M.J. Stephenson, MB, ChB, CCFP N. Henry, BA G.R. Norman, PhD

Factors Influencing Antibiotic Use in Acute Respiratory Tract Infections in Family Practice

SUMMARY

The authors of this paper assessed the effect of psychosocial and biomedical factors on the prescription rate for upper respiratory infections. Their study, using written clinical vignettes mailed to a random sample of Ontario family practitioners, achieved a 69% response rate. Family practitioners most often used physical signs and symptoms in forming their decision to prescribe antibiotics. Psychosocial data, when present in the vignettes, significantly modified the prescription rate, often overriding the biomedical factors alone. The study is another step in exploring a complex decision-making process (Can Fam Physician 1988; 34:2149–2152.)

RÉSUMÉ

Les auteurs ont évalué l'effet des facteurs psychosociaux et biomédicaux influençant les taux de prescription dans le cas d'infections respiratoires supérieures. Leur étude, par le biais de vignettes cliniques postées à un échantillon de médecins de famille ontariens, a suscité un taux de réponses de 69%. Le plus souvent, la décision de prescrire des antibiotiques reposait sur les signes physiques et les symptômes. Par ailleurs, les données psychosociales, lorsque présentes dans les vignettes, ont influencé de façon significative les taux de prescription, surpassant même les facteurs biomédicaux. Cette étude se veut une autre étape dans l'exploration de la complexité du processus de prise de décision.

Key words: antibiotics, respiratory-tract infections, decision making

Dr. Stephenson is a member of the Department of Family Medicine, McMaster University, Hamilton. Ms. Henry is a member of the staff of the Program for Educational Development, McMaster University. Dr. Norman is a member of the Department of Epidemiology & Biostatistics, McMaster University. Requests for reprints to: Dr. M.J. Stephenson, Henderson General Hospital, McMaster University Teaching Unit, 711 Concession Street, Hamilton, Ont. L8V 1C3

THE PRACTICE of prescribing antibiotics for acute upper respiratory tract infection (URTI) is widespread,¹⁻³ although the therapeutic effectiveness of these medications is questionable. Most studies show no difference in outcome between treated and untreated URTI patients.^{1,2} Only two studies^{3,4} have shown a difference between treated and placebo groups: in one³ the differences were small and of uncertain clinical significance, while in the other⁴ there was a trend for symptoms to diminish more rapidly in treated non-smokers.

According to the literature, a variety of factors relating to physicians and patients influence antibiotic prescribing habits. Physician variables include attitudes to health care,⁵ variations in diagnostic criteria,^{6,7} and different perceptions of patients' expectations.⁸ Patient variables include their medical history,⁹ their previous response to therapy¹⁰ and their physical signs and symptoms.¹¹

Only one study has measured the impact of psychosocial information on the antibiotic prescription rate.¹² This study used sore throat as the presenting complaint, and physicians were presented with a series of clinical vignettes which contained differing social and psychological information. In seven out of 12 clinical situations presented, the addition of psychosocial information in the vignette led to increased prescribing of antibiotic medications.

No study has looked at the combined effect of physical signs, symptoms, and psychosocial information on the prescribing rate for antibiotics in URTI. The present study was conducted to determine whether various combinations of biomedical and psychosocial factors presented in clinical vignettes were predictive of a community family physician's decision to prescribe antibiotics to patients with URTI.

Methods

An initial study was carried out to determine which factors should be included in the vignettes to be used in the main study. Volunteer physicians in both academic and private practices were asked to record their reasons for prescribing antibiotics to patients with URTI whom they were seeing.

The factors chosen for the main study were those most frequently reported in 339 patient encounters during the pilot period. These were:

- 1. productive cough;
- 2. duration of illness;

3. throat inflammation (other than tonsilitis);

- 4. abnormal chest signs;
- 5. elevated temperature;

6. an upcoming social event for the patient;

7. the physician's sense of pressure to prescribe for the patient;

8. anxiety on the part of the patient.

These eight symptoms, signs and psychosocial factors were then systematically combined into clinical vignettes on the basis of a fractional factorial design,¹³ and 32 vignette combinations were finally selected out of a possible 256. These 32 vignettes provided maximum information about the effect of single factors and combinations of two factors. An example of a vignette with only one factor is:

A patient presents in your office with a history of URTI. The only positive physical finding is that he has a temperature of 38.5C°.

A vignette with several factors is:

Another patient phoned your nurse asking for penicillin. He was told to come in, and when he arrives, he tells you that he has had a cough productive of yellow sputum. He mentions that he plans to go to Europe on business in two days time and is concerned that his trip may be in jeopardy. You check him over and find only some coarse crepitations in the large airways.

Six volunteer physicians completed the vignettes on two occasions to establish the vignettes' reliability.

The main study was a mail-out to family physicians in Ontario selected at random from the mailing list of the College of Family Physicians of Canada. Only physicians in active family practice were included in the study, and retired, academic, industrial physicians, and those graduating before 1940 were excluded from the sample. The sample size was set at 300, and this was considered adequate to detect small differences. The selected physicians were asked their year of graduation, number of years in practice, whether they held certification from the College, and the location and type of their practice. They were sent a booklet of vignettes, an answer sheet, and a stamped return envelope. They were asked to indicate whether or not they would prescribe antibiotics for the patients described in the 32 vignettes. Two follow-up mailings were carried out to ensure an adequate response rate.

Results

The overall response rate to the questionnaire was 69%. The demographic data of the study respondents is summarized in Table 1. No demographic differences were established between early and late responders. The only significant demographic difference between responders and nonresponders was that responders were more likely to be Certificants of the College of Family Physicians of Canada.

The mean prescription rate of the responders was 50% (sD $\pm 20\%$, range 9%-100%). The overall prescription rate was independent of demographic variables, but increased as factors were included in the vignettes. With one factor present, for example, the prescription rate was 20%, while with six factors present, the prescripton rate reached 74%.

Multiple t-test analysis used a conservative level of significance of p=.001. Table 2 summarizes the

_			-	
Та	h	ie	2	

33.2

Summary	of Effect	of Individual	Factors on	Prescribing	Rate
---------	-----------	---------------	------------	-------------	------

Table 1 Demographics of Study Responders			Prescription Rate			
Physician Data	%		(% of physicians prescribing)		T value	
Practice type: group solo City size:	48.6 51.4 58.7	Description of Factor	Factor Present (%)	Factor Absent (%)	(Comparing prescription rate with factor present/absent)	
large medium small rural Year of graduation '71-'80 '61-'70 '40-'60 Certificant of College	6.9 22.8 11.6 50.0 24.2 25.8	Throat signs Productive cough Abnormal chest signs Elevated temp. Upcoming event Pressure on physicians Patient anxiety Duration of 7 days	49.2 61.6 67.5 61.2 52.4 49.1 52.6 53.8	51.7 39.3 33.4 39.7 48.6 51.9 48.4 47.1	3.064 24.57 ^a 28.22 ^a 21.35 ^a 1.65 6.946 ^a 2.37 6.75 ^a	
of Family Physicians of Canada Yes	66.8	Note: For 50 tests, significant p value = 0.001 . For this value $-3.09 T + 3.09$.				

For this value -3.09 T + 3.09. a. Significant at p 0.001 level.

No

effect of each factor on the prescription rate. The summary compares the prescription rate when a factor was present in the vignettes to the rate when that factor was absent. The effect of combinations of two factors on the prescription rate is summarized in Table 3. The social factor of an "upcoming event" was further subdivided, as it included several different types of events. The effect of these events on the prescription rate is summarized in Table 4.

Discussion

The survey respondents were representative of the total sample in all but one characteristic: as already noted, respondents were more likely to be Certificants of the College of Family Physicians of Canada. Among respondents, however, prescription rates were not influenced by Certificant status, and so this difference should not limit the generalizability of the study.

We found that the amount and type of information presented in the vignettes influenced the reported prescription rate, to the effect that increasing information led to an increase in prescriptions. This finding contrasts with results of previous studies¹⁴ reporting that less information was used in the decision to prescribe than in the decision not to prescribe. This difference may have resulted from variations in study format and clinical data used. The major factors that influenced prescribing when presented alone were physical signs and symptoms, with the exception of "throat inflammation", which did not exert an influence.

For the factors of "productive cough" and "abnormal chest signs" our results were consistent with those recorded in other literature,¹¹ which shows that the presence of such factors leads to increased prescribing. The literature has not reported the influence that we detected of factors such as "elevated temperature" and "duration of illness". Fever is often part of both viral and bacterial illnesses, and so whether it was used by our study physicians as an indicator for antibiotic prescription is unclear. Perhaps physicians assumed that the presence of fever signified a more serious illness. Similarly the factor "duration of illness" may have led the physician to believe that an illness lasting more than seven days is likely to be bacterial in origin and so requires treatment.

The only psychosocial factor in our study that was found to affect a physician's likelihood to prescribe was "a sense of pressure to prescribe". In contrast to researchers in other studies,^{12,15} we found that the presence of this factor resulted in *less* antibiotic prescribing. It may be that

Table 3Relationship betweenTwo-Factor Combinations and Prescription Rate

2-Factor Combinations				
Factor One	Factor Two	T Value		
Throat signs	+ productive cough	12.58ª		
	+ abnormal chest signs	1.31		
Productive cough	+ abnormal chest signs	-2.46		
0	+ elevated temperature	2.92		
	+ upcoming event	8.45 ^a		
	+ pressure on physician	10.36ª		
	+ patient anxiety	-4.37ª		
	+ duration of illness than 7 days	9.64ª		
Abnormal chest signs	+ elevated temperature	-11.99ª		
	+ upcoming event	3.63ª		
	+ pressure on physician	4.41 ^a		
	+ patient anxiety	-6.08ª		
	+ duration of illness than 7 days	-4.64ª		

a. Significant at p.0.001 level.

Note: Negative T-value = increase in prescription rate, over & above rate due to single factor alone.

Positive T-value = decrease in prescription rate.

this finding resulted from our use of written vignettes and answers.

For the two-factor combinations patterns were complex. These combinations are summarized in Table 3. The factors of "a sense of pressure to prescribe" and "an up-coming event" were dominant when combined with other factors that tend to exert an opposite effect on the prescribing rate. For example, when the factor "pressure to prescribe" is added to the symptom factor "productive cough", the combination strongly increased the prescribing rate. By contrast, the factor "patient anxiety" further increased the prescribing rate when it was combined with a physical factor. These interactions show that psychosocial factors strongly modify prescribing decisions when they are presented in vignettes.

The factor combinations, then, are interactive. Thus the combination "productive cough" and "duration of illness greater than seven days" significantly decreased the prescribing rate, but this decrease apparently depends on the absence of chest signs. If the factor of "absent chest signs" is added to "illness lasting longer than seven days", the prescribing rate decreases.

The factor "throat inflammation" dominated the factor "productive cough" and resulted in a decrease in prescribing. In such cases, the physician may assume that the combination of throat signs and cough indicates a more widespread, and probably viral, illness.

Whether these results can be extrapolated to indicate how physicians behave in real life depends on the validity of clinical vignettes, which have certainly been seen¹⁶ as a reasonable approximation of clinical

Table 4

Components of Factor "Upcoming Event" and Mean Prescription Rate

Type of Upcoming Event	Mean Prescription Rate (%)
1. Day before weekend	43.5
2. Day before holiday	
weekend	70.9
3. Upcoming holidays4. Upcoming special	53.3
events 5. Difficulty getting	43.5
to clinic	59.5

°CoActifed*

Tablets/Syrup/Expectorant

Antitussive—Expectorant—Decongestant

Indications: CoActifed Expectorant: To facilitate expectoration and control cough associated with inflamed mucosa and tenacious sputum.

CoActifed Syrup and Tablets: The treatment of cough associated with inflamed mucosa.

Precautions: Before prescribing medication to suppress or modify cough, it is important to ascertain that the underlying cause of the cough is identified, that modification of the cough does not increase the risk of clinical or physiologic complications, and that appropriate therapy for the primary disease is provided.

In young children the respiratory centre is especially susceptible to the depressant action of narcotic cough suppressants. Benefit to risk ratio should be carefully considered especially in children with respiratory embarrassment, e.g., croup. Estimation of dosage relative to the child's age and weight is of great importance.

Since codeine crosses the placental barrier, its use in pregnancy is not recommended.

As codeine may inhibit peristalsis, patients with chronic constipation should be given CoActifed preparations only after weighing the potential therapeutic benefit against the hazards involved.

CoActifed contains codeine: may be habit forming.

Use with caution in patients with hypertension and in patients receiving MAO inhibitors.

Patients should be cautioned not to operate vehicles or hazardous machinery until their response to the drug has been determined. Since the depressant effects of antihistamines are additive to those of other drugs affecting the CNS, patients should be cautioned against drinking alcoholic beverages or taking hypnotics. sedatives, psychotherapeutic agents or other drugs with CNS depressant effects during antihistaminic therapy.

Adverse Effects: In some patients, drowsiness, dizziness, dry mouth, nausea and vomiting or mild stimulation may occur.

Overdose: Symptoms: Narcosis is usually present, sometimes associated with convulsions. Tachycardia, pupillary constriction, nausea, vomiting and respiratory depression can occur.

Treatment: If respiration is severely depressed, administer the narcotic antagonist, naloxone. Adults: 400 µg by iv., i.m. or s.c. routes and repeated at 2 to 3 minute intervals if necessary. Children: 10 µg/kg by iv., i.m. or s.c. routes. Dosage may be repeated as for the adult administration. Failure to obtain significant improvement after 2 to 3 doses suggests that causes other than narcotic overdosage may be responsible for the patient's condition.

If naloxone is unsuccessful, institute intubation and respiratory support or conduct gastric lavage in the unconscious patient.

Dosage: Children 2 to under 6 years: 2.5 mL 4 times a day. Children 6 to under 12 years: 5 mL or ½ tablet 4 times a day. Adults and children 12 years and older: 10 mL or 1 tablet 4 times a day.

Supplied: Expectorant: Each 5 mL of clear, orange, syrupy liquid with a mixed fruit odor contains: triprolidine HCl 2 mg, pseudoephedrine HCl 30 mg, guaifenesin 100 mg, codeine phosphate 10 mg. Available in 100 mL and 2 L bottles.

Syrup: Each 5 mL of clear, dark red, syrupy liquid with a pineapple odor and a sweet black currant flavor contains: triprolidine HCl 2 mg, pseudoephedrine HCl 30 mg and codeine phosphate 10 mg. Available in 100 mL and 2 L bottles.

Tablets: Each white to off-white, biconvex tablet, code number WELLCOME P4B on same side as diagonal score mark, contains: triprolidine HCl 4 mg, pseudoephedrine HCl 60 mg and codeine phosphate 20 mg. Each tablet is equivalent to 10 mL of syrup. If tablet is broken in half, it reveals a yellow core. Bottles of 10 and 50 tablets. Additional prescribing information available on request.

*Trade Mark W-610

decision making. In our study the mean prescribing rate of 50% is similar to that of another study¹⁷ that used real patient encounters. This circumstance helps to support the suggestion that the use of vignettes such as we constructed is indeed a valid representation of actual decision making.

The complexity of the relationship between the factors described and the prescribing rate may be confounded by two other components of the decision-making process: the attitudinal beliefs of the physician and the nature of the doctor-patient interaction. The importance of these components and their effect on the decision to prescribe antibiotics needs further study.

Conclusions

The relationship between biomedical and psychosocial factors in influencing the prescribing behaviour of physicians is complex. Family physicians most often used physical signs and symptoms as aids in deciding to prescribe antibiotics, but psychosocial factors significantly modified their decisions, often overriding the influence of the physical signs and symptoms.

This study confirmed that there is a wide variation in the prescribing of antibiotics for patients with similar upper respiratory-tract infections, and used actual practice data in an attempt to explore further the influences inherent in a complex decision-making process.

References

1. Stott NCH. Management and outcome of winter upper respiratory tract infections in children aged 0–9 years. *Br Med J* 1979; 1:29–31.

2. Williamson HA. Randomized controlled trial of doxycycline in the treatment of acute bronchitis. J Fam Pract 1984; 19:481-6.

3. Franks P, Gleiner JA. Treatment of acute bronchitis with trimethoprim and sulfamethoxazole. *J Fam Pract* 1984; 19:185–90.

4. Brickfield FX, Carter WH, Johnson RE. Erythromycin in the treatment of acute bronchitis in a community practice. *J Fam Pract* 1986; 23:119–22.

5. Joyce CRB, Last JM, Weatherall M. Personal factors as a cause of differences

in prescribing by general practitioners. *Brit J Prevent Soc Med* 1967; 21:170–7.

6. Gordis L, Desi L, Schmerler H. Treatment of acute sore throats: a comparison of pediatricians and general physicians. *Pediatrics* 1976; 57(3):422–4.

7. Wood RW, Diehr P, Wolcott B, et al. Reproducibility of clinical data and decisions in management of upper respiratory illnesses. *Med Care* 1979; 17(7):767–79.

8. Gordon M, Lowell S, Dugdale A. Value of antibiotics in minor respiratory illnesses in children: a controlled trial. *Med J Australia* 1974; 1:304–6.

9. Howie JGR, Richardson IM, Gill G, et al. Respiratory illness and antibiotic use in general practice. *J R Coll Gen Pract* 1971; 21:657–63.

10. Rowe IL. General practitioners' prescribing at first attendance for diseases. *Aust Fam Physician* 1976; 5(1):99–101.

11. Howie JGR. New look at respiratory illness in general practice. J R Coll Gen Pract 1973; 23:895–904.

12. Howie JGR. Clinical judgement and antibiotic use in general practice. Br Med J 1976; 2:1061–4.

13. Winer BJ. Statistical principles in experimental design. New York, NY.: McGraw-Hill, 1971:676.

14. Howie JGR. Further observations on diagnosis and management of general practice respiratory illness using simulated patient consultations. *Br Med J* 1974; 2:540–3.

15. Stimson GV. Doctor patient interaction and some problems for prescribing. J Royal Coll Gen Pract 1976; 26(1):88–96.

16. Norman GR. Objective measurement of clinical performance. *Med Ed* 1985; 19:37–43.

17. Howie JGR, Richardson IM, Gill G, et al. Respiratory illness and antibiotic use in general practice. *J R Coll Gen Pract* 1971; 21:657–63.

For Further Reading

1. Howie JGR, Richardson IM, Gill G, et al. Respiratory illness and antibiotic use in general practice. *J Royal Coll Gen Pract* 1971; 21:657–63.

2. Stolley PD, Becker M, McEvilla J. Drug prescribing and use in an American community. *Ann Int Med* 1972; 76:537–42.

3. Stott NC, West R. Randomized controlled trial of antibiotics in patients with cough and purulent sputum. *Br Med J* 1976; 2:556–9.

4. Taylor B, Abbott GD, Kerr M, et al. Amoxycillin and cotrimoxazole in presumed viral respiratory infections of childhood: placebo controlled trials. *Br Med J* 1977; 2:552–4.



PAAB

ССРР