 95% Confidence Intervals (CI) and adjusted for baseline prescription rates per
156 general practice, as assessed in the year before the intervention. We chose not to adjust for
157 signs/symptoms, or diagnosis, because the interpretation, judgment and use of these variables
158 were part of the educational aspect of the online training.³⁰ The secondary outcomes were also
159 aggregated to the cluster level and analysed similarly as the primary outcome. Pharmacy
160 antibiotic dispensing data were retrieved per practice. The numbers of total dispensed antibiotics
161 were analysed using a generalized linear model and controlled for the numbers of dispensed
162 antibiotics in the year preceding the intervention, and the numbers of children in the practice.

163 Prescription of second choice antibiotics was analysed related to the total number of children and
164 to the total number of dispensed antibiotics and was controlled for baseline prescribing. Analyses
165 were done in SPSS version 21.

166 **RESULTS**

167 **Practice flow**

168 Before randomisation, 38 practices agreed to participate (Figure 1). Preceding the intervention,
169 three practices were excluded, as they did not register any consultation during the baseline audit.
170 Finally, 35 practices were randomised to the control or intervention arm. Three out of 35
171 randomised practices were excluded during the follow-up audit. They had not registered enough
172 consultations, because of sick leave of participating GPs. Therefore, pharmacy data of these
173 practices could neither be obtained reliably. One single-handed GP was excluded for the
174 pharmacy data, since his practice moved during the study period to another part of the city.
175 Practices of the intervention and control group were comparable with respect to their total list size
176 and numbers of listed children (Table 1).

177 **Registration of consultations**

178 During the baseline audit 1009 consultations of children with symptoms of RTI were registered by
179 75 GPs from 35 general practices (Figure 1). The mean antibiotic prescription rate from this
180 baseline audit was 29.6% (35.7%, SD 4.8 in the control group versus 24.2%, SD 4.3 in the
181 intervention group). The follow-up audit included 1009 consultations in total, 532 from control and
182 477 from intervention practices. Consultations were comparable between the intervention and
183 control group with respect to childrens' age, duration of illness before consultation, illness severity
184 and presentation with fever (Table 2). Numbers of registered symptoms appeared to be higher in
185 the intervention group as compared to the control group, especially for earache (37.1% versus
186 29.3%).

187 **Intervention**

188 The training was completed by all 40 GPs of the intervention group. Their median time logged-in
189 was one hour and 18 minutes. Based on GPs' evaluation, the first and second part of the training,
190 with the general background and information of the four guidelines, were valued highest, with a
191 mean score of 4.5 (1=low value, 5=high value); the third part about communication skills scored
192 a mean of 4.2.

193 **Numbers analysed**

194 Analysis of the primary outcome was performed on 475 consultations in the 15 practices allocated
195 to the intervention, and 531 consultations in 17 practices allocated to usual care. Three
196 consultations lacked the primary outcome and were excluded from analyses. In 535 (53%)
197 consultations of children, the parent gave permission to anonymously collect secondary outcomes
198 after six months from the child's medical record and was willing to fill in a diary. These
199 consultations showed no relevant differences compared to consultations in which parents were
200 not willing to participate in the study (data not shown). Secondary outcomes of 508 children were
201 available for analyses, 27 cases were lost to follow-up.

202 **Outcomes**

203 In 21.4% of consultations an antibiotic was prescribed in intervention practices, compared to
204 33.2% in the control group. The rate ratio after adjustment for baseline prescription was 0.65 (95%
205 CI 0.46-0.91, Table 3). The intra-cluster coefficient was 0.09. The mean number of reconsultations
206 per 100 children within the same disease episode was lower in the intervention group (42), as
207 compared to the control group (64), but did not differ significantly (RR 0.66, Table 4). The
208 probability of consultation for new RTI within six months did not differ significantly (RR 1.06), nor
209 of hospital referrals (RR 0.66). General practices exposed to the intervention reduced antibiotic
210 dispensing with 32 courses per 1000 children per year, relative to the control group, and based
211 on the full year's pharmacy data (RR 0.78, 95% CI 0.66-0.92, Table 5). Adjusted for the year

212 preceding the intervention, the number of dispensed antibiotics was 114 per 1000 children in the
213 intervention group and 146 per 1000 children in the control group. The number of dispensed
214 second choice antibiotics in the intervention group was lower (39.9/1000 children) as compared
215 to the control group (49.2/1000 children), however, this difference was not significant. The
216 percentage of second choice antibiotics neither differed between the control and intervention
217 group (34.1%, versus 34.4%).

218 **DISCUSSION**

219 Online training of GPs and information booklets for parents resulted in less antibiotic prescriptions,
220 measured by GPs' registrations of consultations, as well as by data of total yearly antibiotic
221 dispensing to children with RTIs. The intervention did not result in a significant reduction in second
222 choice antibiotics, reconsultations in the same disease episode, consultations for new RTI
223 episodes, or hospital referrals.

224 Outcomes of previous studies vary depending on setting, study population, and type of
225 intervention.^{13,18-20,31,32} Relatively intensive interventions targeting both parents and clinicians are
226 considered to be most effective, and decrease antibiotic prescribing rates by 6-21%.¹⁹ Focusing
227 on GP-parent communication, supported by written information, also showed to be
228 important.^{14,18,19,31-33} In our study, the prescription rates adjusted for baseline prescription differed
229 11.8%. This effect was striking, particularly as our baseline prescription rates was already low in
230 comparison with other countries. Previous studies often used complex and time consuming
231 interventions, whereas our online training was feasible, concise and without personal (academic)
232 involvement and showed a long-term effect on antibiotic prescribing. Online GP training to reduce
233 antibiotic prescribing for children has not been used yet in primary care, except for one study in
234 the UK.²¹ This study primarily focused on consulting behaviour, using an information booklet
235 endorsed by the GP; the online training was about how to use the booklet and did not include
236 guideline education and background of antibiotic-related problems.²¹

237 **Strengths and Limitations**

238 This cluster randomised controlled trial showed a convincing effect on antibiotic prescribing using
239 GPs' registrations and pharmacy dispensing data during a full year after the intervention. In the
240 context of continuously improving RTI treatment in children, our study aimed to make a simple,
241 concise and feasible intervention, which was valued by GPs and parents.³⁴ The pragmatic study

242 design did not interfere with daily practice and did not require large time investments or
243 organizational adaptations. Our focus on the total childhood population with broad eligibility
244 criteria, and without selection of subgroups, or controlling for patient characteristics, makes our
245 results reliable and generalizable. By measuring both antibiotic prescribing outcomes in the year
246 preceding the intervention, we were able to control for baseline prescribing, making our results
247 more robust, since the number of clusters was not large.^{35,36} Our study also has potential
248 limitations. First, the pharmacy data could include GPs in the intervention group who did not
249 receive the online training, since some GPs who were not involved in the trial, for example
250 temporary locums or GPs in training, prescribed antibiotics on behalf of participating GPs. This
251 may have diluted the real, potentially higher, intervention effect. This change of employees in the
252 participating practices was increasing over time, and prevented us from reliably measuring the
253 intervention effect in the second year. Secondly, our study was not powered to study whether
254 severe complications could occur more frequently due to reduced antibiotic prescriptions,
255 nevertheless there was no evidence suggesting an adverse effect of the intervention. Our
256 intervention taught GPs according to the evidence-based guidelines.⁵ We therefore expect no risk
257 of inducing under-prescription. Another Dutch intervention, aiming to reduce antibiotic prescribing
258 showed that both over- and underprescribing improved.²⁷ And, a substantial reduction in antibiotic
259 prescriptions was shown to be safe in a recent population-based study.³⁷ Finally, there is a non-
260 significant difference in reconsultation in the intervention and control group, with large within group
261 variation. Many parents of registered children were not invited to participate due to time
262 constraints during the consultation and only half of the invited parents were willing to keep a diary
263 and gave permission to assess the medical records of their child.

264 **Conclusion**

265 The intervention was effective in reducing antibiotic prescribing, and was feasible and
266 acceptable.³⁴ Given the minimal training time and the clear impact on antibiotic prescriptions it is

267 likely to be cost-effective. To implement this intervention at a national level some aspects could
268 be further developed, e.g. considering presenting the information booklet electronically,
269 stimulating informal learning activities including self-reflection, and potential linkage to a structural
270 antibiotic stewardship program.^{34,38}

271 This trial was registered at the Dutch Trial Register (NTR), registration number: NTR4240

272 **OTHERS**

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278 **Registration**

279 This trial was registered at the the Dutch Trial Register (NTR), registration number: NTR4240.

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284 **Transparency declarations**

285 None to declare.

286 **Author contributions**

287 Alike van der Velden, Theo Verheij, Lidewij Broekhuizen, Christopher Butler, Jochen Cals, Nick
288 Francis, Paul Little and Lucy Yardley conceived and designed the study. Anne Dekker organised
289 the trial and collected all data. Anne Dekker, Alike van der Velden, Theo Verheij and Peter Zuithoff
290 analysed and interpreted the data. Anne Dekker, Alike van der Velden and Theo Verheij wrote
291 the first draft of the manuscript, and all coauthors critically revised the manuscript for intellectual
292 content. All authors approved the final version and agreed to serve as guarantors of the work.

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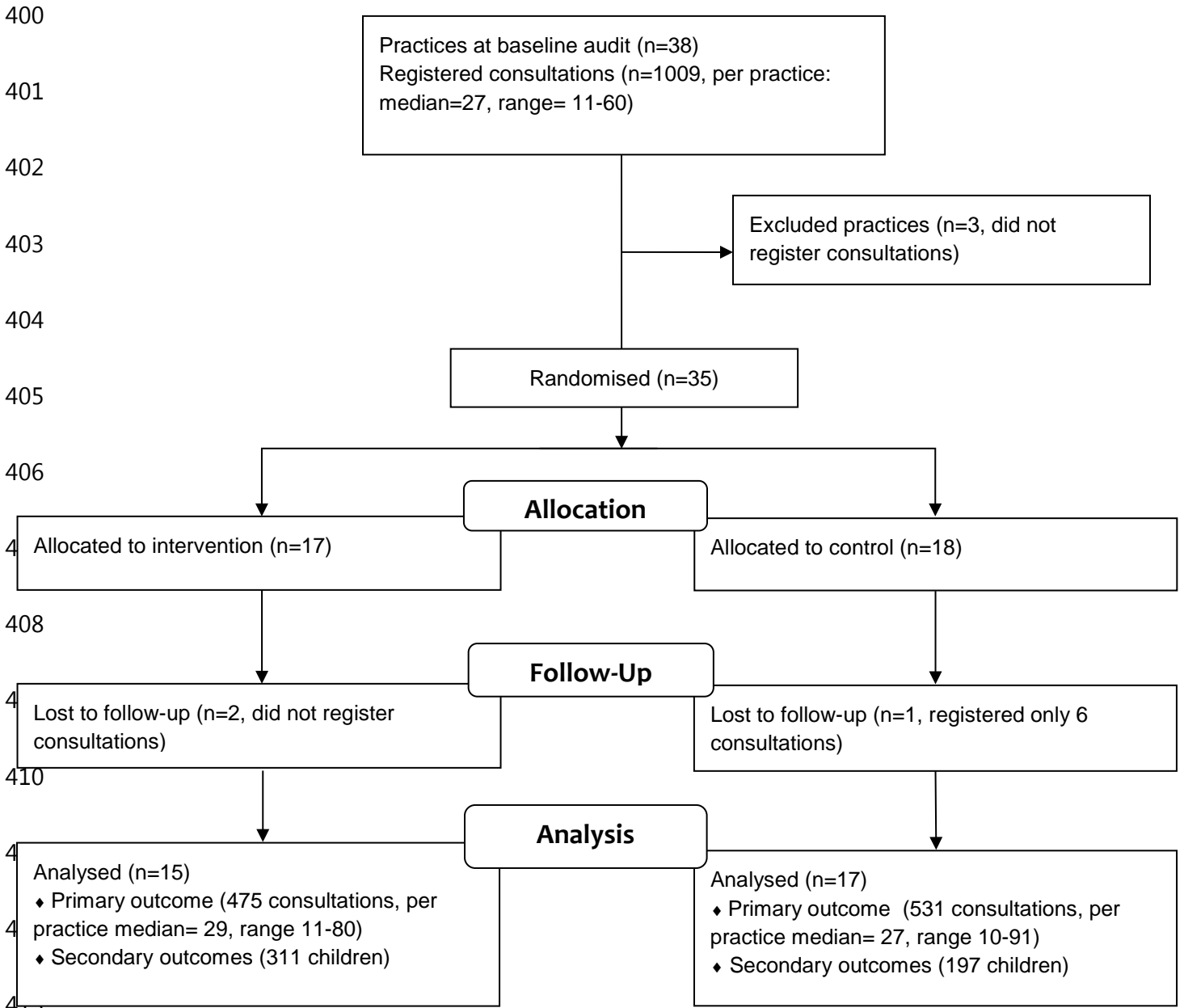
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399 **Figure 1 Trial profile, practice flow**



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417 **Table 1 Characteristics of general practices allocated to the intervention and control group**

	Intervention (n=15)	Control (n=17)
Median list size total (IQR)	2980 (2491-4850)	3275 (2589-3589)
Median list size children <18 years (IQR)	604 (518-999)	664 (421-810)
Participating GPs	40	35
Male/female GPs	46%/54%	43%/57%
Mean age GP (SD)	46 (11)	45.3 (9.5)

418 IQR= interquartile range

419 **Table 2 Characteristics of consultations of the follow-up audit after allocation to the**
 420 **intervention or control group**

	Intervention (n=477)	Control (n=532)
Mean age, years (SD)	4.7 (4.4)	4.4 (4.1)
Median duration of illness before consultation, days (IQR)	5 (3-14)	5 (3-10)
Mean GPs' perception of illness severity, 1 = not ill, 5 = severely ill (SD)	1.6 (0.8)	1.9 (1.0)
Fever (%)	257 (53.9)	278 (52.3)
Earache (%)	177 (37.1)	156 (29.3)
Runny nose (%)	387 (81.1)	375 (70.5)
Sore throat (%)	128 (26.8)	121 (22.7)
Cough (%)	358 (75.1)	381 (71.6)

421 IQR= interquartile range

422 **Table 3 Effectiveness of the intervention on antibiotic prescription rates**

	Intervention	Control	RR (95% CI)
Crude antibiotic prescription rate (95% CI)	20% (95/475) (15.4-26)	36.9% (196/531) (30.8-44.3)	0.54 (0.4-0.74)*
Adjusted antibiotic prescription rate** (95% CI)	21.4% (16.6-27.6)	33.2% (27-40.8)	0.65 (0.46-0.91)*

423 Data were retrieved from GP-registered consultations. *P<0.05. **Adjusted for baseline

424 prescription.

425 **Table 4 Effectiveness of the intervention on reconsultation, consultations for new RTI**
 426 **episodes and hospital referrals**

	Intervention (n=311)	Control (n=197)	RR (95% CI)
Absolute number of reconsultations	132	126	
Mean number of reconsultations/100 children (95% CI)	42 (29-63)	64 (43-96)	0.66 (0.38-1.16)
Absolute number of new RTI consultations	252	150	
Mean number of new RTI consultations/100 children (95% CI)	81 (64-103)	76 (56-104)	1.06 (0.72-1.58)
Absolute number of hospital referrals	24	23	
Mean number of hospital referrals/100 children (95% CI)	8 (5-13)	12 (7-20)	0.66 (0.31-1.40)

427 Data were retrieved from the child's medical registries.

428 **Table 5 Effectiveness of the intervention on total and second choice yearly dispensed**
 429 **antibiotics**

		Intervention	Control	RR (95% CI)
Total antibiotics/1000 children/year (95% CI)	Crude	110 (89.1-136)	161 (137-189)	0.68 (0.52-0.89)*
	Adjusted**	114 (100-129)	146 (132-162)	0.78 (0.66-0.92)*
Number of second choice antibiotics/1000 children/year (95% CI)	Crude	39.3 (29.1-53.1)	54.8 (43.3-69.4)	0.72 (0.49-1.05)
	Adjusted**	39.9 (32.6-48.7)	49.2 (41.7-58.1)	0.81 (0.63-1.05)
Percentage of second choice antibiotics/total antibiotics (95% CI)	Crude	35.7% (29-44)	34% (28.9-40)	1.05 (0.81-1.37)
	Adjusted**	34.1% (29.6-39.3)	34.4% (30.8-38.3)	0.99 (0.83-1.19)

430 Data were retrieved from a full year's pharmacy dispensing data. *P<0.05. ** Adjusted for baseline
 431 prescription.