

BMJ Open

BMJ Open is committed to open peer review. As part of this commitment we make the peer review history of every article we publish publicly available.

When an article is published we post the peer reviewers' comments and the authors' responses online. We also post the versions of the paper that were used during peer review. These are the versions that the peer review comments apply to.

The versions of the paper that follow are the versions that were submitted during the peer review process. They are not the versions of record or the final published versions. They should not be cited or distributed as the published version of this manuscript.

BMJ Open is an open access journal and the full, final, typeset and author-corrected version of record of the manuscript is available on our site with no access controls, subscription charges or pay-per-view fees (<http://bmjopen.bmj.com>).

If you have any questions on BMJ Open's open peer review process please email info.bmjopen@bmj.com

BMJ Open

Pulse oximeter with integrated management of childhood illness improves diagnosis of severe childhood pneumonia at rural health institutions in Southern Ethiopia: Results from a cluster-randomized controlled trial

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2020-036814
Article Type:	Original research
Date Submitted by the Author:	05-Jan-2020
Complete List of Authors:	<p>Tesfaye, Solomon H.; Hawassa University College of Medicine and Health Sciences, School of public health; University of Bergen Centre for International Health, Global public health and primary care Gebeyehu, Yabibal ; Dilla University College of Health Sciences, School of medicine Loha, Eskindir ; Hawassa University College of Medicine and Health Sciences, School of public health; London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine Department of Infectious Disease Epidemiology Johansson, Kjell Arne; University of Bergen Centre for International Health, Global public health and primary care Lindtjørn , Bernt ; Hawassa University College of Medicine and Health Sciences, School of public health; University of Bergen Centre for International Health, Global public health and primary care</p>
Keywords:	Community child health < PAEDIATRICS, PUBLIC HEALTH, Respiratory infections < THORACIC MEDICINE

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts



I, the Submitting Author has the right to grant and does grant on behalf of all authors of the Work (as defined in the below author licence), an exclusive licence and/or a non-exclusive licence for contributions from authors who are: i) UK Crown employees; ii) where BMJ has agreed a CC-BY licence shall apply, and/or iii) in accordance with the terms applicable for US Federal Government officers or employees acting as part of their official duties; on a worldwide, perpetual, irrevocable, royalty-free basis to BMJ Publishing Group Ltd ("BMJ") its licensees and where the relevant Journal is co-owned by BMJ to the co-owners of the Journal, to publish the Work in this journal and any other BMJ products and to exploit all rights, as set out in our [licence](#).

The Submitting Author accepts and understands that any supply made under these terms is made by BMJ to the Submitting Author unless you are acting as an employee on behalf of your employer or a postgraduate student of an affiliated institution which is paying any applicable article publishing charge ("APC") for Open Access articles. Where the Submitting Author wishes to make the Work available on an Open Access basis (and intends to pay the relevant APC), the terms of reuse of such Open Access shall be governed by a Creative Commons licence – details of these licences and which [Creative Commons](#) licence will apply to this Work are set out in our licence referred to above.

Other than as permitted in any relevant BMJ Author's Self Archiving Policies, I confirm this Work has not been accepted for publication elsewhere, is not being considered for publication elsewhere and does not duplicate material already published. I confirm all authors consent to publication of this Work and authorise the granting of this licence.

1
2
3 **Pulse oximeter with integrated management of childhood illness improves diagnosis of**
4 **severe childhood pneumonia at rural health institutions in Southern Ethiopia: Results**
5 **from a cluster-randomized controlled trial**
6
7
8
9

10
11 Solomon Hailemariam^{1,2,3}, Yabibal Gebeyehu⁴, Eskindir Loha^{1,5}, Kjell Arne Johansson²,
12
13 and Bernt Lindtjørn^{1,2}
14
15

16
17 ¹ School of Public Health, Hawassa University, Hawassa, Ethiopia
18

19
20 ² Centre for International Health, University of Bergen, Bergen, Norway
21

22
23 ³ School of Public Health, Dilla University, Dilla, Ethiopia
24

25
26 ⁴ School of Medicine, Dilla University, Dilla, Ethiopia
27

28
29 ⁵ Department of Infectious Disease Epidemiology, London School of Hygiene and Tropical
30
31 Medicine, London, United Kingdom
32

33
34 **Correspondence to:**

35
36 Solomon Hailemariam, E-mail: solomon0917242124@gmail.com , Phone: +251917242124
37

38
39 **Word count:** 3390
40

41
42 **Number of figures and tables:** 5
43

44
45 **ABSTRACT**
46

47
48 **Objective:** To assess whether pulse oximetry improves health workers' performance in
49
50 diagnosing severe childhood pneumonia at primary health care units in Southern Ethiopia.
51

52
53 **Design:** Parallel cluster randomized trial.
54

55
56 **Setting:** Government health centres
57

58
59 **Participants:** Twenty-four health centres that treat at least one pneumonia case per day in
60
Southern Ethiopia. Children between 2 months and 59 months-of-age who present at health
facilities with cough or difficulty breathing were included in the study.

1
2
3 **Intervention arm:** Use of the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) algorithm
4 and pulse oximeter.
5
6

7 **Control arm:** Use of the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) algorithm
8 only.
9
10

11 **Primary and secondary outcome measures:** The primary outcome was the proportion
12 children diagnosed with severe pneumonia. Secondary outcomes included referred cases of
13 severe pneumonia and treatment failure on day 14 after enrolment.
14
15
16
17

18 **Result:** Twenty-four health centres were randomized into intervention (928 children) and
19 control arms (876 children). The proportion of children with severe pneumonia was 15.9% in
20 the intervention arm and 3.9% in the control arm. After adjusting for differences in baseline
21 variables, children in the intervention arm were more likely to be diagnosed as severe
22 pneumonia cases as compared to those in the control arm (AOR= 5.4, 95% CI 2.0–14.3).
23
24
25
26
27
28
29

30 **Conclusion:** The combined use of Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) and
31 pulse oximetry in health centres improves diagnostic precision of severe childhood
32 pneumonia.
33
34
35
36

37 **Trial registration:** PACTR201807164196402 (14/06/2018).
38
39

40 **Keywords:** Community child health, Public health, Respiratory infection.
41
42

43 **Strengths and limitations of this study**

- 44 ➤ Randomly allocation of health centres to intervention and control arms
- 45
- 46 ➤ Participating health centres were typical of such institutions in rural communities in
47 Ethiopia.
- 48
- 49 ➤ Robust training on how use the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness
50 algorithm, and how to measure oxygen saturation.
- 51
- 52 ➤ Due to the nature of the intervention, inability to mask the health workers and the
53 study participants of the intervention.
- 54
- 55
- 56
- 57
- 58
- 59
- 60

- 1
2
3 ➤ Unequal number of children seeking health care between the two comparison arms.
4
5
6
7

8 **INTRODUCTION**

9
10 Pneumonia killed approximately 920,000 children less than five years-of-age in 2015.[1] The
11 mortality rate is especially high in Ethiopia, and 59 deaths per 1,000 live births occurred in
12 2017 in children less than five years-of-age.[2] Ethiopia ranks sixth among countries with the
13 highest number of deaths from pneumonia.[1]

14
15 The World Health Organization (WHO) Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI)
16 improves the quality of child care for common illnesses,[3, 4] but there is poor diagnostic
17 precision for childhood pneumonia based on clinical features.[5] The ability of health care
18 providers to count breaths and classify respiratory rate in children using the IMCI guidelines
19 is a challenge.[6]

20
21 Clinical signs of pneumonia, such as tachypnoea, inability to drink or breastfeed, and head-
22 nodding, used in the IMCI guidelines, are not able to identify hypoxic children with severe
23 pneumonia as precisely as pulse oximetry.[7] Consequently, many children with severe
24 pneumonia are dying because hypoxemia is not adequately recognized and/or oxygen therapy
25 is unavailable.[1]

26
27 This study is an extension of a study in which we first assessed the health system support of
28 IMCI, where we found that the basic supplies for effective management of pneumonia were
29 inadequate. Indeed, in a large proportion of the surveyed health facilities, essential drugs,
30 vaccines, job aids, and equipment were lacking. We also determined that many health
31 facilities had an insufficient number of IMCI-trained health workers, and were deficient in
32 requisite supportive supervision. In addition, health workers' knowledge of managing severe
33 pneumonia was low.[8]

34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 For the abovementioned reasons, an urgent need exists for interventions that assist health
4 workers to improve the diagnosis of severe childhood pneumonia. This study aimed to
5 compare the effects of the combined use of pulse oximetry and IMCI guidelines, with IMCI
6 guidelines alone, on the management of severe childhood pneumonia at rural health centres in
7 Southern Ethiopia.
8
9
10
11
12
13
14

15 **METHODS**

16 This study adheres to the CONSORT checklist guidelines for cluster randomized trial
17 available as supplementary files (CONSORT checklist). The full protocol of this trial was
18 published at [protocols.io](http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.88mhzu6) (DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.88mhzu6>).
19
20
21
22
23
24

25 **Trial design**

26 The present study constitutes a parallel-cluster randomized controlled trial conducted at 24
27 health centres. An equal number of health centres were allocated into intervention and control
28 arms, i.e., the combined use of IMCI and pulse oximetry (intervention arm), and the IMCI
29 guidelines only (control arm). No changes were made to the design of the study after its
30 commencement.
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39

40 **Study setting and participants**

41 The study was conducted in the Gedeo Zone of Southern Ethiopia. The zone's population is
42 more than one million people, of which approximately 170,000 are children younger than
43 five years-of-age.[9] There are 146 health posts (operational unit for health extension
44 workers), 38 health centres, and one hospital. At these institutions, pneumonia is among the
45 top-10 causes of outpatient treatment, and health professionals utilize the WHO IMCI
46 guidelines to manage pneumonia.[10]
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55

56 The study comprises 24 health centres in the rural Gedeo Zone, each of which treats at least
57 one case of pneumonia per day. Children who were aged 2 months to 59 months with cough
58
59
60

1
2
3 or had difficulty breathing for less than 14 days were included and followed for treatment
4
5 outcome. While Children aged 2 months to 59 months with cough or difficulty breathing for
6
7 more than 14 days, or whose diagnoses were for other conditions, such as pulmonary
8
9 tuberculosis, were excluded. In both arms, the assessment for inclusion and exclusion of
10
11 children were identical. Pulse oximetry was not used to screen patients for inclusion in the
12
13 study.
14
15

16 17 18 **Trial interventions**

19
20 Health workers from the intervention arm used the WHO IMCI guidelines,[10] and a
21
22 paediatric fingertip pulse oximeter (ADC® Adimals 2150) to diagnose pneumonia. Oxygen
23
24 saturation was measured twice, 5 min apart. The measurement was taken when the child was
25
26 calm, and recorded when the pulse oximetry accurately reflected consistent, high-amplitude
27
28 plethysmographic waveforms associated with stable oxygen saturation for 1 min. Health
29
30 workers from the control arm used the same WHO IMCI guidelines, but without measuring
31
32 oxygen saturation.
33
34

35
36 Training was given for health workers on IMCI guidelines and how to use pulse oximetry.

37
38 An IMCI-trained paediatrician offered the training, which was supported by a video-based
39
40 exercise and practical session that was developed by the WHO and adopted by the Ethiopian
41
42 Federal Ministry of Health.[11] Prior to implementing the trial, a pilot study was conducted
43
44 to estimate the intra and inter observer reliability of the pulse oximetry. Detail about training,
45
46 data collection and pilot results were given in trial protocol

47
48
49 [\(<http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.88mhzu6>\).](http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.88mhzu6)
50
51

52 53 **Study outcomes**

54
55 The primary study outcome was severe pneumonia diagnosed using the IMCI guidelines in
56
57 both arms.[10] The primary study outcome for the intervention arm was severe pneumonia, if
58
59
60

1
2
3 a child with cough or difficulty breathing had at least one of the following general danger
4 signs: inability to drink or breastfeed, vomiting everything, convulsion, or lethargy.

5
6
7 Moreover, one of the following symptoms of pneumonia: fast breathing (respiratory rate ≥ 50
8 breaths/min in children aged 2 to 11 months-old and respiratory rate ≥ 40 breaths/min in
9 children aged 12 months to 5 years-old), lower chest wall in-drawing, and/or average oxygen
10 saturation recorded as a percentage, with a cut-off of 90%.^[12]

11
12
13 The primary study outcome for the control arm was severe pneumonia. Except oxygen
14 saturation, the same diagnosis criteria used for intervention arm was also used to diagnose
15 pneumonia in control arm.

16
17
18 The secondary study outcomes were: Treatment failure on day 14 after enrolment,^[13] and
19 severe pneumonia cases referred to the hospital. We considered treatment failure at day 14 if
20 any of the following signs were present: Development or persistence of general danger signs
21 (e.g., inability to drink or breastfeed, vomits everything, convulsions, lethargy, or
22 unconsciousness), persistence of fever (axillary temperature ≥ 37.5 degrees Celsius),
23 persistence of tachypnoea (respiratory rate ≥ 50 breaths/min in children aged 2 to 11 months
24 and ≥ 40 breaths/min in children aged 12 months to 5 years), chest wall in-drawings,
25 presence of persistent cough, recurrence of fever, or death.

26 27 28 **Follow-up visits**

29
30
31 Children in both the intervention and control arms were scheduled for follow-up visits on day
32 2, day 5, and day 14 after enrolment. For children who missed a scheduled follow-up visit,
33 health workers contacted the families at home on the following day. A child who could not be
34 located was considered as lost to follow-up. In such cases, we contacted the participants'
35 family and neighbours by phone to collect information about deaths, relocation, or
36 hospitalizations.

Study size

The sample size was calculated based on a difference in effect size of 10%, power of 90%, 95% significance level, intraclass correlation coefficient of 0.025, and a minimum of 25 children with cough per cluster. Based on previous research, we expected health workers using the IMCI-alone strategy to identify 4% of children with severe pneumonia.[14] With this assumption, we allocated 12 health centres to the intervention and 12 health centres to the control arm.

Randomization

Randomization was done after we obtained consent from the district and health facilities head. The randomization units were health centres. From 38 health centres in the study area, 31 health centres with at least one pneumonia case treated per day were included in the sampling frame. Accordingly, 24 of 31 health centres were randomly selected using the simple random sampling method. Of those 24, 12 were randomly selected for the intervention group and 12 for the control group. This random selection was performed at the University of Bergen using a list generated by SPSS software. The study itself was conducted in Ethiopia. Due to the nature of the intervention, it was impossible to blind the data collectors and the study participants.

Analyses

We used STATA version 15 (Stata Corp. LLC, College Station, TX, U.S.A.) for data analysis. An independent sample t-test for normally distributed continuous variables, Mann-Whitney U-test for skewed continuous variables, and chi-squared test for categorical variables were utilized to compare baseline data in the two arms. Mixed effect logistic regression with random intercept to account for clustering by health centres was used to estimate the effect of the intervention on primary and secondary outcomes. The effect

1
2
3 estimate for primary outcome was expressed in OR with 95% CI. To control for potential
4
5 confounding factors, some of the unbalanced baseline variables, such as child's vaccination,
6
7 parents' wealth, and educational status were considered during the analysis (Table 3).
8
9

10 Individual level variables such as child's age, stunting, and sex constituted other potential
11
12 confounders, and were also adjusted for the regression analysis. Intraclass correlation
13
14 coefficient for the primary outcome was estimated from the random effect model output.
15
16

17 18 **Patient and Public involvement**

19
20 There is no tradition in Ethiopia to invite patient organisations to take part in the planning,
21
22 design and follow up of trials. In this study, and before the implementation of the
23
24 intervention, meetings were held with representatives from the Gedeo Zone Health
25
26 Department, woreda administrators, district health offices, and head of health facilities. The
27
28 meeting was about the burden of childhood pneumonia in the study area and at national level,
29
30 and the purpose of the study. After having the authorities consent to carry out the study,
31
32 written permission was obtained from Zone and district health offices. All patients were
33
34 informed about the purpose of the study, and caregivers were told that involvement is
35
36 voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time regardless of reason. Caregivers were
37
38 briefed about the oximetry procedure and routine pneumonia diagnosis. The caregivers were
39
40 informed that the instrument would not harm the child. They were also assured that refusal to
41
42 participate in the study would not affect their medical care in health centres. The findings of
43
44 this study will be communicated to each of the health institutions and through the institutions
45
46 to the patients.
47
48
49
50
51

52 53 **RESULTS**

54
55 Twenty-four health centres were randomly and equally assigned into intervention and control
56
57 arms. Children were recruited and followed from September 2018 to April 2019. All of the
58
59
60

24 health centres were included for the primary outcome analysis (see Figure 1 for details on participants' flow and recruitment).

Baseline data

The baseline characteristics of the study group were comparable, except for Pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b vaccines, and educational and wealth status of parents (Table 1).

Table 1. Baseline comparison between groups at individual and cluster level.

Variables	Intervention	Control	P-value
Cluster level			
Number of clusters	12	12	
Number children age less than five years of age in the catchment area	63,285	50,629	
Total number of children attending health centres	2600	1755	
Total number of eligible children	928	876	
Number of eligible children per cluster	77	73	0.668
Sex of health workers			0.653
Male	8	9	
Female	4	3	
Age of health workers in year: Mean (SD)	29 (4.5)	26 (2.8)	0.171
Total service duration in months: Median (IQR)	37 (30 to 81)	45 (25 to 68)	0.932 ^a
Service in child care in months: Median (IQR)	25 (23 to 45)	21 (8 to 56)	0.713 ^a
Previous training in IMCI			1.000
Yes	7	8	
No	5	4	
Profession of health workers			0.632
Health officer	2	4	
BSc nursing	1	1	
Diploma nursing	9	7	

Number of eligible children per cluster	77	73	0.668
Individual level			
Sex of child			0.354
Boys	479/914 (52%)	475/870 (55%)	
Girls	435/914 (48%)	395/870 (45%)	
Duration of cough or difficulty breathing in days: Mean (SD)	3.8 (2.3)	3.8 (1.9)	0.627
Age of child in months: Median (IQR)	12 (7 to 28)	12 (7 to 25)	0.277 ^a
Weight-for-age-z score: Median (IQR)	-1.0 (-2.0, 0.1)	-1.1 (-2.2, 0.1)	0.781 ^a
Weight-for-height-z score: Median (IQR)	-0.1 (-1.4, 1.4)	-0.1 (-1.7, 1.8)	0.885 ^a
Height-for-age-z score: Median (IQR)	-1.7 (-3.4, -0.0)	-1.8 (-3.5, -0.1)	0.607 ^a
Pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b vaccines			0.044
Fully vaccinated	668/928 (72.0%)	667/876 (76.1%)	
Partially vaccinated	260/928 (28.0%)	209/876 (23.9%)	
Age of caregivers in years: Mean (SD)	26.6 (6.2)	27.1 (4.7)	0.055
Educational status of caregivers			<0.001
No education	386/927 (41.6%)	437/875 (49.9%)	
Primary	432/927 (46.6%)	371/875 (42.4%)	
Secondary and above	109/927 (11.8%)	67/875 (7.7%)	
Wealth tertiles			<0.001
Poor	217/830 (26.1%)	322/789 (40.8%)	
Medium	313/830 (37.7%)	208/789 (26.4%)	
Rich	300/830 (36.1%)	259/789 (32.8%)	

^a Mann-Whitney U-test

Hypoxemia

A total of 1804 children were enrolled in the study, of which 928 children were enrolled into the intervention and 876 into the control arm. Of the 928 children in the intervention arm, 135/928 (14.5%) had oxygen saturation of less than 90%. A total of 148 severe pneumonia cases were diagnosed in the intervention arm and, of these, 70 cases (47.3%) were diagnosed

only using pulse oximetry, 65 (43.9%) were diagnosed both using IMCI and pulse oximetry, and 13 (8.8%) were diagnosed using the IMCI strategy alone. The overall mean oxygen saturation was 92.4% (SD = 5.3). The mean oxygen saturation among children diagnosed with severe pneumonia was 79.0%, (SD = 9.4), while among pneumonia cases the mean was 93.2% (SD = 2.7), and for children with common cold the mean was 95.0% (SD=2.2).

In addition, we estimated the sensitivity and specificity of the two clinical signs used in WHO IMCI guidelines to diagnose pneumonia (fast breathing and chest in-drawing). Fast breathing had the highest sensitivity (94), but specificity was low (25) as compared to chest in-drawing (81) (Table 2). Furthermore, using a combination of both symptoms did not improve their predictive ability.

Table 2. Sensitivity and specificity of clinical signs.

Clinical signs	Pulse oximeter			Sensitivity	Specificity	Positive predictive value	Negative predictive value
	Hypoxemia	No hypoxemia	Total				
Chest in-drawing				59	81	35	92
Yes	79	147	226				
No	56	626	682				
Total	135	773	908				
Fast breathing				94	25	18	96
Yes	127	587	714				
No	8	194	202				
Total	135	781	916				
Chest in-drawing and fast breathing				57	82	35	92
Yes	78	145	223				
No	57	641	698				
Total	135	786	921				

Outcomes and estimation

The cluster adjusted proportion of diagnosed severe pneumonia was 148/928 (15.9%, 95% CI 4.7– 27.2) for the intervention arm and 34/876 (3.9%, 95% CI 1.2 – 6.6) for the control arm.

The odds ratio of being diagnosed with severe pneumonia for children in the intervention arm was (COR= 4.7, 95% CI 1.9 –11.8) as compared to the control arm. The effect of the

intervention remained the same after adjusting for each of the baseline variables (Table 3). In addition, children who were boys, aged 2 months to 11 months, height for age z-scores less than -2, and not fully vaccinated for Pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b were more likely to be diagnosed with severe pneumonia than their counterparts (Table 3). From the random effect model, the intraclass correlation coefficient for severe pneumonia (ICC) was 0.04322.

Table 3. Odds ratio from the multilevel logistic regression model comparing the proportion of diagnosed severe pneumonia between the arms.

Variables		Bivariate analysis						Multivariate analysis		
		Yes	No	Total	COR*	(95% CI)	P-value	AOR**	(95% CI)	p-value
Intervention	Yes	148	780	928	4.7	(1.9–11.8)	0.001	5.4	(2.0–14.3)	0.001
	No	34	842	876	1			1		
Sex of child	Boy	113	841	954	1.9	(1.1–3.1)	0.014	1.5	(1.1–2.3)	0.033
	Girl	69	761	830	1			1		
Age of child (months)	2 - 11	93	680	773	1.7	(1.2–2.4)	0.005	1.7	(1.1–2.6)	0.011
	12 - 59	89	942	1031	1			1		
Height-for-age z-score (<-2)	Yes	87	676	763	1.5	(1.0–2.3)	0.031	1.5	(1.0–2.3)	0.055
	No	73	841	914	1			1		
Pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b vaccines	Partially vaccinated	67	402	469	2.0	(1.3–3.0)	0.001	1.7	(1.1–2.7)	0.043
	Fully vaccinated	115	1220	1335	1			1		
Educational status of parents	No education	96	727	823	1.7	(0.9–3.3)	0.110	1.1	(0.5–2.3)	0.797
	Primary	72	731	803	1.4	(0.7–2.6)	0.356	1.3	(0.6–2.6)	0.487
	Secondary	14	162	176	1			1		
Wealth tertiles	Poor	52	487	539	1.7	(0.8–3.3)	0.147	1.1	(0.7–1.9)	0.617
	Medium	47	474	521	1.3	(0.8–2.3)	0.328	0.9	(0.6–1.5)	0.761
	Rich	58	501	559	1			1		

* Crude odds ratio

** Adjusted odds ratio

After examining the clustering effect, the proportion of children with severe pneumonia referred to the hospital was 116/148 (78.4%, 95% CI 67.6 – 89.2) in the intervention arm and

15/34 (44.1, 95% CI 6.9 – 81.3) in the control arm, with P=0.496. Among these, 62/116 (53.4%) in the intervention arm, and 11/15 (73.3%) in the control arm, reached the hospital and received the standard treatment.

Table 4 shows the total treatment failure, and treatment failure by specific causes, between the arms. The proportion of treatment failure at day 14 was 132/928 (14.2%, 95% CI 6.0 – 22.4) in the intervention arm and similar (93/876; 10.6%, 95% CI 5.2 – 16.1) in the control arm (P = 0.622). There were two deaths in each of the intervention and control arms. Nine children from the intervention and three children from the control arms had persistent cough at day 14.

Table 4. Treatment failures by specific causes at day 14.

Outcome	Treatment failure at day 14	
	Intervention	Control
Total	132/928 (14.2%)	93/876 (10.6%)
General danger signs	17/815 (2.1%)	31/823 (3.8%)
Chest in-drawing	2/815 (0.2%)	3/823 (0.4%)
Persistence of tachypnoea	33/815 (4.0%)	18/823 (2.2%)
Persistence of fever	9/815 (1.1%)	5/823 (0.6%)
Persistent cough	9/815 (1.1%)	3/823 (0.4%)
Lost to follow-up	68/928 (7.3%)	49/876 (5.6%)

Sensitivity analysis

If we use an oxygen saturation cut off < 92% to define hypoxemia, the proportion of children with hypoxemia would be 298/921 (32.4%, 95% CI 16.2 – 48.5). Moreover, the cluster adjusted proportion of severe pneumonia would be 304/928 (32.8%, 95% CI 18.2– 47.3) in the intervention arm, and (COR: 13.3, 95% CI 5.0 – 35.3) as compared to control arm.

DISCUSSION

1
2
3 Introducing pulse oximetry into the WHO IMCI guidelines significantly improved the
4
5 diagnosis of severe childhood pneumonia in health centres. As expected, more children with
6
7 hypoxemia were detected in the intervention group.
8
9

10
11 One of the main strengths of this study is that it was based on randomly selected health
12
13 centres, which are typical of rural communities in Ethiopia. Moreover, we measured oxygen
14
15 saturation after checking the reliability of pulse oximetry in the study area. The intra- and
16
17 inter-rater reliability estimates ranged from good to excellent.[15] In this trial, except for
18
19 educational and wealth status of parents and vaccination status of children, the baseline
20
21 characteristics of the study arms were balanced. To control for bias due to possible
22
23 confounding factors, we used estimates adjusted for those potential confounders.
24
25
26

27
28 The present study also possesses certain limitations that are worth noting. The number of
29
30 children who attended the facilities were larger in the intervention arm than in the control
31
32 group. This might be due to the following two reasons: First, the base population in the
33
34 intervention arm was large (63,285) as compared to the control base population (50,629).
35
36 Accordingly, proportionally more children 2600/63,285 (4.1%) from the intervention arm
37
38 attended the study facilities than the control arm 1755/50,629 (3.5%). Second, during the
39
40 study period, approximately one million people were displaced due to inter-communal
41
42 violence in the study area.[16] From six refugee camps for the displaced people, four camps
43
44 were found in the intervention areas.[17] This might have drawn more children to seek
45
46 medical care in the intervention centres.
47
48
49

50
51 Our trial also did not confirm the diagnosis of severe pneumonia using radiological
52
53 examination. Hypoxemia can also occur in diseases other than childhood pneumonia,
54
55 including sepsis, meningitis, and severe malaria.[18] Our trial could include children with
56
57 acute bronchitis or acute bronchiolitis and lobar pneumonia. We used the WHO IMCI
58
59
60

1
2
3 guidelines, which labelled these diseases clinically as pneumonia, and our findings should be
4
5 interpreted within this context.
6
7

8
9 The IMCI guidelines are based on clinical symptoms, and do not involve any objective
10
11 diagnostic test to identify children with severe pneumonia.[19] Health workers often
12
13 misclassify pneumonia from severe pneumonia cases because of difficulty with interpretation
14
15 of danger signs.[20] In our trial, we attempted to show how pulse oximetry assisted health
16
17 workers in identifying severe pneumonia cases through detecting hypoxemia. The combined
18
19 use of pulse oximetry with the WHO IMCI algorithm achieves better performance than the
20
21 IMCI algorithm alone in identifying children with hypoxemia requiring oxygen therapy.[7,
22
23 21]

24
25
26
27 Chest in-drawings and fast breathing are keys to enable health workers to identify and
28
29 provide treatment for childhood pneumonia.[22] However, IMCI-based respiratory rate and
30
31 chest in-drawing increase the misclassification of pneumonia cases.[23] In subgroup analysis
32
33 for the intervention arm of 135 children with hypoxemia, 56 of them did not have chest in-
34
35 drawing. This means that, without pulse oximetry, 56/135 (42%) children would have been
36
37 missed and inappropriately treated. Pulse oximetry identified 67% of children without chest
38
39 in-drawing or danger signs.[24]
40
41
42

43
44 Children aged 2 months to 11 months, and partially immunized children, were more likely to
45
46 be diagnosed with severe pneumonia (approximately two-fold as compared to those fully
47
48 immunised). Our findings are consistent with other results, in which partial immunization
49
50 constitutes a risk factor for childhood pneumonia.[25] A finding from another study also
51
52 demonstrated that older children were less likely to develop childhood pneumonia.[26]
53
54 Interestingly, there was no difference in severe pneumonia cases referred to a hospital
55
56 between the arms. However, the total number of severe pneumonia cases referred to a
57
58 hospital in the study area increased as compared to the number of cases referred to a hospital
59
60

1
2
3 in the study area prior to the implementation of the intervention. In our previous survey of 66
4 severe pneumonia cases, only 18 (27%) were referred to a hospital.[8] In other observational
5
6 research, the utilization of pulse oximetry improved the decision-making of health workers in
7
8 referring children with severe pneumonia.[21, 24]
9
10

11
12 There was also no difference in treatment failure between the trial arms. A significant number
13
14 of children from intervention arm didn't arrive at a hospital. This implies that only providing
15
16 pulse oximetry may be insufficient to improve treatment outcome, as both pulse oximetry and
17
18 adequate management, including oxygen therapy, are critical.[27] However, our study
19
20 suggests that providing adequate pneumonia treatment at peripheral hospitals and health
21
22 centres needs to be considered. Such strategies that decentralise treatment have, for example,
23
24 been shown to reduce maternal mortality.[28]
25
26
27
28
29

30 **Implications**

31
32 Our results could be beneficially applied to health centres with mid-level health workers,
33
34 where the management of childhood pneumonia is based on WHO IMCI guidelines.
35
36 Therefore, the application of this study to health centres in rural Ethiopia could assist to
37
38 significantly reduce childhood mortality from hypoxemia due to severe pneumonia.
39
40
41

42 **CONCLUSION**

43
44 The addition of pulse oximetry to the WHO IMCI algorithm significantly improves the
45
46 diagnosis of severe pneumonia cases in health centres, and could help to substantially reduce
47
48 childhood mortality from hypoxemia. Specific interventions that improve compliance with
49
50 referrals and decentralize treatment to health centres for the management of severe childhood
51
52 pneumonia are urgently needed.
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

What is already known on this subject

- Hypoxemia is a severe manifestation of severe pneumonia. The Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) algorithm based clinical signs is poor in detecting hypoxemia in severe childhood pneumonia. Moreover, the sensitivity and specificity of this algorithm is inadequate in identifying severe pneumonia.

What this study adds

- Our results suggest that combining the existing Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) strategy with pulse oximetry could improve the diagnosis of severe childhood pneumonia.
- Further research in decentralizing the management of severe childhood pneumonia at health centres is needed.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the Norwegian Programme for Capacity Development in Higher Education and Research for Development (NORHED) for funding this study. We also sincerely acknowledge the contributions of the Gedeo Zone Health Department and district health offices in helping to successfully launch the implementation of this study. We are grateful for the health workers and health facilities where the study was conducted. We would also like to sincerely thank the study participants involved in this study.

Contributorship

SH conceptualized the idea, designed the study, wrote the protocol, coordinated the data collection, analysed and interpreted the data, and drafted this manuscript. BL conceptualized the idea, guided the study design, wrote the protocol, analysed and interpreted the data, took part in the proposal writing and writing of this manuscript. EL provided methodological

1
2
3 advice, supported the analysis and revised the draft paper. KAJ provided methodological
4
5 advice and revised the draft paper. YG took part in the training of staff at the health centres,
6
7 monitored data collection and revised the draft paper. All authors read and approved the
8
9 submitted version of the manuscript.
10
11

12 **Funding**

13
14 This work was supported by the Norwegian Programme for Capacity Development in Higher
15
16 Education and Research for Development (NORHED). The funder had no role in the design,
17
18 data collection, analysis, interpretation, writing of the manuscript, or decision to submit the
19
20 paper for publication.
21
22

23
24 **Competing interests:** None declared

25
26 **Patient consent for publication:** Not required

27 **Ethics approval**

28
29 The study was approved by the institutional review board of the College of Medicine and
30
31 Health Sciences at Hawassa University (ref: IRB/009//2017) and the Regional Committees
32
33 for Medical Research Ethics, South East Norway (ref: 2017/2473/REK sør-øst). Children
34
35 were included in the study after giving written informed consent by parents.
36
37
38

39
40 **Data availability statement:** The data for this trial will be published if the paper is accepted.

41
42 We usually post such data sets at <https://osf.io>

43 **REFERENCES**

- 44
45 1. UNICEF (2016): One is too many: ending child deaths from pneumonia and diarrhoea.
46 UNICEF DATA. [https://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/UNICEF-Pneumonia-](https://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/UNICEF-Pneumonia-Diarrhoea-report2016-web-version.pdf)
47 [Diarrhoea-report2016-web-version.pdf](https://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/UNICEF-Pneumonia-Diarrhoea-report2016-web-version.pdf). Accessed 06 March 2019.
48
49 2. WHO, UNICEF, World Bank Group, United Nations. Levels & trends in child mortality: Report
50 2017. <http://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/Child-Mortality-Report-2018.pdf>.
51 Accessed 06 March 2019.
52
53 3. Amaral J, Gouws E, Bryce J, et al. Effect of Integrated Management of Childhood Illness
54 (IMCI) on health worker performance in Northeast-Brazil. *Cadernos de saude publica* 2004;20 Suppl
55 2:S209-19.
56
57 4. Bryce J, Gouws E, Adam T, et al. Improving quality and efficiency of facility-based child health
58 care through Integrated Management of Childhood Illness in Tanzania. *Health policy and planning*
59 2005;20 Suppl 1:i69-i76.
60

- 1
 - 2
 - 3
 - 4
 - 5
 - 6
 - 7
 - 8
 - 9
 - 10
 - 11
 - 12
 - 13
 - 14
 - 15
 - 16
 - 17
 - 18
 - 19
 - 20
 - 21
 - 22
 - 23
 - 24
 - 25
 - 26
 - 27
 - 28
 - 29
 - 30
 - 31
 - 32
 - 33
 - 34
 - 35
 - 36
 - 37
 - 38
 - 39
 - 40
 - 41
 - 42
 - 43
 - 44
 - 45
 - 46
 - 47
 - 48
 - 49
 - 50
 - 51
 - 52
 - 53
 - 54
 - 55
 - 56
 - 57
 - 58
 - 59
 - 60
5. Armstrong Schellenberg JR, Adam T, Mshinda H, et al. Effectiveness and cost of facility-based Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) in Tanzania. *Lancet* (London, England) 2004;364(9445):1583-94.
6. Armstrong Schellenberg J, Bryce J, de Savigny D, et al. The effect of Integrated Management of Childhood Illness on observed quality of care of under-fives in rural Tanzania. *Health policy and planning* 2004;19(1):1-10.
7. Alwadi V, Dewan P, Malhotra RK, et al. Tachypnea and Other Danger Signs vs Pulse Oximetry for Prediction of Hypoxia in Severe Pneumonia/Very Severe Disease. *Indian pediatrics* 2017;54(9):729-34.
8. Hailemariam S, Gebeyehu Y, Loha E, et al. Inadequate management of pneumonia among children in South Ethiopia: findings from descriptive study. *BMC health services research* 2019;19(1):426.
9. South Nations, Nationalities, and Peoples Region's. Gedeo Zone Administration Office. <http://www.gedeozone.gov.et/Health.html>. Accessed 02 February 2017.
10. World Health Organization. Integrated Management of Childhood Illness, chart booklet. (WHO, March 2014). Available http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/104772/16/9789241506823_Chartbook_eng.pdf. Accessed 02 February 2017.
11. World Health Organization. IMCI in-service training Modules. Integrated management of childhood illness. Assess and classify the sick child age 2months up to 5 years. World Health organization and UNICEF, 1997. http://www.who.int/maternal_child_adolescent/documents/9241595650/en/. Accessed 25 May 2018. .
12. World Health Organization. Oxygen therapy for children: a manual for health workers. World Health Organization, 2016. Geneva, Switzerland. http://WWW.apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/204584/.../9789241549554_eng.pdf. Accessed 17 April 2018.
13. Vilas-Boas AL, Fontoura MS, Xavier-Souza G, et al. Comparison of oral amoxicillin given thrice or twice daily to children between 2 and 59 months old with non-severe pneumonia: a randomized controlled trial. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2014;69(7):1954-9.
14. Simoes EA, Desta T, Tessema T, et al. Performance of health workers after training in integrated management of childhood illness in Gondar, Ethiopia. *Bull World Health Organ* 1997;75 Suppl 1:43-53.
15. Koo TK, Li MY. A Guideline of Selecting and Reporting Intraclass Correlation Coefficients for Reliability Research. *Journal of Chiropractic Medicine* 2016;15(2):155-63.
16. UNHCR: The united Nations Refugee Agency. http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Operational_Update_OCTNOV.pdf. Accessed 30 October 2019. .
17. United Nations Office for the coordination of Humanitarian Affairs: ETHIOPIA HUMANITARIAN FUND. http://www.unocha.org/sites/unocha/files/EHF%20Reserve%20Allocation%20Strategy%20Paper_%207%20August%202018.pdf. Accessed 30 October 2019. .
18. Duke T, Graham SM, Cherian MN, et al. Oxygen is an essential medicine: a call for international action. *The international journal of tuberculosis and lung disease : the official journal of the International Union against Tuberculosis and Lung Disease* 2010;14(11):1362-8.
19. Gove S. for WHO Working Group on Guidelines for Integrated Management of the Sick Child. Integrated management of childhood illness by outpatient health workers: technical basis and overview. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 1997;75(Suppl 1):7-24.
20. Anand K, Patro BK, Paul E, et al. Management of sick children by health workers in Ballabgarh: lessons for implementation of IMCI in India. *Journal of tropical pediatrics* 2004;50(1):41-7.

- 1
2
3 21. Garde A, Zhou G, Raihana S, et al. Respiratory rate and pulse oximetry derived information
4 as predictors of hospital admission in young children in Bangladesh: a prospective observational
5 study. *BMJ open* 2016;6(8):e011094.
6
7 22. World Health Organization. Programme of Acute Respiratory Infections. (1990). Acute
8 respiratory infections in children : case management in small hospitals in developing countries.
9 Geneva WHO 1990. <http://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/61873>. Accessed 02 February 2017.
10
11 23. McCollum ED, Ginsburg AS. Outpatient Management of Children With World Health
12 Organization Chest Indrawing Pneumonia: Implementation Risks and Proposed Solutions. *Clinical*
13 *infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America*
14 2017;65(9):1560-4.
15
16 24. McCollum ED, King C, Deula R, et al. Pulse oximetry for children with pneumonia treated as
17 outpatients in rural Malawi. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 2016;94(12):893.
18
19 25. Gothankar J, Doke P, Dhumale G, et al. Reported incidence and risk factors of childhood
20 pneumonia in India: a community-based cross-sectional study. *BMC public health* 2018;18(1):1111.
21
22 26. Hisato K, Raita T, Mayuko S, et al. Incidence and Risk Factors of Childhood Pneumonia-Like
23 Episodes in Biliran Island, Philippines--A Community-Based Study. *PloS one* 2015;10(5):e0125009.
24
25 27. Wandt F, Peel D, Duke T. Hypoxaemia among children in rural hospitals in Papua New
26 Guinea: epidemiology and resource availability--a study to support a national oxygen programme.
27 *Annals of tropical paediatrics* 2006;26(4):277-84.
28
29 28. Lindtjørn B, Mitiku D, Zidda Z, et al. Reducing Maternal Deaths in Ethiopia: Results of an
30 Intervention Programme in Southwest Ethiopia. *PloS one* 2017;12(1):e0169304-e.
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

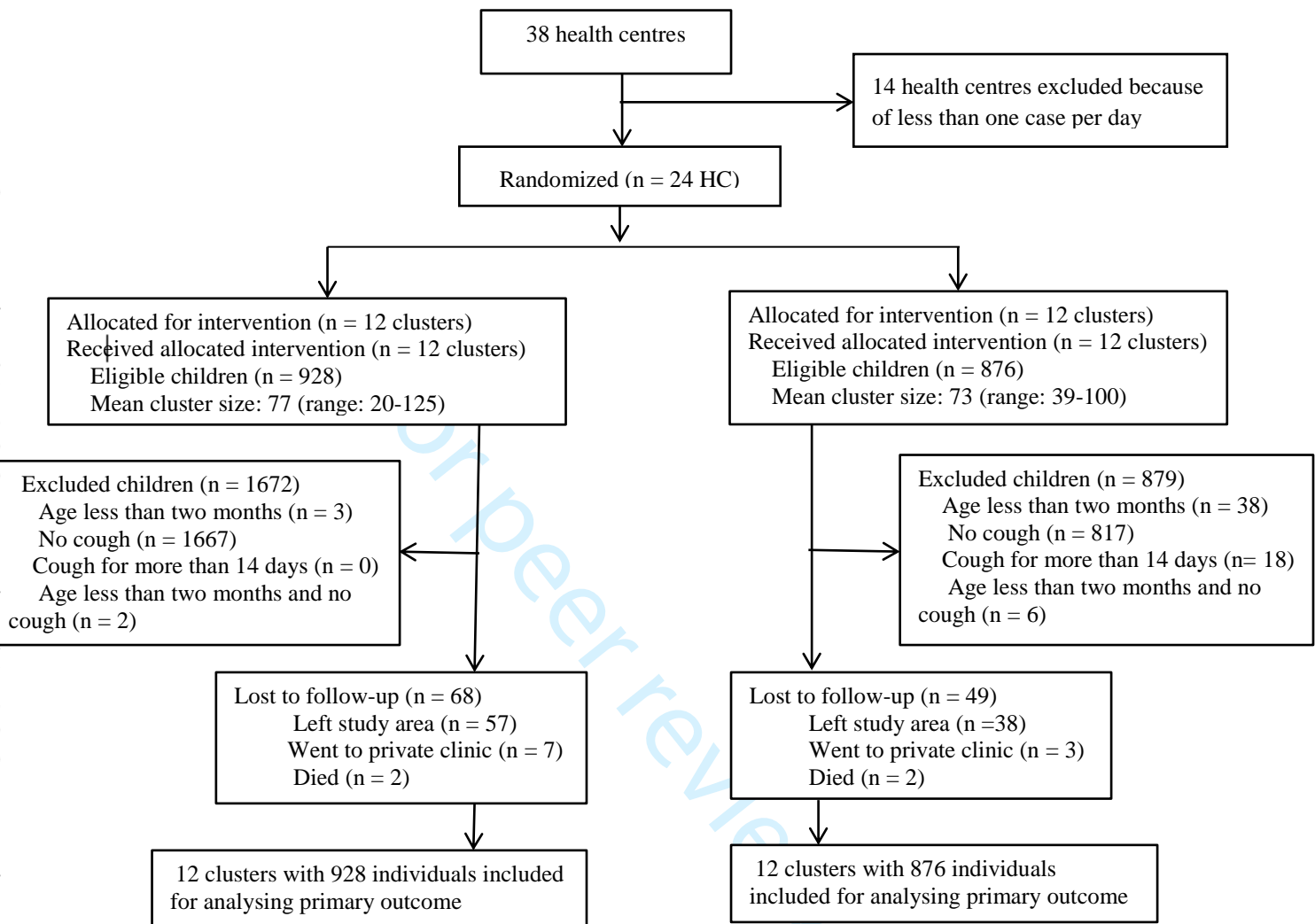


Table 1: CONSORT 2010 checklist of information to include when reporting a cluster randomised trial

Section/Topic	Item No	Standard Checklist item	Extension for cluster designs	Page No *
Title and abstract				
	1a	Identification as a randomised trial in the title	Identification as a cluster randomised trial in the title	1
	1b	Structured summary of trial design, methods, results, and conclusions (for specific guidance see CONSORT for abstracts) ^{1,2}	See table 2	1,2
Introduction				
Background and objectives	2a	Scientific background and explanation of rationale	Rationale for using a cluster design	3
	2b	Specific objectives or hypotheses	Whether objectives pertain to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both	3,4
Methods				
Trial design	3a	Description of trial design (such as parallel, factorial) including allocation ratio	Definition of cluster and description of how the design features apply to the clusters	4
	3b	Important changes to methods after trial commencement (such as eligibility criteria), with reasons		
Participants	4a	Eligibility criteria for participants	Eligibility criteria for clusters	4,5
	4b	Settings and locations where the data were collected		4,5
Interventions	5	The interventions for each group with sufficient details to allow replication, including how and when they were actually administered	Whether interventions pertain to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both	5
Outcomes	6a	Completely defined pre-specified primary and secondary outcome measures, including how and	Whether outcome measures pertain to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both	5,6

		when they were assessed	
	6b	Any changes to trial outcomes after the trial commenced, with reasons	
Sample size	7a	How sample size was determined	Method of calculation, number of clusters(s) (and whether equal or unequal cluster sizes are assumed), cluster size, a coefficient of intracluster correlation (ICC or k), and an indication of its uncertainty 7
	7b	When applicable, explanation of any interim analyses and stopping guidelines	
Randomisation:			
Sequence generation	8a	Method used to generate the random allocation sequence	7
	8b	Type of randomisation; details of any restriction (such as blocking and block size)	Details of stratification or matching if used
Allocation concealment mechanism	9	Mechanism used to implement the random allocation sequence (such as sequentially numbered containers), describing any steps taken to conceal the sequence until interventions were assigned	Specification that allocation was based on clusters rather than individuals and whether allocation concealment (if any) was at the cluster level, the individual participant level or both 7
Implementation	10	Who generated the random allocation sequence, who enrolled participants, and who assigned participants to interventions	Replace by 10a, 10b and 10c
	10a		Who generated the random allocation sequence, who enrolled clusters, and who assigned clusters to interventions 7
	10b		Mechanism by which individual participants were included in clusters for the purposes of the trial (such as complete 7

			enumeration, random sampling)	
	10c		From whom consent was sought (representatives of the cluster, or individual cluster members, or both), and whether consent was sought before or after randomisation	7,8
Blinding	11a	If done, who was blinded after assignment to interventions (for example, participants, care providers, those assessing outcomes) and how		7
	11b	If relevant, description of the similarity of interventions		
Statistical methods	12a	Statistical methods used to compare groups for primary and secondary outcomes	How clustering was taken into account	7,8
	12b	Methods for additional analyses, such as subgroup analyses and adjusted analyses		
Results				
Participant flow (a diagram is strongly recommended)	13a	For each group, the numbers of participants who were randomly assigned, received intended treatment, and were analysed for the primary outcome	For each group, the numbers of clusters that were randomly assigned, received intended treatment, and were analysed for the primary outcome	8,9 and figure supplemented as separate file
	13b	For each group, losses and exclusions after randomisation, together with reasons	For each group, losses and exclusions for both clusters and individual cluster members	8, and figure supplemented as separate file
Recruitment	14a	Dates defining the periods of recruitment and follow-up		8
	14b	Why the trial ended or was stopped		
Baseline data	15	A table showing baseline demographic and clinical	Baseline characteristics for the individual and cluster levels as	8, and table 1 on

		characteristics for each group	applicable for each group	page 9,10
Numbers analysed	16	For each group, number of participants (denominator) included in each analysis and whether the analysis was by original assigned groups	For each group, number of clusters included in each analysis	8
Outcomes and estimation	17a	For each primary and secondary outcome, results for each group, and the estimated effect size and its precision (such as 95% confidence interval)	Results at the individual or cluster level as applicable and a coefficient of intracluster correlation (ICC or k) for each primary outcome	10, 11
	17b	For binary outcomes, presentation of both absolute and relative effect sizes is recommended		12 (Table 3)
Ancillary analyses	18	Results of any other analyses performed, including subgroup analyses and adjusted analyses, distinguishing pre-specified from exploratory		
Harms	19	All important harms or unintended effects in each group (for specific guidance see CONSORT for harms ³)		
Discussion				
Limitations	20	Trial limitations, addressing sources of potential bias, imprecision, and, if relevant, multiplicity of analyses		14
Generalisability	21	Generalisability (external validity, applicability) of the trial findings	Generalisability to clusters and/or individual participants (as relevant)	16
Interpretation	22	Interpretation consistent with results, balancing benefits and harms, and considering other relevant evidence		14,15,16
Other information				
Registration	23	Registration number and		2

		name of trial registry	
Protocol	24	Where the full trial protocol can be accessed, if available	4,5
Funding	25	Sources of funding and other support (such as supply of drugs), role of funders	18

** Note: page numbers optional depending on journal requirements*

For peer review only

Table 2: Extension of CONSORT for abstracts^{1,2} to reports of cluster randomised trials

Item	Standard Checklist item	Extension for cluster trials
Title	Identification of study as randomised	Identification of study as cluster randomised
Trial design	Description of the trial design (e.g. parallel, cluster, non-inferiority)	
Methods		
Participants	Eligibility criteria for participants and the settings where the data were collected	Eligibility criteria for clusters
Interventions	Interventions intended for each group	
Objective	Specific objective or hypothesis	Whether objective or hypothesis pertains to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both
Outcome	Clearly defined primary outcome for this report	Whether the primary outcome pertains to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both
Randomization	How participants were allocated to interventions	How clusters were allocated to interventions
Blinding (masking)	Whether or not participants, care givers, and those assessing the outcomes were blinded to group assignment	
Results		
Numbers randomized	Number of participants randomized to each group	Number of clusters randomized to each group
Recruitment	Trial status ¹	
Numbers analysed	Number of participants analysed in each group	Number of clusters analysed in each group
Outcome	For the primary outcome, a result for each group and the estimated effect size and its precision	Results at the cluster or individual participant level as applicable for each primary outcome
Harms	Important adverse events or side effects	
Conclusions	General interpretation of the results	
Trial registration	Registration number and name of trial register	
Funding	Source of funding	

¹ Relevant to Conference Abstracts

REFERENCES

- 1 Hopewell S, Clarke M, Moher D, Wager E, Middleton P, Altman DG, et al. CONSORT for reporting randomised trials in journal and conference abstracts. *Lancet* 2008, 371:281-283
- 2 Hopewell S, Clarke M, Moher D, Wager E, Middleton P, Altman DG at al (2008) CONSORT for reporting randomized controlled trials in journal and conference abstracts: explanation and elaboration. *PLoS Med* 5(1): e20
- 3 Ioannidis JP, Evans SJ, Gotzsche PC, O'Neill RT, Altman DG, Schulz K, Moher D. Better reporting of harms in randomized trials: an extension of the CONSORT statement. *Ann Intern Med* 2004; 141(10):781-788.

For peer review only

BMJ Open

Pulse oximeter with integrated management of childhood illness for diagnosis of severe childhood pneumonia at rural health institutions in Southern Ethiopia: Results from a cluster-randomized controlled trial

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2020-036814.R1
Article Type:	Original research
Date Submitted by the Author:	03-Mar-2020
Complete List of Authors:	Tesfaye, Solomon H.; Hawassa University College of Medicine and Health Sciences, School of public health; University of Bergen Centre for International Health, Global public health and primary care Gebeyehu, Yabibal ; Dilla University College of Health Sciences, School of medicine Loha, Eskindir ; Hawassa University College of Medicine and Health Sciences, School of public health; London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine Department of Infectious Disease Epidemiology Johansson, Kjell Arne; University of Bergen Centre for International Health, Global public health and primary care Lindtjørn , Bernt ; Hawassa University College of Medicine and Health Sciences, School of public health; University of Bergen Centre for International Health, Global public health and primary care
Primary Subject Heading:	Paediatrics
Secondary Subject Heading:	Public health
Keywords:	Community child health < PAEDIATRICS, PUBLIC HEALTH, Respiratory infections < THORACIC MEDICINE

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts



I, the Submitting Author has the right to grant and does grant on behalf of all authors of the Work (as defined in the below author licence), an exclusive licence and/or a non-exclusive licence for contributions from authors who are: i) UK Crown employees; ii) where BMJ has agreed a CC-BY licence shall apply, and/or iii) in accordance with the terms applicable for US Federal Government officers or employees acting as part of their official duties; on a worldwide, perpetual, irrevocable, royalty-free basis to BMJ Publishing Group Ltd ("BMJ") its licensees and where the relevant Journal is co-owned by BMJ to the co-owners of the Journal, to publish the Work in this journal and any other BMJ products and to exploit all rights, as set out in our [licence](#).

The Submitting Author accepts and understands that any supply made under these terms is made by BMJ to the Submitting Author unless you are acting as an employee on behalf of your employer or a postgraduate student of an affiliated institution which is paying any applicable article publishing charge ("APC") for Open Access articles. Where the Submitting Author wishes to make the Work available on an Open Access basis (and intends to pay the relevant APC), the terms of reuse of such Open Access shall be governed by a Creative Commons licence – details of these licences and which [Creative Commons](#) licence will apply to this Work are set out in our licence referred to above.

Other than as permitted in any relevant BMJ Author's Self Archiving Policies, I confirm this Work has not been accepted for publication elsewhere, is not being considered for publication elsewhere and does not duplicate material already published. I confirm all authors consent to publication of this Work and authorise the granting of this licence.

1
2
3 **Pulse oximeter with integrated management of childhood illness for diagnosis of severe**
4 **childhood pneumonia at rural health institutions in Southern Ethiopia: Results from a**
5 **cluster-randomized controlled trial**
6
7
8
9

10
11 Solomon H. Tesfaye^{1,2,3}, Yabibal Gebeyehu⁴, Eskindir Loha^{1,5}, Kjell Arne Johansson²,
12
13 and Bernt Lindtjørn^{1,2}
14
15

16
17 ¹ School of Public Health, Hawassa University, Hawassa, Ethiopia
18

19
20 ² Centre for International Health, University of Bergen, Bergen, Norway
21

22
23 ³ School of Public Health, Dilla University, Dilla, Ethiopia
24

25
26 ⁴ School of Medicine, Dilla University, Dilla, Ethiopia
27

28
29 ⁵ Department of Infectious Disease Epidemiology, London School of Hygiene and Tropical
30
31 Medicine, London, United Kingdom
32

33
34 **Correspondence to:**

35
36 Solomon Hailemariam, E-mail: solomon0917242124@gmail.com , Phone: +251917242124
37

38
39 **Word count:** 3445
40

41
42 **Number of figures and tables:** 5
43

44
45 **ABSTRACT**
46

47
48 **Objective:** To assess whether pulse oximetry improves health workers' performance in
49
50 diagnosing severe childhood pneumonia at health centres in Southern Ethiopia.
51

52
53 **Design:** Parallel cluster randomized trial.
54

55
56 **Setting:** Government health centres
57

58
59 **Participants:** Twenty-four health centres that treat at least one pneumonia case per day in
60
Southern Ethiopia. Children between 2 months and 59 months-of-age who present at health
facilities with cough or difficulty breathing were recruited in the study from September, 2018
to April, 2019.

1
2
3 **Intervention arm:** Use of the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) algorithm
4 and pulse oximeter.
5
6

7 **Control arm:** Use of the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) algorithm
8 only.
9
10

11 **Primary and secondary outcome measures:** The primary outcome was the proportion of
12 children diagnosed with severe pneumonia. Secondary outcomes included referred cases of
13 severe pneumonia and treatment failure on day 14 after enrolment.
14
15
16
17

18 **Result:** Twenty-four health centres were randomized into intervention (928 children) and
19 control arms (876 children). The proportion of children with severe pneumonia was 15.9%
20 (148 of 928 children) in the intervention arm and 3.9% (34 of 876 children) in the control
21 arm. After adjusting for differences in baseline variables, children in the intervention arm
22 were more likely to be diagnosed as severe pneumonia cases as compared to those in the
23 control arm adjusted odds ratio 5.4 (95% CI 2.0–14.3).
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 **Conclusion:** The combined use of Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) and
34 pulse oximetry in health centres increased the number of diagnosed severe childhood
35 pneumonia.
36
37
38
39

40 **Trial registration:** PACTR201807164196402 (14/06/2018).
41

42 **Keywords:** Community child health, Public health, Respiratory infection.
43
44
45

46 **Strengths and limitations of this study**

- 47 ➤ Randomly allocation of health centres to intervention and control arms
- 48 ➤ Participating health centres were typical of such institutions in rural communities in
49 Ethiopia.
- 50 ➤ Robust training on how use the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness
51 algorithm, and how to measure oxygen saturation.
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- Due to the nature of the intervention, inability to mask the health workers and the study participants of the intervention.
- Unequal number of children seeking health care between the two comparison arms.

INTRODUCTION

Pneumonia killed approximately 920,000 children less than five years-of-age in 2015.[1] The mortality rate is especially high in Ethiopia, and 59 deaths per 1,000 live births occurred in 2017 in children less than five years-of-age.[2] Ethiopia ranks sixth among countries with the highest number of deaths from pneumonia in children less than five years-of-age.[1]

The World Health Organization (WHO) Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) improves the quality of child care for common illnesses,[3, 4] but there is poor diagnostic precision for childhood pneumonia based on clinical features.[5] The ability of health care providers to count breaths and classify respiratory rate in children using the IMCI algorithm is a challenge.[6]

Clinical signs of pneumonia, such as tachypnoea, inability to drink or breastfeed, and head-nodding, used in the IMCI algorithm, are not able to identify hypoxic children with severe pneumonia as precisely as pulse oximetry.[7] Consequently, many children with severe pneumonia are dying because hypoxemia is not adequately recognized and/or oxygen therapy is unavailable.[1]

This study is an extension of a study in which we first assessed the health system support of IMCI, where we found that the basic supplies for effective management of pneumonia were inadequate. Indeed, in a large proportion of the surveyed health facilities, essential drugs, vaccines, job aids, and equipment were lacking. None of the health centres and health posts had pulse oximeter. We also determined that many health facilities had an insufficient number of IMCI-trained health workers, and were deficient in requisite supportive

1
2
3 supervision. In addition, health workers' knowledge of managing severe pneumonia was
4
5 low.[8]
6

7
8 For the abovementioned reasons, an urgent need exists for interventions that assist health
9
10 workers to improve the diagnosis of severe childhood pneumonia. The objective of the study
11
12 was to assess whether pulse oximetry improves health workers' performance in diagnosing
13
14 severe childhood pneumonia at health centres in Southern Ethiopia.
15
16

17 18 **METHODS**

19
20 This study adheres to the Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) statement
21
22 extension for cluster randomized trials,[9] available as supplementary files (CONSORT
23
24 checklist). The full protocol of this trial was published at [protocols.io](http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.88mhzu6) (DOI:
25
26 <http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.88mhzu6>).
27
28

29 30 **Trial design**

31
32 The study constitutes a parallel-cluster randomized controlled trial conducted at 24 health
33
34 centres. An equal number of health centres were allocated into intervention and control arms,
35
36 i.e., the combined use of IMCI algorithm,[10]and pulse oximetry (intervention arm), and the
37
38 IMCI algorithm only (control arm). No changes were made to the design of the study after its
39
40 commencement.
41
42

43 44 **Study setting and participants**

45
46 The study was conducted in the Gedeo Zone of Southern Ethiopia. The zone's population is
47
48 more than one million people, of which approximately 170,000 are children younger than
49
50 five years-of-age.[11] There are 146 health posts (operational unit for health extension
51
52 workers), 38 health centres, and one hospital. At these institutions, pneumonia is among the
53
54 top-10 causes of outpatient treatment, and currently health professionals in study settings
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 utilize the WHO IMCI algorithm to manage pneumonia and other common childhood
4 illnesses.[10]
5

6
7 The study comprises 24 health centres in the rural Gedeo Zone, each of which treats at least
8 one case of pneumonia per day. Children who were aged 2 months to 59 months with cough
9 or had difficulty breathing for less than 14 days were included and followed for treatment
10 outcome. Children aged 2 months to 59 months with cough or difficulty breathing for more
11 than 14 days, or whose diagnoses were for other conditions, such as pulmonary tuberculosis,
12 were excluded. In both arms, the assessment for inclusion and exclusion of children were
13 identical. Pulse oximetry was not used to screen patients for inclusion in the study. Since
14 there was no pulse oximeter in the study settings, no pulse oximeters were removed from
15 their usual clinical practice for the purpose of the study. The recruitment of children started
16 on September, 2018 and lasted until April, 2019.
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30

31 **Trial interventions**

32 Health workers from the intervention arm used the WHO IMCI algorithm,[10] and a
33 paediatric fingertip pulse oximeter (ADC® Adimals 2150) to diagnose pneumonia. Oxygen
34 saturation was measured twice, 5 min apart. The measurement was taken when the child was
35 calm, and recorded when the pulse oximetry accurately reflected consistent, high-amplitude
36 plethysmographic waveforms associated with stable oxygen saturation for 1 min. Health
37 workers from the control arm used the same WHO IMCI algorithm, but without measuring
38 oxygen saturation.
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

50 Training was given for health workers on IMCI algorithm and how to use pulse oximetry.

51 An IMCI-trained paediatrician offered the training, which was supported by a video-based
52 exercise and practical session that was developed by the WHO and adopted by the Ethiopian
53 Federal Ministry of Health.[12] Prior to implementing the trial, a pilot study was conducted
54 to estimate the intra and inter observer reliability of the pulse oximetry. Detail about training,
55
56
57
58
59
60

data collection and pilot results were given in trial protocol

(<http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.88mhzu6>).

Study outcomes

The primary study outcome was severe pneumonia diagnosed using the IMCI algorithm in both arms.[10] The IMCI criteria used to diagnose severe pneumonia or very severe disease is presented in table 1. In addition to the IMCI criteria, average oxygen saturation less than 90%,[13] was used in the intervention arm.

Table 1 WHO IMCI criteria used to diagnose severe pneumonia or very severe disease.

Variable name	WHO IMCI criteria
Severe pneumonia cases detected for the intervention group	<p>A child with cough or difficult breathing plus at least one of the following signs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Any general danger signs (unable to drink or breastfeed, vomiting everything, convulsion, or lethargic) or stridor in calm child <p>In addition one of the following symptoms of pneumonia:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fast breathing (respiratory rate ≥ 50 breaths/min in children aged 2 up to 11 months and respiratory rate ≥ 40 breaths/min in children aged 12 months up to 5 years) Lower chest wall in-drawing <p>AND/OR</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oxygen saturation $< 90\%$ as measured by pulse oximetry.
Severe pneumonia cases detected for the control group	<p>A child with cough or difficult breathing plus at least one of the following signs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Any general danger signs (unable to drink or breastfeed, vomiting everything, convulsion, or lethargic) or stridor in calm child. <p>In addition one of the following symptoms of pneumonia:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fast breathing (respiratory rate ≥ 50 breaths/min in children aged 2 up to 11 months and respiratory rate ≥ 40 breaths/min in children aged 12 months up to 5 years)

- | | |
|--|---|
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Lower chest wall in-drawing |
|--|---|

The secondary study outcomes were: Treatment failure on day 14 after enrolment,[14] and severe pneumonia cases referred to the hospital. We considered treatment failure at day 14 if any of the following signs were present: Development or persistence of general danger signs (e.g., inability to drink or breastfeed, vomits everything, convulsions, lethargy, or unconsciousness), persistence of fever (axillary temperature ≥ 37.5 degrees Celsius), persistence of tachypnoea (respiratory rate ≥ 50 breaths/min in children aged 2 to 11 months and ≥ 40 breaths/min in children aged 12 months to 5 years), chest wall in-drawings, presence of persistent cough, recurrence of fever, withdrawal from the trial or death. We originally planned to have treatment failure at 2nd, day and cumulative treatment failure at 5th and 14th days. But later, and looking at the natural history of pneumonia, we modified the treatment outcome to be assessed at day 14. In Ethiopia, children with pneumonia will be managed at home and severe pneumonia is expected to be treated at a hospital. If the child had cough or difficulty breathing after 14 days of treatment, children would have been assessed for other diseases, for example tuberculosis. That is also one reason we modified the treatment failure at days 14. Therefore we only analyse treatment failure at day 14.

Follow-up visits

Children in both the intervention and control arms were followed for a total of 14 days. Visits were scheduled on day 2, day 5, and day 14 after enrolment. For children who missed a scheduled follow-up visit, health workers contacted the families at home on the following day. A child who could not be located was considered as lost to follow-up. In such cases, we contacted the participants' family and neighbours by phone to collect information about deaths, relocation, or hospitalizations.

Study size

The sample size was calculated based on a difference in effect size of 10%, power of 90%, 95% significance level, intraclass correlation coefficient of 0.025, and a minimum of 25 children with cough per cluster. Based on previous research, we expected health workers using the IMCI-alone algorithm to identify 4% of children with severe pneumonia.[15] With this assumption, we allocated 12 health centres to the intervention and 12 health centres to the control arm. We recruited children for 8 months (from September, 2018 to April 2019).

Randomization

Randomization was done after we obtained consent from the district and health facilities head. The randomization units were health centres. From 38 health centres in the study area, 31 health centres with at least one pneumonia case treated per day were included in the sampling frame. Accordingly, 24 of 31 health centres were randomly selected using the simple random sampling method. Of those 24, 12 were randomly selected for the intervention group and 12 for the control group. This random selection was performed at the University of Bergen using a list generated by SPSS software. The study itself was conducted in Ethiopia. Due to the nature of the intervention, it was impossible to blind the data collectors and the study participants. Those doing the analysis were not blinded to the intervention allocation.

Analyses

We used Stata version 15 (Stata Corp. LLC, College Station, TX, U.S.A.) for data analysis. An independent sample t-test for normally distributed continuous variables, Mann-Whitney U-test for skewed continuous variables, and chi-squared test for categorical variables were utilized to compare baseline data in the two arms.

Mixed effect logistic regression with random intercept to account for clustering by health centres was used to estimate the effect of the intervention on primary and secondary

1
2
3 outcomes. The effect estimate for primary outcome was expressed in OR with 95% CI, and
4
5 P-value less than 0.05 was considered as statistically significant. To control for potential
6
7 confounding factors, some of the unbalanced baseline variables, such as child's vaccination,
8
9 parents' wealth, and educational status were considered during the analysis. Individual level
10
11 variables such as child's age, stunting, and sex constituted other potential confounders, and
12
13 were also adjusted for the regression analysis. Intraclass correlation coefficient for the
14
15 primary outcome was estimated from the random effect model output.
16
17
18
19

20
21 Where values for baseline variables were missing, they were treated as missing and the
22
23 missed values for few variables were less than 5 percent. Analyses were by intention-to-treat
24
25 (ITT) principle. Those who died or withdraw from the trial were classified as treatment
26
27 failure and included in the ITT analysis.
28
29

30 31 **Patient and Public involvement**

32
33 There is no tradition in Ethiopia to invite patient organisations to take part in the planning,
34
35 design and follow up of trials. In this study, and before the implementation of the
36
37 intervention, meetings were held with representatives from the Gedeo Zone Health
38
39 Department, district health offices, and head of health facilities. The meeting was about the
40
41 burden of childhood pneumonia in the study area and at national level, and the purpose of the
42
43 study. After having the authorities consent to carry out the study, written permission was
44
45 obtained from Zone and district health offices. All patients were informed about the purpose
46
47 of the study, and caregivers were told that involvement is voluntary and that they could
48
49 withdraw at any time regardless of reason. Caregivers were briefed about the oximetry
50
51 procedure and routine pneumonia diagnosis. The caregivers were informed that the
52
53 instrument would not harm the child. They were also assured that refusal to participate in the
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

study would not affect their medical care in health centres. The findings of this study will be communicated to each of the health institutions and through the institutions to the patients.

RESULTS

Twenty-four health centres were randomly and equally assigned into intervention and control arms. Nine hundred twenty eight children in the intervention arm and 876 children in the control arm were recruited and diagnosed for severe pneumonia and followed from September 2018 to April 2019. All of the 24 health centres and all recruited children were included for the primary and secondary outcome analysis on the basis of the original assignment (figure 1 for details on participants' flow and recruitment).

Baseline characteristics

The baseline characteristics of the study group were comparable, except for Pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b vaccines, and educational and wealth status of parents (table 2).

Table 2 Baseline comparison between groups at individual and cluster level.

Variables	Intervention	Control
Cluster level		
Number of clusters	12	12
Number of children age less than five years of age in the catchment area	63,285	50,629
Total number of children attending health centres	2600	1755
Total number of eligible children	928	876
Number of eligible children per cluster	77	73
Sex of health workers		
Male	8	9
Female	4	3
Age of health workers in year: Mean (SD)	29 (4.5)	26 (2.8)

Total service duration in months: Median (IQR)	37 (30 to 81)	45 (25 to 68)
Service in child care in months: Median (IQR)	25 (23 to 45)	21 (8 to 56)
Previous training in IMCI		
Yes	7	8
No	5	4
Profession of health workers		
Health officer	2	4
BSc nursing	1	1
Diploma nursing	9	7
Number of eligible children per cluster	77	73
Individual level		
Sex of child		
Boys	479/914 (52%)	475/870 (55%)
Girls	435/914 (48%)	395/870 (45%)
Duration of cough or difficulty breathing in days: Mean (SD)	3.8 (2.3)	3.8 (1.9)
Age of child in months: Median (IQR)	12 (7 to 28)	12 (7 to 25)
Weight-for-age-z score: Median (IQR)	-1.0 (-2.0, 0.1)	-1.1 (-2.2, 0.1)
Weight-for-height-z score: Median (IQR)	-0.1 (-1.4, 1.4)	-0.1 (-1.7, 1.8)
Height-for-age-z score: Median (IQR)	-1.7 (-3.4, -0.0)	-1.8 (-3.5, -0.1)
Pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b vaccines		
Fully vaccinated	668/928 (72.0%)	667/876 (76.1%)
Partially vaccinated	260/928 (28.0%)	209/876 (23.9%)
Age of caregivers in years: Mean (SD)	26.6 (6.2)	27.1 (4.7)
Educational status of caregivers		
No education	386/927 (41.6%)	437/875 (49.9%)
Primary	432/927 (46.6%)	371/875 (42.4%)
Secondary and above	109/927 (11.8%)	67/875 (7.7%)
Wealth tertiles		
Poor	217/830 (26.1%)	322/789 (40.8%)

Medium	313/830 (37.7%)	208/789 (26.4%)
Rich	300/830 (36.1%)	259/789 (32.8%)

Hypoxemia

A total of 1804 children were enrolled in the study, of which 928 children were enrolled into the intervention and 876 into the control arm. Of the 928 children in the intervention arm, 135/928 (14.5%) had oxygen saturation of less than 90%. A total of 148 severe pneumonia cases were diagnosed in the intervention arm and, of these, 70 cases (47.3%) diagnosed with pneumonia using IMCI algorithm had oxygen saturation < 90%, and were therefore categorized as severe pneumonia, 65 (43.9%) were diagnosed both using IMCI and pulse oximetry, and 13 (8.8%) were diagnosed using the IMCI algorithm alone. The overall median oxygen saturation was 94% (IQR = 91% to 96%). The median oxygen saturation among children diagnosed with severe pneumonia was 82%, (IQR = 72% to 86%), while among pneumonia cases the median was 94%% (IQR = 91% to 95%), and for children with common cold the median was 96%% (IQR=93% to 96%).

In addition, we estimated the sensitivity and specificity of the two clinical signs used in WHO IMCI algorithm to diagnose pneumonia (fast breathing and chest in-drawing). Fast breathing had the highest sensitivity (94), but specificity was low (25) as compared to chest in-drawing (81). Furthermore, using a combination of both symptoms did not improve their predictive ability (see supplementary file, table 1).

Primary outcome

The cluster adjusted proportion of diagnosed severe pneumonia was 148/928 (15.9%, 95% CI 4.7– 27.2) for the intervention arm and 34/876 (3.9%, 95% CI 1.2 – 6.6) for the control arm, and $P < 0.001$. The crude odds ratio of being diagnosed with severe pneumonia for children in the intervention arm was 4.7 (95% CI 1.9 – 11.8; $P < 0.001$) as compared to the control arm. The effect of the intervention remained the same after adjusting for each of the baseline

variables (Table 3). In addition, children who were boys, aged 2 months to 11 months, height for age z-scores less than -2, and not fully vaccinated for Pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b were more likely to be diagnosed with severe pneumonia than their counterparts (table 3). From the random effect model, the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) for severe pneumonia was 0.043.

Table 1 Odds ratio from the multilevel logistic regression model comparing the proportion of diagnosed severe pneumonia between the arms.

Variables		Bivariate analysis					Multivariable analysis			
		Yes	No	Total	COR*	(95% CI)	P-value	AOR**	(95% CI)	p-value
Intervention	Yes	148	780	928	4.7	(1.9–11.8)	0.001	5.4	(2.0–14.3)	0.001
	No	34	842	876	1			1		
Sex of child	Boy	113	841	954	1.9	(1.1–3.1)	0.014	1.5	(1.1–2.3)	0.033
	Girl	69	761	830	1			1		
Age of child (months)	2 - 11	93	680	773	1.7	(1.2–2.4)	0.005	1.7	(1.1–2.6)	0.011
	12 - 59	89	942	1031	1			1		
Height-for-age z-score (<-2)	Yes	87	676	763	1.5	(1.0–2.3)	0.031	1.5	(1.0–2.3)	0.055
	No	73	841	914	1			1		
Pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b vaccines	Partially vaccinated	67	402	469	2.0	(1.3–3.0)	0.001	1.7	(1.1–2.7)	0.043
	Fully vaccinated	115	1220	1335	1			1		
Educational status of parents	No education	96	727	823	1.7	(0.9–3.3)	0.110	1.1	(0.5–2.3)	0.797
	Primary	72	731	803	1.4	(0.7–2.6)	0.356	1.3	(0.6–2.6)	0.487
	Secondary	14	162	176	1			1		
Wealth tertiles	Poor	52	487	539	1.7	(0.8–3.3)	0.147	1.1	(0.7–1.9)	0.617
	Medium	47	474	521	1.3	(0.8–2.3)	0.328	0.9	(0.6–1.5)	0.761
	Rich	58	501	559	1			1		

* Crude odds ratio

** Adjusted odds ratio

Secondary outcomes

After examining the clustering effect, the proportion of children with severe pneumonia referred to the hospital was 116/148 (78.4%, 95% CI 67.6 – 89.2) in the intervention arm and 15/34 (44.1%, 95% CI 6.9 – 81.3) in the control arm, with $P=0.496$. Among these, 62/116 (53.4%) in the intervention arm, and 11/15 (73.3%) in the control arm, reached the hospital and received the standard treatment.

Table 4 shows the total treatment failure, and treatment failure by specific causes, between the arms. The proportion of treatment failure at day 14 was 132/928 (14.2%, 95% CI 6.0 – 22.4) in the intervention arm and 93/876 (10.6%, 95% CI 5.2 – 16.1) in the control arm ($P=0.622$). There were two deaths in each of the intervention and control arms. Nine children from the intervention and three children from the control arms had persistent cough at day 14. The crude odds ratio of treatment failure for children with oxygen saturation $< 90\%$ was 3.3 (95% CI; 1.87 – 5.80) as compared to children with oxygen saturation greater or equal to 90%.

Table 2 Treatment failures by specific causes at day 14.

Outcome	Treatment failure at day 14	
	Intervention	Control
Total	132/928 (14.2%)	93/876 (10.6%)
General danger signs	17/815 (2.1%)	31/823 (3.8%)
Chest in-drawing	2/815 (0.2%)	3/823 (0.4%)
Persistence of tachypnoea	33/815 (4.0%)	18/823 (2.2%)
Persistence of fever	9/815 (1.1%)	5/823 (0.6%)
Persistent cough	9/815 (1.1%)	3/823 (0.4%)
Lost to follow-up	68/928 (7.3%)	49/876 (5.6%)
Death	2/928 (0.22%)	2/876 (0.23%)

Sensitivity analysis

1
2
3 If we use an oxygen saturation cut off < 92% to define hypoxemia, the proportion of children
4 with hypoxemia would be 298/921 (32.4%, 95% CI 16.2 – 48.5). Moreover, the cluster
5 adjusted proportion of severe pneumonia would be 304/928 (32.8%, 95% CI 18.2– 47.3) in
6 the intervention arm, and crude odds ratio 13.3 (95% CI 5.0 – 35.3) as compared to control
7 arm.
8
9

10
11
12
13
14
15
16 One of the health centres in intervention arm is found at high altitude (2993 metres above sea
17 level) and we did a sensitivity analysis adjusting oxygen saturation level at < 87% [13]. The
18 proportion of children with severe pneumonia in intervention arm was 124/928 (13.4%; 95%
19 CI 8.0 – 21.4), and 34/876 (3.9%, 95% CI 1.2 – 6.6) in the control arm. The crude odds ratio
20 of being diagnosed with severe pneumonia for children in the intervention arm was 4.2 (95%
21 CI 1.8 –9.5) as compared to the control arm.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29

30 **DISCUSSION**

31
32
33 Introducing pulse oximetry into the WHO IMCI algorithm significantly increased the
34 diagnosis of severe childhood pneumonia in health centres.
35
36

37
38
39 One of the main strengths of this study is that it was based on randomly selected health
40 centres, which are typical of rural communities in Ethiopia. Moreover, we measured oxygen
41 saturation after checking the reliability of pulse oximetry in the study area. The intra- and
42 inter-rater reliability estimates ranged from good to excellent.[16] In this trial, except for
43 educational and wealth status of parents and vaccination status of children, the baseline
44 characteristics of the study arms were balanced. To control for bias due to possible
45 confounding factors, we used estimates adjusted for those potential confounders.
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53

54
55 The study also possesses certain limitations that are worth noting. The number of children
56 who attended the facilities were larger in the intervention arm than in the control group. This
57 might be due to the following two reasons: First, the base population in the intervention arm
58
59
60

1
2
3 was large (63,285) as compared to the control base population (50,629). Accordingly,
4 proportionally more children 2600/63,285 (4.1%) from the intervention arm attended the
5 study facilities than the control arm 1755/50,629 (3.5%). Second, during the study period,
6 approximately one million people were displaced due to inter-communal violence in the
7 study area.[17] From six refugee camps for the displaced people, four camps were found in
8 the intervention areas.[18] This might have drawn more children to seek medical care in the
9 intervention centres.

10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
Second, the trial also did not confirm the diagnosis of severe pneumonia using radiological
examination. Hypoxemia can also occur in diseases other than childhood pneumonia,
including sepsis, meningitis, and severe malaria.[19] Our trial could include children with
acute bronchitis or acute bronchiolitis and lobar pneumonia. We used the WHO IMCI
algorithm, which labelled these diseases clinically as pneumonia, and our findings should be
interpreted within this context.

Third, Adimals 2150 Pediatric Fingertip' pulse oximeter accurately measures oxygen
saturation of arterial hemoglobin. It is easy to use and apply with the simple press of the
button. However, the device may give inaccurately low oxygen saturation due to low
perfusion,[20] that might not reflect the true oxygen saturation of a child. Therefore, there
may be over diagnosis of severe pneumonia in the intervention arm, as 47% of cases
diagnosed with pneumonia using IMCI algorithm had oxygen saturation < 90%, and
categorized as severe pneumonia in our trial. Previous researches have used to record oxygen
saturation when the reading was stable for 1 minutes,[21] and 3 minutes.[22] We have
recorded oxygen saturation when the reading was stable for 1 minute. However, it is difficult
to get stable oxygen saturation reading in severely ill child in 1 minutes.[23] The fourth
limitation the study was that there were missing values for few of the baseline variables.
However, the missing values were less than 5% and there was no significant difference

1
2
3 between the two trial groups. Another limitation was that we used oxygen saturation level <
4
5 90%, which is high for children living at high altitude. This may increase the false positive
6
7 cases of severe pneumonia. However, our sensitivity analysis shows that the result remains
8
9 statistically significant after adjusting oxygen saturation level of < 87% for children living at
10
11 high altitude [13].
12
13
14

15 The IMCI algorithms are based on clinical symptoms, and do not involve any objective
16
17 diagnostic test to identify children with severe pneumonia.[24] Health workers often
18
19 misclassify pneumonia from severe pneumonia cases because of difficulty with interpretation
20
21 of danger signs.[25] In our trial, we attempted to show how pulse oximetry assisted health
22
23 workers in identifying severe pneumonia cases through detecting hypoxemia. The combined
24
25 use of pulse oximetry with the WHO IMCI algorithm achieves better performance than the
26
27 IMCI algorithm alone in identifying children with hypoxemia requiring oxygen therapy.[7,
28
29
30
31
32
33 26]

34 Chest in-drawings and fast breathing are keys to enable health workers to identify and
35
36 provide treatment for childhood pneumonia.[27] However, IMCI-based respiratory rate and
37
38 chest in-drawing increase the misclassification of pneumonia cases.[28] In subgroup analysis
39
40 for the intervention arm of 135 children with hypoxemia, 56 of them did not have chest in-
41
42 drawing. This means that, without pulse oximetry, 56/135 (42%) children would have been
43
44 missed and inappropriately treated. Pulse oximetry identified 67% of children without chest
45
46 in-drawing or danger signs.[29]
47
48
49

50 Children aged 2 months to 11 months, and partially immunized children, were more likely to
51
52 be diagnosed with severe pneumonia (approximately two-fold as compared to those fully
53
54 immunised). Our findings are consistent with other results, in which partial immunization
55
56 constitutes a risk factor for childhood pneumonia.[30] A finding from another study also
57
58 demonstrated that older children were less likely to develop childhood pneumonia.[31]
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6 There was no difference in severe pneumonia cases referred to a hospital between the arms.
7
8 However, the total number of severe pneumonia cases referred to a hospital in the study area
9
10 increased as compared to the number of cases referred to a hospital in the study area prior to
11
12 the implementation of the intervention. In our previous survey of 66 severe pneumonia cases,
13
14 only 18 (27%) were referred to a hospital.[8] In other observational research, the utilization
15
16 of pulse oximetry improved the decision-making of health workers in referring children with
17
18 severe pneumonia.[26, 29]
19

20
21 There was also no difference in treatment failure between the trial arms. A significant number
22
23 of children from intervention arm did not go to hospital. Limited access to transport was the
24
25 main reason for low compliance with referral in the study settings.[8] This implies that only
26
27 providing pulse oximetry may be insufficient to improve treatment outcome, as both pulse
28
29 oximetry and adequate management, including oxygen therapy, are critical.[32] However, our
30
31 study suggests that providing adequate pneumonia treatment at peripheral hospitals and
32
33 health centres needs to be considered and should be future research area. Such strategies that
34
35 decentralise treatment have, for example, been shown to reduce maternal mortality.[33]
36
37
38
39

40 41 **Implications**

42
43 Our results could be beneficially applied to health centres with mid-level health workers,
44
45 where the management of childhood pneumonia is based on WHO IMCI algorithm.
46

47
48 Therefore, the application of pulse oximeter to supplement the existing WHO IMCI
49
50 algorithm to health centres in rural Ethiopia could assist health workers to find more cases of
51
52 severe pneumonia
53

54 55 56 **CONCLUSION**

57
58
59
60

1
2
3 The addition of pulse oximetry to the WHO IMCI algorithm significantly increased the
4 number of diagnosed severe pneumonia cases in health centres, and could help to
5
6 substantially reduce childhood mortality from hypoxemia. Specific interventions that improve
7
8 compliance with referrals and decentralize treatment to health centres for the management of
9
10 severe childhood pneumonia are urgently needed.
11
12
13
14

15 **Acknowledgements**

16 We would like to thank the Norwegian Programme for Capacity Development in Higher
17
18 Education and Research for Development (NORHED) for funding this study. We also
19
20 sincerely acknowledge the contributions of the Gedeo Zone Health Department and district
21
22 health offices in helping to successfully launch the implementation of this study. We are
23
24 grateful for the health workers and health facilities where the study was conducted. We
25
26 would also like to sincerely thank the study participants involved in this study.
27
28
29
30

31 **Contributorship**

32 SH conceptualized the idea, designed the study, wrote the protocol, coordinated the data
33
34 collection, analysed and interpreted the data, and drafted this manuscript. BL conceptualized
35
36 the idea, guided the study design, wrote the protocol, analysed and interpreted the data, took
37
38 part in the proposal writing and writing of this manuscript. EL provided methodological
39
40 advice, supported the analysis and revised the draft paper. KAJ provided methodological
41
42 advice and revised the draft paper. YG took part in the training of staff at the health centres,
43
44 monitored data collection and revised the draft paper. All authors read and approved the
45
46 submitted version of the manuscript.
47
48
49
50

51 **Funding**

52 This work was supported by the Norwegian Programme for Capacity Development in Higher
53
54 Education and Research for Development (NORHED). The funder had no role in the design,
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 data collection, analysis, interpretation, writing of the manuscript, or decision to submit the
4
5 paper for publication.
6

7
8 **Competing interests:** None declared
9

10 **Patient consent for publication:** Not required
11

12 **Ethics approval**

13
14 The study was approved by the institutional review board of the College of Medicine and
15 Health Sciences at Hawassa University (ref: IRB/009//2017) and the Regional Committees
16 for Medical Research Ethics, South East Norway (ref: 2017/2473/REK sør-øst). Children
17 were included in the study after giving written informed consent by parents.
18
19
20
21
22

23 **Data availability statement:** The data for this trial will be published if the paper is accepted.
24

25 We usually post such data sets at <https://osf.io>
26
27

28 **REFERENCES**

- 29 1. UNICEF (2016): One is too many: ending child deaths from pneumonia and diarrhoea.
30 [http://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/UNICEF-Pneumonia-Diarrhoea-report2016-](http://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/UNICEF-Pneumonia-Diarrhoea-report2016-web-version.pdf)
31 [web-version.pdf](http://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/UNICEF-Pneumonia-Diarrhoea-report2016-web-version.pdf). Accessed 06 March 2019.
- 32 2. WHO, UNICEF, World Bank Group, United Nations. Levels & trends in child mortality: Report
33 2017. <http://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/Child-Mortality-Report-2018.pdf>.
34 Accessed 06 March 2019.
- 35 3. Amaral J, Gouws E, Bryce J, et al. Effect of Integrated Management of Childhood Illness
36 (IMCI) on health worker performance in Northeast-Brazil. *Cadernos de saude publica* 2004;20 Suppl
37 2:S209-19.
- 38 4. Bryce J, Gouws E, Adam T, et al. Improving quality and efficiency of facility-based child health
39 care through Integrated Management of Childhood Illness in Tanzania. *Health policy and planning*
40 2005;20 Suppl 1:i69-i76.
- 41 5. Armstrong Schellenberg JR, Adam T, Mshinda H, et al. Effectiveness and cost of facility-based
42 Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) in Tanzania. *Lancet (London, England)*
43 2004;364(9445):1583-94.
- 44 6. Armstrong Schellenberg J, Bryce J, de Savigny D, et al. The effect of Integrated Management
45 of Childhood Illness on observed quality of care of under-fives in rural Tanzania. *Health policy and*
46 *planning* 2004;19(1):1-10.
- 47 7. Alwadhvi V, Dewan P, Malhotra RK, et al. Tachypnea and Other Danger Signs vs Pulse
48 Oximetry for Prediction of Hypoxia in Severe Pneumonia/Very Severe Disease. *Indian pediatrics*
49 2017;54(9):729-34.
- 50 8. Hailemariam S, Gebeyehu Y, Loha E, et al. Inadequate management of pneumonia among
51 children in South Ethiopia: findings from descriptive study. *BMC health services research*
52 2019;19(1):426.
- 53 9. Campbell MK, Piaggio G, Elbourne DR, et al. Consort 2010 statement: extension to cluster
54 randomised trials. *BMJ : British Medical Journal* 2012;345:e5661.
- 55 10. World Health Organization. Integrated Management of Childhood Illness, chart booklet.
56 (WHO, March 2014). Available
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/104772/16/9789241506823_Chartbook_eng.pdf.

4 Accessed 02 February 2017.

5 11. South Nations, Nationalities, and Peoples Region's. Gedeo Zone Administration Office.

6 <http://www.gedeozone.gov.et/Health.html>. Accessed 02 February 2017.

7 12. World Health Organization. IMCI in-service training Modules. Integrated management of
8 childhood illness. Assess and classify the sick child age 2months up to 5 years. World Health
9 organization and UNICEF, 1997.

10 http://www.who.int/maternal_child_adolescent/documents/9241595650/en/. Accessed 25 May
11 2018. .

12 13. World Health Organization. Oxygen therapy for children: a manual for health workers.
13 World Health Organization, 2016. Geneva, Switzerland.

14 http://WWW.apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/204584/.../9789241549554_eng.pdf. Accessed 17
15 April 2018.

16 14. Vilas-Boas AL, Fontoura MS, Xavier-Souza G, et al. Comparison of oral amoxicillin given thrice
17 or twice daily to children between 2 and 59 months old with non-severe pneumonia: a randomized
18 controlled trial. J Antimicrob Chemother 2014;69(7):1954-9.

19 15. Simoes EA, Desta T, Tessema T, et al. Performance of health workers after training in
20 integrated management of childhood illness in Gondar, Ethiopia. Bull World Health Organ 1997;75
21 Suppl 1:43-53.

22 16. Koo TK, Li MY. A Guideline of Selecting and Reporting Intraclass Correlation Coefficients for
23 Reliability Research. Journal of Chiropractic Medicine 2016;15(2):155-63.

24 17. UNHCR: The united Nations Refugee Agency.

25 http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Operational_Update_OCTNOV.pdf. Accessed
26 30 October 2019. .

27 18. United Nations Office for the coordination of Humanitarian Affairs: ETHIOPIA
28 HUMANITARIAN FUND.

29 http://www.unocha.org/sites/unocha/files/EHF%20Reserve%20Allocation%20Strategy%20Paper_%207%20August%202018.pdf. Accessed 30 October 2019. .

30 19. Duke T, Graham SM, Cherian MN, et al. Oxygen is an essential medicine: a call for
31 international action. The international journal of tuberculosis and lung disease : the official journal of
32 the International Union against Tuberculosis and Lung Disease 2010;14(11):1362-8.

33 20. Fouzas S, Priftis KN, Anthracopoulos MB. Pulse oximetry in pediatric practice. Pediatrics
34 2011;128(4):740.

35 21. Duke T, Blaschke AJ, Sialis S, et al. Hypoxaemia in acute respiratory and non-respiratory
36 illnesses in neonates and children in a developing country. Archives of disease in childhood
37 2002;86(2):108-12.

38 22. Basnet S, Adhikari RK, Gurung CK. Hypoxemia in children with pneumonia and its clinical
39 predictors. Indian journal of pediatrics 2006;73(9):777-81.

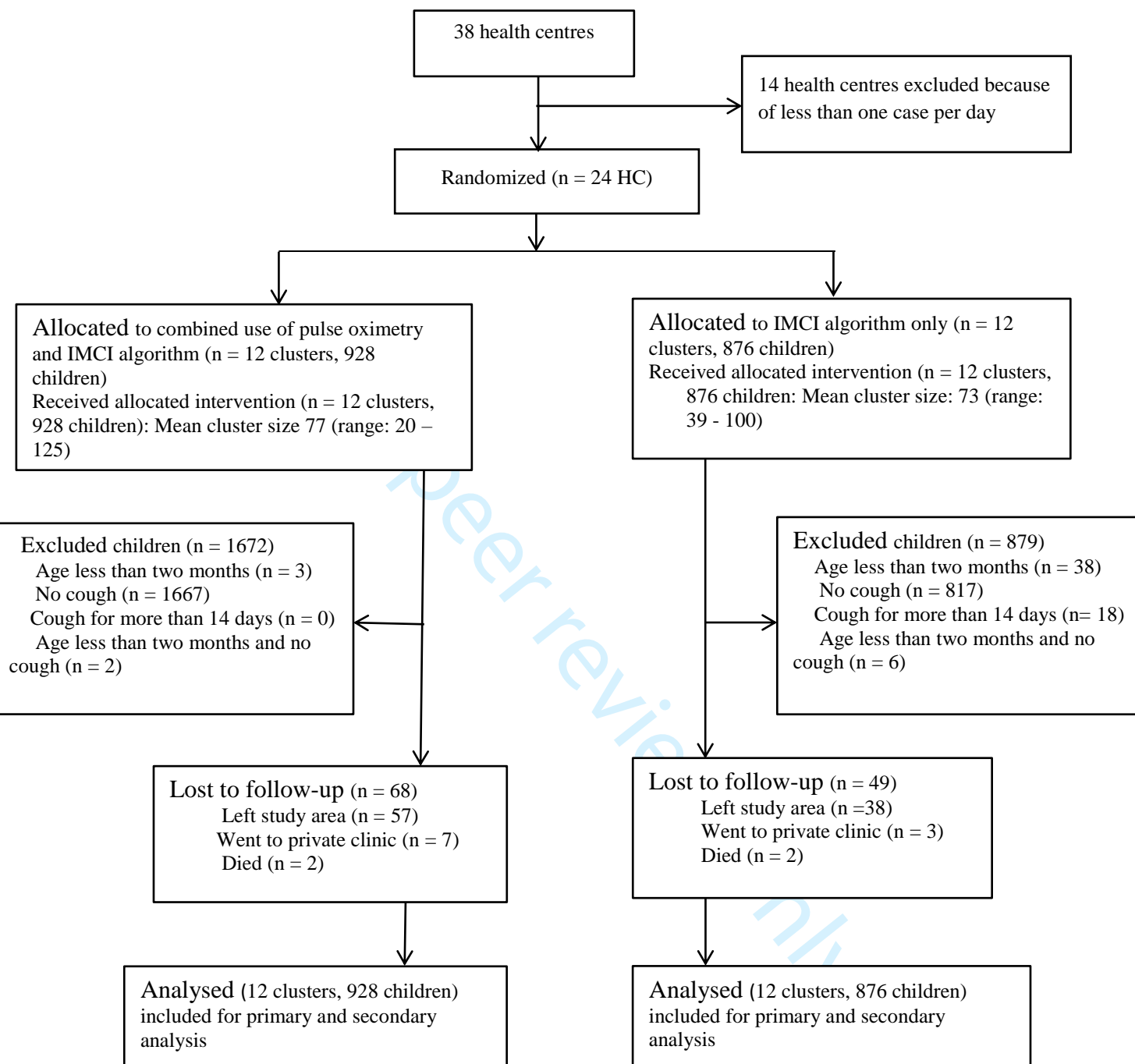
40 23. Chan ED, Chan MM, Chan MM. Pulse oximetry: Understanding its basic principles facilitates
41 appreciation of its limitations. Respiratory Medicine 2013;107(6):789-99.

42 24. Gove S. for WHO Working Group on Guidelines for Integrated Management of the Sick Child.
43 Integrated management of childhood illness by outpatient health workers: technical basis and
44 overview. Bulletin of the World Health Organization 1997;75(Suppl 1):7-24.

45 25. Anand K, Patro BK, Paul E, et al. Management of sick children by health workers in
46 Ballabgarh: lessons for implementation of IMCI in India. Journal of tropical pediatrics 2004;50(1):41-
47 7.

48 26. Garde A, Zhou G, Raihana S, et al. Respiratory rate and pulse oximetry derived information
49 as predictors of hospital admission in young children in Bangladesh: a prospective observational
50 study. BMJ open 2016;6(8):e011094.

- 1
2
3 27. World Health Organization. Programme of Acute Respiratory Infections. (1990). Acute
4 respiratory infections in children : case management in small hospitals in developing countries.
5 Geneva WHO 1990. <http://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/61873>. Accessed 02 February 2017.
6
7 28. McCollum ED, Ginsburg AS. Outpatient Management of Children With World Health
8 Organization Chest Indrawing Pneumonia: Implementation Risks and Proposed Solutions. *Clinical*
9 *infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America*
10 2017;65(9):1560-4.
11 29. McCollum ED, King C, Deula R, et al. Pulse oximetry for children with pneumonia treated as
12 outpatients in rural Malawi. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 2016;94(12):893.
13 30. Gothankar J, Doke P, Dhumale G, et al. Reported incidence and risk factors of childhood
14 pneumonia in India: a community-based cross-sectional study. *BMC public health* 2018;18(1):1111.
15 31. Hisato K, Raita T, Mayuko S, et al. Incidence and Risk Factors of Childhood Pneumonia-Like
16 Episodes in Biliran Island, Philippines--A Community-Based Study. *PloS one* 2015;10(5):e0125009.
17 32. Wandt F, Peel D, Duke T. Hypoxaemia among children in rural hospitals in Papua New
18 Guinea: epidemiology and resource availability--a study to support a national oxygen programme.
19 *Annals of tropical paediatrics* 2006;26(4):277-84.
20 33. Lindtjørn B, Mitiku D, Zidda Z, et al. Reducing Maternal Deaths in Ethiopia: Results of an
21 Intervention Programme in Southwest Ethiopia. *PloS one* 2017;12(1):e0169304-e.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



Supplementary Table 1: Sensitivity and specificity of clinical signs.

Clinical signs	Pulse oximeter			Sensitivity	Specificity	Positive predictive value	Negative predictive value
	Hypoxemia	No hypoxemia	Total				
Chest in-drawing				59	81	35	92
Yes	79	147	226				
No	56	626	682				
Total	135	773	908				
Fast breathing				94	25	18	96
Yes	127	587	714				
No	8	194	202				
Total	135	781	916				
Chest in-drawing and fast breathing				57	82	35	92
Yes	78	145	223				
No	57	641	698				
Total	135	786	921				

Table 1: CONSORT 2010 checklist of information to include when reporting a cluster randomised trial

Section/Topic	Item No	Standard Checklist item	Extension for cluster designs	Page No *
Title and abstract				
	1a	Identification as a randomised trial in the title	Identification as a cluster randomised trial in the title	1
	1b	Structured summary of trial design, methods, results, and conclusions (for specific guidance see CONSORT for abstracts) ^{1,2}	See table 2	1 and 2
Introduction				
Background and objectives	2a	Scientific background and explanation of rationale	Rationale for using a cluster design	3 and 4
	2b	Specific objectives or hypotheses	Whether objectives pertain to the the cluster level, the individual participant level or both	3 and 4
Methods				
Trial design	3a	Description of trial design (such as parallel, factorial) including allocation ratio	Definition of cluster and description of how the design features apply to the clusters	4
	3b	Important changes to methods after trial commencement (such as eligibility criteria), with reasons		
Participants	4a	Eligibility criteria for participants	Eligibility criteria for clusters	4 and 5
	4b	Settings and locations where the data were collected		4 and 5
Interventions	5	The interventions for each group with sufficient details to allow replication, including how and when they were actually administered	Whether interventions pertain to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both	5 and 6
Outcomes	6a	Completely defined pre-specified primary and secondary outcome measures, including how and	Whether outcome measures pertain to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both	6 and 7

		when they were assessed	
	6b	Any changes to trial outcomes after the trial commenced, with reasons	7
Sample size	7a	How sample size was determined	Method of calculation, number of clusters(s) (and whether equal or unequal cluster sizes are assumed), cluster size, a coefficient of intracluster correlation (ICC or <i>k</i>), and an indication of its uncertainty
	7b	When applicable, explanation of any interim analyses and stopping guidelines	
Randomisation:			
Sequence generation	8a	Method used to generate the random allocation sequence	8
	8b	Type of randomisation; details of any restriction (such as blocking and block size)	Details of stratification or matching if used
Allocation concealment mechanism	9	Mechanism used to implement the random allocation sequence (such as sequentially numbered containers), describing any steps taken to conceal the sequence until interventions were assigned	Specification that allocation was based on clusters rather than individuals and whether allocation concealment (if any) was at the cluster level, the individual participant level or both
Implementation	10	Who generated the random allocation sequence, who enrolled participants, and who assigned participants to interventions	Replace by 10a, 10b and 10c
	10a		Who generated the random allocation sequence, who enrolled clusters, and who assigned clusters to interventions
	10b		Mechanism by which individual participants were included in clusters for the purposes of the trial (such as complete

		enumeration, random sampling)		
	10c		From whom consent was sought (representatives of the cluster, or individual cluster members, or both), and whether consent was sought before or after randomisation	8
Blinding	11a	If done, who was blinded after assignment to interventions (for example, participants, care providers, those assessing outcomes) and how		8
	11b	If relevant, description of the similarity of interventions		
Statistical methods	12a	Statistical methods used to compare groups for primary and secondary outcomes	How clustering was taken into account	8 and 9
	12b	Methods for additional analyses, such as subgroup analyses and adjusted analyses		9
Results				
Participant flow (a diagram is strongly recommended)	13a	For each group, the numbers of participants who were randomly assigned, received intended treatment, and were analysed for the primary outcome	For each group, the numbers of clusters that were randomly assigned, received intended treatment, and were analysed for the primary outcome	10 and figure 1
	13b	For each group, losses and exclusions after randomisation, together with reasons	For each group, losses and exclusions for both clusters and individual cluster members	Figure 1
Recruitment	14a	Dates defining the periods of recruitment and follow-up		10
	14b	Why the trial ended or was stopped		
Baseline data	15	A table showing baseline demographic and clinical	Baseline characteristics for the individual and cluster levels as	10 and 11

		characteristics for each group	applicable for each group	(Table1)
Numbers analysed	16	For each group, number of participants (denominator) included in each analysis and whether the analysis was by original assigned groups	For each group, number of clusters included in each analysis	10
Outcomes and estimation	17a	For each primary and secondary outcome, results for each group, and the estimated effect size and its precision (such as 95% confidence interval)	Results at the individual or cluster level as applicable and a coefficient of intracluster correlation (ICC or k) for each primary outcome	12 and 13
	17b	For binary outcomes, presentation of both absolute and relative effect sizes is recommended		13 (Table 3)
Ancillary analyses	18	Results of any other analyses performed, including subgroup analyses and adjusted analyses, distinguishing pre-specified from exploratory		12, 13, 15
Harms	19	All important harms or unintended effects in each group (for specific guidance see CONSORT for harms ³)		
Discussion				
Limitations	20	Trial limitations, addressing sources of potential bias, imprecision, and, if relevant, multiplicity of analyses		2, 3 and 15,16
Generalisability	21	Generalisability (external validity, applicability) of the trial findings	Generalisability to clusters and/or individual participants (as relevant)	18
Interpretation	22	Interpretation consistent with results, balancing benefits and harms, and considering other relevant evidence		15, 16, and 17
Other information				
Registration	23	Registration number and		2

		name of trial registry	
Protocol	24	Where the full trial protocol can be accessed, if available	4
Funding	25	Sources of funding and other support (such as supply of drugs), role of funders	19 and 20

* Note: page numbers optional depending on journal requirements

For peer review only

Table 2: Extension of CONSORT for abstracts^{1,2} to reports of cluster randomised trials

Item	Standard Checklist item	Extension for cluster trials
Title	Identification of study as randomised	Identification of study as cluster randomised
Trial design	Description of the trial design (e.g. parallel, cluster, non-inferiority)	
Methods		
Participants	Eligibility criteria for participants and the settings where the data were collected	Eligibility criteria for clusters
Interventions	Interventions intended for each group	
Objective	Specific objective or hypothesis	Whether objective or hypothesis pertains to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both
Outcome	Clearly defined primary outcome for this report	Whether the primary outcome pertains to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both
Randomization	How participants were allocated to interventions	How clusters were allocated to interventions
Blinding (masking)	Whether or not participants, care givers, and those assessing the outcomes were blinded to group assignment	
Results		
Numbers randomized	Number of participants randomized to each group	Number of clusters randomized to each group
Recruitment	Trial status ¹	
Numbers analysed	Number of participants analysed in each group	Number of clusters analysed in each group
Outcome	For the primary outcome, a result for each group and the estimated effect size and its precision	Results at the cluster or individual participant level as applicable for each primary outcome
Harms	Important adverse events or side effects	
Conclusions	General interpretation of the results	
Trial registration	Registration number and name of trial register	
Funding	Source of funding	

¹ Relevant to Conference Abstracts

REFERENCES

- 1 Hopewell S, Clarke M, Moher D, Wager E, Middleton P, Altman DG, et al. CONSORT for reporting randomised trials in journal and conference abstracts. *Lancet* 2008, 371:281-283
- 2 Hopewell S, Clarke M, Moher D, Wager E, Middleton P, Altman DG at al (2008) CONSORT for reporting randomized controlled trials in journal and conference abstracts: explanation and elaboration. *PLoS Med* 5(1): e20
- 3 Ioannidis JP, Evans SJ, Gotzsche PC, O'Neill RT, Altman DG, Schulz K, Moher D. Better reporting of harms in randomized trials: an extension of the CONSORT statement. *Ann Intern Med* 2004; 141(10):781-788.

For peer review only

BMJ Open

Pulse oximeter with integrated management of childhood illness for diagnosis of severe childhood pneumonia at rural health institutions in Southern Ethiopia: Results from a cluster-randomized controlled trial

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2020-036814.R2
Article Type:	Original research
Date Submitted by the Author:	20-Apr-2020
Complete List of Authors:	Tesfaye, Solomon H.; Hawassa University College of Medicine and Health Sciences, School of public health; University of Bergen Centre for International Health, Global public health and primary care Gebeyehu, Yabibal ; Dilla University College of Health Sciences, School of medicine Loha, Eskindir ; Hawassa University College of Medicine and Health Sciences, School of public health; London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine Department of Infectious Disease Epidemiology Johansson, Kjell Arne; University of Bergen Centre for International Health, Global public health and primary care Lindtjørn , Bernt ; Hawassa University College of Medicine and Health Sciences, School of public health; University of Bergen Centre for International Health, Global public health and primary care
Primary Subject Heading:	Paediatrics
Secondary Subject Heading:	Public health
Keywords:	Community child health < PAEDIATRICS, PUBLIC HEALTH, Respiratory infections < THORACIC MEDICINE

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts



I, the Submitting Author has the right to grant and does grant on behalf of all authors of the Work (as defined in the below author licence), an exclusive licence and/or a non-exclusive licence for contributions from authors who are: i) UK Crown employees; ii) where BMJ has agreed a CC-BY licence shall apply, and/or iii) in accordance with the terms applicable for US Federal Government officers or employees acting as part of their official duties; on a worldwide, perpetual, irrevocable, royalty-free basis to BMJ Publishing Group Ltd ("BMJ") its licensees and where the relevant Journal is co-owned by BMJ to the co-owners of the Journal, to publish the Work in this journal and any other BMJ products and to exploit all rights, as set out in our [licence](#).

The Submitting Author accepts and understands that any supply made under these terms is made by BMJ to the Submitting Author unless you are acting as an employee on behalf of your employer or a postgraduate student of an affiliated institution which is paying any applicable article publishing charge ("APC") for Open Access articles. Where the Submitting Author wishes to make the Work available on an Open Access basis (and intends to pay the relevant APC), the terms of reuse of such Open Access shall be governed by a Creative Commons licence – details of these licences and which [Creative Commons](#) licence will apply to this Work are set out in our licence referred to above.

Other than as permitted in any relevant BMJ Author's Self Archiving Policies, I confirm this Work has not been accepted for publication elsewhere, is not being considered for publication elsewhere and does not duplicate material already published. I confirm all authors consent to publication of this Work and authorise the granting of this licence.

1
2
3 **Pulse oximeter with integrated management of childhood illness for diagnosis of severe**
4 **childhood pneumonia at rural health institutions in Southern Ethiopia: Results from a**
5 **cluster-randomized controlled trial**
6
7
8
9

10
11 Solomon H. Tesfaye^{1,2,3}, Yabibal Gebeyehu⁴, Eskindir Loha^{1,5}, Kjell Arne Johansson²,
12 and Bernt Lindtjørn^{1,2}
13
14

15
16 ¹ School of Public Health, Hawassa University, Hawassa, Ethiopia
17

18 ² Centre for International Health, University of Bergen, Bergen, Norway
19

20
21 ³ School of Public Health, Dilla University, Dilla, Ethiopia
22

23
24 ⁴ School of Medicine, Dilla University, Dilla, Ethiopia
25

26
27 ⁵ Department of Infectious Disease Epidemiology, London School of Hygiene and Tropical
28 Medicine, London, United Kingdom
29

30
31 **Correspondence to:**

32 Solomon Hailemariam, E-mail: solomon0917242124@gmail.com, Phone: +251917242124
33

34 **Word count:** 4169
35

36 **Number of figures and tables:** 5
37

38
39 **ABSTRACT**
40

41 **Objective:** To assess whether pulse oximetry improves health workers' performance in
42 diagnosing severe childhood pneumonia at health centres in Southern Ethiopia.
43

44 **Design:** Parallel cluster randomized trial.
45

46 **Setting:** Government health centres
47

48
49 **Participants:** Twenty-four health centres that treat at least one pneumonia case per day in
50 Southern Ethiopia. Children between 2 months and 59 months-of-age who present at health
51 facilities with cough or difficulty breathing were recruited in the study from September, 2018
52 to April, 2019.
53

54
55 **Intervention arm:** Use of the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) algorithm
56 and pulse oximeter.
57
58
59
60

Control arm: Use of the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) algorithm only.

Primary and secondary outcome measures: The primary outcome was the proportion of children diagnosed with severe pneumonia. Secondary outcomes included referred cases of severe pneumonia and treatment failure on day 14 after enrolment.

Result: Twenty-four health centres were randomized into intervention (928 children) and control arms (876 children). The proportion of children with severe pneumonia was 15.9% (148 of 928 children) in the intervention arm and 3.9% (34 of 876 children) in the control arm. After adjusting for differences in baseline variables children in the intervention arm were more likely to be diagnosed as severe pneumonia cases as compared to those in the control arm (adjusted odds ratio [OR]:5.4, 95% confidence interval [CI]: 2.0 – 14.3, p=0.001)

Conclusion: The combined use of Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) and pulse oximetry in health centres increased the number of diagnosed severe childhood pneumonia.

Trial registration: PACTR201807164196402 (14/06/2018).

Keywords: Community child health, Public health, Respiratory infection.

Strengths and limitations of this study

- Randomly allocation of health centres to intervention and control arms
- Participating health centres were typical of such institutions in rural communities in Ethiopia.
- Robust training on how use the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness algorithm, and how to measure oxygen saturation.
- Due to the nature of the intervention, inability to mask the health workers and the study participants of the intervention.
- Unequal number of children seeking health care between the two comparison arms.

INTRODUCTION

Pneumonia killed approximately 920,000 children less than five years-of-age in 2015.[1] The mortality rate is especially high in Ethiopia, and 59 deaths per 1,000 live births occurred in

1
2
3 2017 in children less than five years-of-age.[2] Ethiopia ranks sixth among countries with the
4 highest number of deaths from pneumonia in children less than five years-of-age.[1]
5
6

7
8 The World Health Organization (WHO) Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI)
9 improves the quality of child care for common illnesses,[3, 4] but there is poor diagnostic
10 precision for childhood pneumonia based on clinical features.[5] The ability of health care
11 providers to count breaths and classify respiratory rate in children using the IMCI algorithm
12 is a challenge.[6]
13
14
15

16
17
18 Clinical signs of pneumonia, such as tachypnoea, inability to drink or breastfeed, and head-
19 nodding, used in the IMCI algorithm, are not able to identify hypoxic children with severe
20 pneumonia as precisely as pulse oximetry.[7] Consequently, many children with severe
21 pneumonia are dying because hypoxemia is not adequately recognized and/or oxygen therapy
22 is unavailable.[1]
23
24
25
26

27
28 This study is an extension of a study in which we first assessed the health system support of
29 IMCI, where we found that the basic supplies for effective management of pneumonia were
30 inadequate. Indeed, in a large proportion of the surveyed health facilities, essential drugs,
31 vaccines, job aids, and equipment were lacking. None of the health centres and health posts
32 had a pulse oximeter. We also determined that many health facilities had an insufficient
33 number of IMCI-trained health workers, and were deficient in requisite supportive
34 supervision. In addition, health workers' knowledge of managing severe pneumonia was
35 low.[8]
36
37
38
39
40
41

42
43 For the abovementioned reasons, an urgent need exists for interventions that assist health
44 workers to improve the diagnosis of severe childhood pneumonia. The objective of the study
45 was to assess whether pulse oximetry improves health workers' performance in diagnosing
46 severe childhood pneumonia at health centres in Southern Ethiopia.
47
48
49
50

51 **METHODS**

52
53 This study adheres to the Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) statement
54 extension for cluster randomized trials,[9] available as supplementary files (CONSORT
55 checklist). The full protocol of this trial was published at protocols.io (DOI:
56 <http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.88mhzu6>).
57
58
59
60

Trial design

The study constitutes a parallel-cluster randomized controlled trial conducted at 24 health centres. An equal number of health centres were allocated into intervention and control arms, i.e., the combined use of IMCI algorithm,[10]and pulse oximetry (intervention arm), and the IMCI algorithm only (control arm). No changes were made to the design of the study after its commencement.

Study setting and participants

The study was conducted in the Gedeo Zone of Southern Ethiopia. The zone's population is more than one million people, of which approximately 170,000 are children younger than five years-of-age.[11] There are 146 health posts (operational unit for health extension workers), 38 health centres, and one hospital. At these institutions, pneumonia is among the top-10 causes of outpatient treatment, and currently health professionals in study settings utilize the WHO IMCI algorithm to manage pneumonia and other common childhood illnesses.[10]

The study comprises 24 health centres in the rural Gedeo Zone, each of which treats at least one case of pneumonia per day. Children who were aged 2 months to 59 months with cough or had difficulty breathing for less than 14 days were included and followed for treatment outcome. Children aged 2 months to 59 months with cough or difficulty breathing for more than 14 days, or whose diagnoses were for other conditions, such as pulmonary tuberculosis, were excluded. In both arms, the assessment for inclusion and exclusion of children were identical. Pulse oximetry was not used to screen patients for inclusion in the study. Since there was no pulse oximeter in the study settings, no pulse oximeters were removed from their usual clinical practice for the purpose of the study. The recruitment of children started on September, 2018 and lasted until April, 2019.

Trial interventions

Health workers from the intervention arm used the WHO IMCI algorithm,[10] and a paediatric fingertip pulse oximeter (ADC® Adimals 2150) to diagnose pneumonia. Oxygen saturation was measured twice, 5 min apart. The measurement was taken when the child was calm, and recorded when the pulse oximetry accurately reflected consistent, high-amplitude plethysmographic waveforms associated with stable oxygen saturation for 1 min. Hypoxemia (oxygen saturation less than 90%) diagnosis was based on the average of the two measures.

Health workers from the control arm used the same WHO IMCI algorithm, but without measuring oxygen saturation.

Training was given for health workers on IMCI algorithm and how to use pulse oximetry. An IMCI-trained paediatrician offered the training, which was supported by a video-based exercise and practical session that was developed by the WHO and adopted by the Ethiopian Federal Ministry of Health.[12] Prior to implementing the trial, a pilot study was conducted to estimate the intra and inter observer reliability of the pulse oximetry. Detail about training, data collection and pilot results were given in trial protocol.

Study outcomes

The primary study outcome was severe pneumonia diagnosed using the IMCI algorithm in both arms.[10] The IMCI criteria used to diagnose severe pneumonia or very severe disease is presented in table 1. In addition to the IMCI criteria, average oxygen saturation less than 90%,[13] was used in the intervention arm.

Table 1 WHO IMCI criteria used to diagnose severe pneumonia or very severe disease.

Variable name	WHO IMCI criteria
Severe pneumonia cases detected for the intervention group	<p>A child with cough or difficult breathing plus at least one of the following signs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Any general danger signs (unable to drink or breastfeed, vomiting everything, convulsion, or lethargic) or stridor in calm child <p>In addition one of the following symptoms of pneumonia:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fast breathing (respiratory rate ≥ 50 breaths/min in children aged 2 up to 11 months and respiratory rate ≥ 40 breaths/min in children aged 12 months up to 5 years) Lower chest wall in-drawing <p>AND/OR</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oxygen saturation $< 90\%$ as measured by pulse oximetry.
Severe pneumonia cases detected for the control group	<p>A child with cough or difficult breathing plus at least one of the following signs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Any general danger signs (unable to drink or breastfeed,

	<p>vomiting everything, convulsion, or lethargic) or stridor in calm child.</p> <p>In addition one of the following symptoms of pneumonia:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fast breathing (respiratory rate ≥ 50 breaths/min in children aged 2 up to 11 months and respiratory rate ≥ 40 breaths/min in children aged 12 months up to 5 years) • Lower chest wall in-drawing
--	--

The secondary study outcomes were: Treatment failure on day 14 after enrolment,[14] and severe pneumonia cases referred to the hospital. We considered treatment failure at day 14 if any of the following signs were present: Development or persistence of general danger signs (e.g., inability to drink or breastfeed, vomits everything, convulsions, lethargy, or unconsciousness), persistence of fever (axillary temperature ≥ 37.5 degrees Celsius), persistence of tachypnoea (respiratory rate ≥ 50 breaths/min in children aged 2 to 11 months and ≥ 40 breaths/min in children aged 12 months to 5 years), chest wall in-drawings, presence of persistent cough, recurrence of fever, withdrawal from the trial or death. Treatment failure on days 2, 5 and 14 was initially planned in this study. But for the following reasons only treatment failure on day 14 was included in the final analysis: in Ethiopia, children with pneumonia will be managed at home and severe pneumonia is expected to be treated at a hospital. If the child had cough or difficulty breathing after 14 days of treatment, children would have been assessed for other diseases, for example tuberculosis.

Follow-up visits

Children in both the intervention and control arms were followed for a total of 14 days. Visits were scheduled on day 2, day 5, and day 14 after enrolment. For children who missed a scheduled follow-up visit, health workers contacted the families at home on the following day. A child who could not be located was considered as lost to follow-up. In such cases, we contacted the participants' family and neighbours by phone to collect information about deaths, relocation, or hospitalizations.

Study size

The sample size was calculated based on a difference in effect size of 10%, power of 90%, 95% significance level, intraclass correlation coefficient of 0.025, and a minimum of 25

1
2
3 children with cough per cluster. Based on previous research, we expected health workers
4 using the IMCI-alone algorithm to identify 4% of children with severe pneumonia.[15] With
5 this assumption, the estimated number of clusters was 11 in each arm. Drop-out of the entire
6 clusters is uncommon, however, according to a recommendation by Rutterford et al,[16] we
7 incorporated 1 extra cluster per treatment group. Therefore, the total size of the cluster was
8 12 per treatment group.
9

14 **Randomization**

16 Randomization was done after we obtained consent from the district and health facilities
17 head. The randomization units were health centres. From 38 health centres in the study area,
18 31 health centres with at least one pneumonia case treated per day were included in the
19 sampling frame. Accordingly, 24 of 31 health centres were randomly selected using the
20 simple random sampling method. Of those 24, 12 were randomly selected for the intervention
21 group and 12 for the control group. This random selection was performed at the University of
22 Bergen using a list generated by SPSS software. Due to the nature of the intervention, it was
23 impossible to blind the data collectors and the study participants. Those doing the analysis
24 were not blinded to the intervention allocation.
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 **Analyses**

35 We used Stata version 15 (Stata Corp. LLC, College Station, TX, U.S.A.) for data analysis.
36 An independent sample t-test for normally distributed continuous variables, Mann-Whitney
37 U-test for skewed continuous variables, and chi-squared test for categorical variables were
38 utilized to compare baseline data in the two arms.
39
40
41
42

43 Mixed effect logistic regression with random intercept to account for clustering by health
44 centres was used to estimate the effect of the intervention on primary and secondary
45 outcomes. The effect estimate for primary outcome was expressed in odds ratio (OR) with
46 95% confidence interval (CI), and P-value less than 0.05 was considered as statistically
47 significant. To control for potential confounding factors, some of the unbalanced baseline
48 variables, such as child's vaccination, parents' wealth, and educational status were considered
49 during the analysis. Individual level variables such as child's age, stunting, and sex
50 constituted other potential confounders, and were also adjusted for the regression analysis.
51 Intraclass correlation coefficient for the primary outcome was estimated from the random
52 effect model output.
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Where values for baseline variables were missing, they were treated as missing and the
4 missed values for few variables were less than 5 percent. Analyses were by intention-to-treat
5 (ITT) principle. Those who died or withdraw from the trial were classified as treatment
6 failure and included in the ITT analysis.
7
8
9

10 11 **Patient and Public involvement** 12

13 There is no tradition in Ethiopia to invite patient organisations to take part in the planning,
14 design and follow up of trials. In this study, and before the implementation of the
15 intervention, meetings were held with representatives from the Gedeo Zone Health
16 Department, district health offices, and head of health facilities. The meeting was about the
17 burden of childhood pneumonia in the study area and at national level, and the purpose of the
18 study. After having the authorities consent to carry out the study, written permission was
19 obtained from Zone and district health offices. All patients were informed about the purpose
20 of the study, and caregivers were told that involvement is voluntary and that they could
21 withdraw at any time regardless of reason. Caregivers were briefed about the oximetry
22 procedure and routine pneumonia diagnosis. The caregivers were informed that the
23 instrument would not harm the child. They were also assured that refusal to participate in the
24 study would not affect their medical care in health centres. The findings of this study will be
25 communicated to each of the health institutions and through the institutions to the patients.
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36

37 **RESULTS** 38

39
40 Twenty-four health centres were randomly and equally assigned into intervention and control
41 arms. Nine hundred twenty eight children in the intervention arm and 876 children in the
42 control arm were recruited and diagnosed for severe pneumonia and followed from
43 September 2018 to April 2019. All of the 24 health centres and all recruited children were
44 included for the primary and secondary outcome analysis on the basis of the original
45 assignment (figure 1 for details on participants' flow and recruitment).
46
47
48
49
50

51 **Baseline characteristics** 52

53 The baseline characteristics of the study group were comparable, except for Pneumococcal
54 and Haemophilus influenzae type b vaccines, and educational and wealth status of parents
55 (table 2).
56
57

58 Table 2 Baseline comparison between groups at individual and cluster level.
59
60

Variables	Intervention	Control
Cluster level		
Number of clusters	12	12
Number of children age less than five years of age in the catchment area	63,285	50,629
Total number of children attending health centres	2600	1755
Total number of eligible children	928	876
Number of eligible children per cluster	77	73
Sex of health workers		
Male	8	9
Female	4	3
Age of health workers in year: Mean (SD)	29 (4.5)	26 (2.8)
Total service duration in months: Median (IQR)	37 (30 to 81)	45 (25 to 68)
Service in child care in months: Median (IQR)	25 (23 to 45)	21 (8 to 56)
Previous training in IMCI		
Yes	7	8
No	5	4
Profession of health workers		
Health officer	2	4
BSc nursing	1	1
Diploma nursing	9	7
Number of eligible children per cluster	77	73
Individual level		
Sex of child		
Boys	479/914 (52%)	475/870 (55%)
Girls	435/914 (48%)	395/870 (45%)
Duration of cough or difficulty breathing in days: Mean (SD)	3.8 (2.3)	3.8 (1.9)
Age of child in months: Median (IQR)	12 (7 to 28)	12 (7 to 25)
Weight-for-age-z score: Median (IQR)	-1.0 (-2.0, 0.1)	-1.1 (-2.2,0.1)
Weight-for-height-z score: Median (IQR)	-0.1 (-1.4,1.4)	-0.1 (-1.7,1.8)

Height-for-age-z score: Median (IQR)	-1.7 (-3.4, -0.0)	-1.8 (-3.5, -0.1)
Pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b vaccines		
Fully vaccinated	668/928 (72.0%)	667/876 (76.1%)
Partially vaccinated	260/928 (28.0%)	209/876 (23.9%)
Age of caregivers in years: Mean (SD)	26.6 (6.2)	27.1 (4.7)
Educational status of caregivers		
No education	386/927 (41.6%)	437/875 (49.9%)
Primary	432/927 (46.6%)	371/875 (42.4%)
Secondary and above	109/927 (11.8%)	67/875 (7.7%)
Wealth tertiles		
Poor	217/830 (26.1%)	322/789 (40.8%)
Medium	313/830 (37.7%)	208/789 (26.4%)
Rich	300/830 (36.1%)	259/789 (32.8%)

Hypoxemia

A total of 1804 children were enrolled in the study, of which 928 children were enrolled into the intervention and 876 into the control arm. Of the 928 children in the intervention arm, 135/928 (14.5%) had oxygen saturation of less than 90%. A total of 148 severe pneumonia cases were diagnosed in the intervention arm and, of these, 65 cases (43.9%) met the IMCI algorithm and had oxygen saturation < 90%, 70 (47.3%) did not meet the IMCI algorithm, but had oxygen saturation < 90%, and 13 (8.8%) met the IMCI algorithm, but had oxygen saturation > 90%. The overall median oxygen saturation was 94% (IQR = 91% to 96%). The median oxygen saturation among children diagnosed with severe pneumonia was 82%, (IQR = 72% to 86%), while among non-severe pneumonia cases the median was 94% (IQR = 92% to 96%).

In addition, we estimated the sensitivity and specificity of the two clinical signs used in WHO IMCI algorithm to diagnose pneumonia (fast breathing and chest in-drawing). Fast breathing had the highest sensitivity (94%), but specificity was low (25%) as compared to chest in-drawing (81%). Furthermore, using a combination of both symptoms did not improve their predictive ability (see supplementary file, table 1).

Primary outcome

The cluster adjusted proportion of diagnosed severe pneumonia was 148/928 (15.9%, 95% CI 4.7– 27.2) for the intervention arm and 34/876 (3.9%, 95% CI 1.2 – 6.6) for the control arm, and $P < 0.001$. The crude odds ratio of being diagnosed with severe pneumonia for children in the intervention arm was 4.7 (95% CI 1.9 –11.8; $P < 0.001$) as compared to the control arm. The effect of the intervention remained the same after adjusting for each of the baseline variables (Table 3). In addition, children who were boys, aged 2 months to 11 months, height for age z-scores less than -2, and not fully vaccinated for Pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b were more likely to be diagnosed with severe pneumonia than their counterparts (table 3).

We carried out effect modification analysis to see whether the effect of pulse oximeter in identifying severe pneumonia was modified by the type of health profession (Bachelor degree versus diploma degree nurses). The impact of pulse oximeter is not modified by the health professionals' medical background knowledge for diagnosing severe childhood pneumonia (P - value = 0.828). Therefore, we have removed the interaction term and present the model without interaction and present the effect of pulse oximetry adjusted for the baseline confounders.

Table 3 Odds ratio from the multilevel logistic regression model comparing the proportion of diagnosed severe pneumonia between the arms.

Variables	Total	Diagnosed severe pneumonia	Bivariate analysis	Multivariable analysis		
		n (%)	COR* (95% CI)	AOR** (95% CI)	P value	
Intervention†	Yes	928	148 (15.9)	4.7 (1.9–11.8)	5.4 (2.0–14.3)	0.001
	No	876	34 (3.9)	1	1	
Sex of child	Boy	954	113 (11.8)	1.9 (1.1–3.1)	1.5 (1.1–2.3)	0.033
	Girl	830	69 (8.3)	1	1	
Age of child (months)	2–11	773	93 (12.0)	1.7 (1.2–2.4)	1.7 (1.1–2.6)	0.011
	12–59	1031	89 (8.6)	1	1	
Height-for-age z-score (<-2)	Yes	763	87 (11.4)	1.5 (1.0–2.3)	1.5 (1.0–2.3)	0.055
	No	914	73 (8.0)	1	1	
Pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b vaccines	Partially vaccinated	469	67 (14.3)	2 (1.3–3.0)	1.7 (1.1–2.7)	0.043
	Fully vaccinated	1335	115 (8.6)	1	1	
Educational status of parents	No education	823	96 (11.7)	1.7 (0.9–3.3)	1.1 (0.5–2.3)	0.797
	Primary	803	72 (9.0)	1.4 (0.7–2.6)	1.3 (0.6–2.6)	0.487

	Secondary	176	14 (8.0)	1	1	
Wealth tertiles	Poor	539	52 (9.6)	1.7 (0.8–3.3)	1.1 (0.7–1.9)	0.617
	Medium	521	47 (9.0)	1.3 (0.8–2.3)	0.9 (0.6–1.5)	0.761
	Rich	559	58 (10.4)	1	1	

*Crude odds ratio

**Adjusted odds ratio

†The intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) for severe pneumonia was 0.043.

Secondary outcomes

After examining the clustering effect, the proportion of children with severe pneumonia referred to the hospital was 116/148 (78.4%, 95% CI 67.6 – 89.2) in the intervention arm and 15/34 (44.1%, 95% CI 6.9 – 81.3) in the control arm, with $P = 0.496$. Among these, 62/116 (53.4%) in the intervention arm, and 11/15 (73.3%) in the control arm, reached the hospital and received the standard treatment.

Table 4 shows the total treatment failure, and treatment failure by specific causes, between the arms. The proportion of treatment failure at day 14 was 132/928 (14.2%, 95% CI 6.0 – 22.4) in the intervention arm and 93/876 (10.6%, 95% CI 5.2 – 16.1) in the control arm ($P = 0.622$). There were two deaths in each of the intervention and control arms. Nine children from the intervention and three children from the control arms had persistent cough at day 14. The crude odds ratio of treatment failure for children with oxygen saturation $< 90\%$ was 3.3 (95% CI; 1.87 – 5.80) as compared to children with oxygen saturation greater or equal to 90%.

Table 4 Treatment failures by specific causes at day 14.

Outcome	Treatment failure at day 14			
	Intervention	Control	Difference % (95% CI)	P value
Total	132/928 (14.2%)	93/876 (10.6%)	-3.6% (-17 to 10.7)	0.622
General danger signs	17/815 (2.1%)	31/823 (3.8%)	1.7% (-5.2 to 8.6)	0.635
Chest in-drawing	2/815 (0.2%)	3/823 (0.4%)	0.2% (-0.4 to 0.7)	0.662
Persistence of tachypnoea	33/815 (4.0%)	18/823 (2.2%)	-1.9% (-12.2 to 8.5)	0.722
Persistence of fever	9/815 (1.1%)	5/823 (0.6%)	-0.5% (-3.4 to 2.4)	0.737
Persistent cough	9/815 (1.1%)	3/823 (0.4%)	-0.7% (-5.1 to 3.6)	0.736

Lost to follow-up	68/928 (7.3%)	49/876 (5.6%)	-2.1% (-17.0 to 12.9)	0.785
Death	2/928 (0.22%)	2/876 (0.23%)	0.0% (-0.4 to 0.4)	0.954

Sensitivity analysis

If we use an oxygen saturation cut off $< 92\%$ to define hypoxemia, the proportion of children with hypoxemia would be 298/921 (32.4%, 95% CI 16.2 – 48.5). Moreover, the cluster adjusted proportion of severe pneumonia would be 304/928 (32.8%, 95% CI 18.2– 47.3) in the intervention arm, and crude odds ratio 13.3 (95% CI 5.0 – 35.3) as compared to control arm.

One of the health centres in intervention arm is found at high altitude (2993 metres above sea level) and we did a sensitivity analysis adjusting oxygen saturation level at $< 87\%$ [13]. The proportion of children with severe pneumonia in intervention arm was 124/928 (13.4%; 95% CI 8.0 – 21.4), and 34/876 (3.9%, 95% CI 1.2 – 6.6) in the control arm. The crude odds ratio of being diagnosed with severe pneumonia for children in the intervention arm was 4.2 (95% CI 1.8 – 9.5) as compared to the control arm.

As it was the first time that mid-level health workers in this rural part of Ethiopia used pulse oximeters, this could result non-valid pulse oximeter readings. Assuming that 85% of the readings would be valid, we randomly select 85% of cases with pulse oximeter measurements and did sensitivity analysis. The proportion of children with severe pneumonia in intervention arm was 126 of 789 children (15.9%; 95% CI 10.0 – 21.9), and 34/876 (3.9%, 95% CI 0.8 – 6.9) in the control arm. The adjusted odds ratio of being diagnosed with severe pneumonia for children in the intervention arm was 5.3 (95% CI 1.9 – 14.4; $P = 0.001$) as compared to the control arm.

DISCUSSION

Introducing pulse oximetry into the WHO IMCI algorithm significantly increased the diagnosis of severe childhood pneumonia in health centres.

The IMCI algorithms are based on clinical symptoms, and do not involve any objective diagnostic test to identify children with severe pneumonia.[17] Health workers often misclassify pneumonia from severe pneumonia cases because of difficulty with interpretation of danger signs.[18] In our trial, we attempted to show how pulse oximetry assisted health

workers in identifying severe pneumonia cases through detecting hypoxemia. The combined use of pulse oximetry with the WHO IMCI algorithm achieves better performance than the IMCI algorithm alone in identifying children with hypoxemia requiring oxygen therapy.[7, 19]

Chest in-drawings and fast breathing are keys to enable health workers to identify and provide treatment for childhood pneumonia.[20] However, IMCI-based respiratory rate and chest in-drawing increase the misclassification of pneumonia cases.[21] In subgroup analysis for the intervention arm of 135 children with hypoxemia, 56 of them did not have chest in-drawing. This means that, without pulse oximetry, 56/135 (42%) children would have been missed and inappropriately treated. Pulse oximetry identified 67% of children without chest in-drawing or danger signs.[22]

Children aged 2 months to 11 months, and partially immunized children, were more likely to be diagnosed with severe pneumonia (approximately two-fold as compared to those fully immunised). Our findings are consistent with other results, in which partial immunization constitutes a risk factor for childhood pneumonia.[23] A finding from another study also demonstrated that older children were less likely to develop childhood pneumonia.[24]

There was no difference in severe pneumonia cases referred to a hospital between the arms. However, the total number of severe pneumonia cases referred to a hospital in the study area increased as compared to the number of cases referred to a hospital in the study area prior to the implementation of the intervention. In our previous survey of 66 severe pneumonia cases, only 18 (27%) were referred to a hospital.[8] In other observational research, the utilization of pulse oximetry improved the decision-making of health workers in referring children with severe pneumonia.[19, 22]

There was also no difference in treatment failure between the trial arms. A large number of children from the intervention arm did not go to hospital. Limited access to transport was the main reason for low compliance with referral in the study settings.[8] This implies that only providing pulse oximetry may be insufficient to improve treatment outcome, as both pulse oximetry and adequate management, including oxygen therapy, are critical.[25] However, our study suggests that providing adequate pneumonia treatment at peripheral hospitals and health centres needs to be considered and should be future research area. Such strategies that decentralise treatment have, for example, been shown to reduce maternal mortality.[26]

1
2
3 One of the main strengths of this study is that it was based on randomly selected health
4 centres, which are typical of rural communities in Ethiopia. Moreover, we measured oxygen
5 saturation after checking the reliability of pulse oximetry in the study area. The intra- and
6 inter-rater reliability estimates ranged from good to excellent.[27] In this trial, except for
7 educational and wealth status of parents and vaccination status of children, the baseline
8 characteristics of the study arms were balanced. To control for bias due to possible
9 confounding factors, we used estimates adjusted for those potential confounders.

10
11
12
13
14
15
16 The study also possesses certain limitations that are worth noting. The number of children
17 who attended the facilities was larger in the intervention arm than in the control group. This
18 might be due to the following two reasons: (1) the base population in the intervention arm
19 was large (63,285) as compared to the control base population (50,629). Accordingly,
20 proportionally more children 2600/63,285 (4.1%) from the intervention arm attended the
21 study facilities than the control arm 1755/50,629 (3.5%), (2) during the study period,
22 approximately one million people were displaced due to inter-communal violence in the
23 study area.[28] From six refugee camps for the displaced people, four camps were found in
24 the intervention areas.[29] This might have drawn more children to seek medical care in the
25 intervention centres.

26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35 Second, the trial also did not confirm the diagnosis of severe pneumonia using radiological
36 examination. Hypoxemia can also occur in diseases other than childhood pneumonia,
37 including sepsis, meningitis, and severe malaria.[30] Our trial could include children with
38 acute bronchitis or acute bronchiolitis and lobar pneumonia. We used the WHO IMCI
39 algorithm, which labelled these diseases clinically as pneumonia, and our findings should be
40 interpreted within this context.

41
42
43
44
45
46 Third, Adimals 2150 Pediatric Fingertip' pulse oximeter accurately measures oxygen
47 saturation of arterial hemoglobin. It is easy to use and apply with the simple press of the
48 button. We tried to record the oxygen saturation when the reading was stable for one minute.
49 Even if the oxygen saturation readings may not reflect the true oxygen saturation level of all
50 children, some of the oxygen saturation readings could be a result of measurement errors.
51 There can be three possible explanations for this. First, the pulse oximeter gives inaccurate
52 readings. The inaccuracies can be observed in motion artefacts, poor perfusion, skin
53 pigmentation, and irregular rhythms.[31] Second, given the requirement of stable oxygen
54 reading for 60 seconds, may force health workers to accept the false reading as there was no
55
56
57
58
59
60

option in case of pulse oximeter data failure to get stable reading. Finally, it was the first time that mid-level health workers used pulse oximeter and in some cases, we might not have measured valid pulse oximeter readings. However, the sensitivity analysis based on 85% of anticipated valid pulse oximetry readings showed that our conclusion is similar. The fourth limitation of the study was that there were missing values for few of the baseline variables. However, the missing values were less than 5% and there was no significant difference between the two trial groups. Another limitation was that we used oxygen saturation level < 90%, which is high for children living at high altitude. This may increase the false positive cases of severe pneumonia. However, our sensitivity analysis shows that the result remains statistically significant after adjusting oxygen saturation level of < 87% for children living at high altitude.[13] Finally, the confidence interval for the effect estimate of the primary outcome in the intervention arm is wide. It is well known that estimates accounting for clustering can result in wide confidence interval. Therefore we recommend future research to be conducted using a larger sample size.

Implications

Our results could be beneficially applied to health centres with mid-level health workers, where the management of childhood pneumonia is based on WHO IMCI algorithm. Therefore, the application of pulse oximeter to supplement the existing WHO IMCI algorithm to health centres in rural Ethiopia could assist health workers to find more cases of severe pneumonia

CONCLUSION

The addition of pulse oximetry to the WHO IMCI algorithm significantly increased the number of diagnosed severe pneumonia cases in health centres, and could help to substantially reduce childhood mortality from hypoxemia. Specific interventions that improve compliance with referrals and decentralize treatment to health centres for the management of severe childhood pneumonia are urgently needed.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the Norwegian Programme for Capacity Development in Higher Education and Research for Development (NORHED) for funding this study. We also sincerely acknowledge the contributions of the Gedeo Zone Health Department and district

1
2
3 health offices in helping to successfully launch the implementation of this study. We are
4 grateful for the health workers and health facilities where the study was conducted. We
5 would also like to sincerely thank the study participants involved in this study.
6
7
8

9 **Contributorship**

10
11 SHT conceptualized the idea, designed the study, wrote the protocol, coordinated the data
12 collection, analysed and interpreted the data, and drafted this manuscript. BL conceptualized
13 the idea, guided the study design, wrote the protocol, analysed and interpreted the data, took
14 part in the proposal writing and writing of this manuscript. EL provided methodological
15 advice, supported the analysis and revised the draft paper. KAJ provided methodological
16 advice and revised the draft paper. YG took part in the training of staff at the health centres,
17 monitored data collection and revised the draft paper. All authors read and approved the
18 submitted version of the manuscript.
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

26 **Funding**

27
28 This work was supported by the Norwegian Programme for Capacity Development in Higher
29 Education and Research for Development (NORHED). The funder had no role in the design,
30 data collection, analysis, interpretation, writing of the manuscript, or decision to submit the
31 paper for publication.
32
33
34
35
36

37 **Competing interests:** None declared

38
39 **Patient consent for publication:** Not required

40 **Ethics approval**

41
42 The study was approved by the institutional review board of the College of Medicine and
43 Health Sciences at Hawassa University (ref: IRB/009//2017) and the Regional Committees
44 for Medical Research Ethics, South East Norway (ref: 2017/2473/REK sør-øst). Children
45 were included in the study after giving written informed consent by parents.
46
47
48
49
50

51
52 **Data availability statement:** The data for this trial will be published if the paper is accepted.
53 We usually post such data sets at <https://osf.io>
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

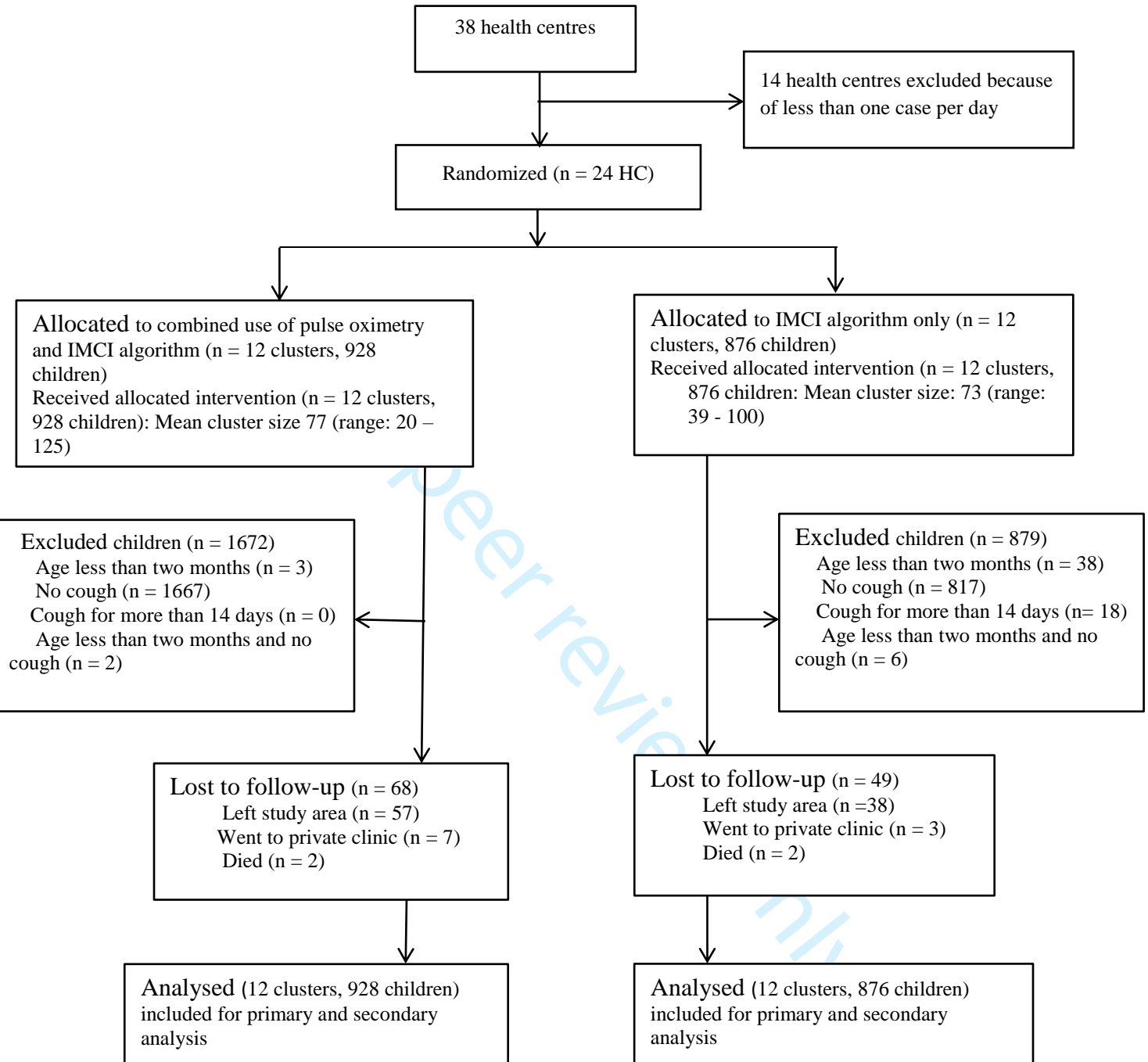
REFERENCES

1. UNICEF (2016): One is too many: ending child deaths from pneumonia and diarrhoea. <http://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/UNICEF-Pneumonia-Diarrhoea-report2016-web-version.pdf>. Accessed 06 March 2019.
2. WHO, UNICEF, World Bank Group, United Nations. Levels & trends in child mortality: Report 2017. <http://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/Child-Mortality-Report-2018.pdf>. Accessed 06 March 2019.
3. Amaral J, Gouws E, Bryce J, et al. Effect of Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) on health worker performance in Northeast-Brazil. *Cadernos de saude publica* 2004;20 Suppl 2:S209-19.
4. Bryce J, Gouws E, Adam T, et al. Improving quality and efficiency of facility-based child health care through Integrated Management of Childhood Illness in Tanzania. *Health policy and planning* 2005;20 Suppl 1:i69-i76.
5. Armstrong Schellenberg JR, Adam T, Mshinda H, et al. Effectiveness and cost of facility-based Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) in Tanzania. *Lancet (London, England)* 2004;364(9445):1583-94.
6. Armstrong Schellenberg J, Bryce J, de Savigny D, et al. The effect of Integrated Management of Childhood Illness on observed quality of care of under-fives in rural Tanzania. *Health policy and planning* 2004;19(1):1-10.
7. Alwadhi V, Dewan P, Malhotra RK, et al. Tachypnea and Other Danger Signs vs Pulse Oximetry for Prediction of Hypoxia in Severe Pneumonia/Very Severe Disease. *Indian pediatrics* 2017;54(9):729-34.
8. Hailemariam S, Gebeyehu Y, Loha E, et al. Inadequate management of pneumonia among children in South Ethiopia: findings from descriptive study. *BMC health services research* 2019;19(1):426.
9. Campbell MK, Piaggio G, Elbourne DR, et al. Consort 2010 statement: extension to cluster randomised trials. *BMJ : British Medical Journal* 2012;345:e5661.
10. World Health Organization. Integrated Management of Childhood Illness, chart booklet. (WHO, March 2014). Available http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/104772/16/9789241506823_Chartbook_eng.pdf. Accessed 02 February 2017.
11. South Nations, Nationalities, and Peoples Region's. Gedeo Zone Administration Office. <http://www.gedeozone.gov.et/Health.html>. Accessed 02 February 2017.
12. World Health Organization. IMCI in-service training Modules. Integrated management of childhood illness. Assess and classify the sick child age 2 months up to 5 years. World Health organization and UNICEF, 1997. http://www.who.int/maternal_child_adolescent/documents/9241595650/en/. Accessed 25 May 2018.
13. World Health Organization. Oxygen therapy for children: a manual for health workers. World Health Organization, 2016. Geneva, Switzerland. http://WWW.apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/204584/.../9789241549554_eng.pdf. Accessed 17 April 2018.
14. Vilas-Boas AL, Fontoura MS, Xavier-Souza G, et al. Comparison of oral amoxicillin given thrice or twice daily to children between 2 and 59 months old with non-severe pneumonia: a randomized controlled trial. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2014;69(7):1954-9.
15. Simoes EA, Desta T, Tessema T, et al. Performance of health workers after training in integrated management of childhood illness in Gondar, Ethiopia. *Bull World Health Organ* 1997;75 Suppl 1:43-53.
16. Rutterford C, Copas A, Eldridge S. Methods for sample size determination in cluster randomized trials. *International journal of epidemiology* 2015;44(3):1051-67.

17. Gove S. for WHO Working Group on Guidelines for Integrated Management of the Sick Child. Integrated management of childhood illness by outpatient health workers: technical basis and overview. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 1997;75(Suppl 1):7-24.
18. Anand K, Patro BK, Paul E, et al. Management of sick children by health workers in Ballabgarh: lessons for implementation of IMCI in India. *Journal of tropical pediatrics* 2004;50(1):41-7.
19. Garde A, Zhou G, Raihana S, et al. Respiratory rate and pulse oximetry derived information as predictors of hospital admission in young children in Bangladesh: a prospective observational study. *BMJ open* 2016;6(8):e011094.
20. World Health Organization. Programme of Acute Respiratory Infections. (1990). Acute respiratory infections in children : case management in small hospitals in developing countries. Geneva WHO 1990. <http://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/61873>. Accessed 02 February 2017.
21. McCollum ED, Ginsburg AS. Outpatient Management of Children With World Health Organization Chest Indrawing Pneumonia: Implementation Risks and Proposed Solutions. *Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America* 2017;65(9):1560-4.
22. McCollum ED, King C, Deula R, et al. Pulse oximetry for children with pneumonia treated as outpatients in rural Malawi. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 2016;94(12):893.
23. Gothankar J, Doke P, Dhumale G, et al. Reported incidence and risk factors of childhood pneumonia in India: a community-based cross-sectional study. *BMC public health* 2018;18(1):1111.
24. Hisato K, Raita T, Mayuko S, et al. Incidence and Risk Factors of Childhood Pneumonia-Like Episodes in Biliran Island, Philippines--A Community-Based Study. *PloS one* 2015;10(5):e0125009.
25. Wandt F, Peel D, Duke T. Hypoxaemia among children in rural hospitals in Papua New Guinea: epidemiology and resource availability--a study to support a national oxygen programme. *Annals of tropical paediatrics* 2006;26(4):277-84.
26. Lindtjørn B, Mitiku D, Zidda Z, et al. Reducing Maternal Deaths in Ethiopia: Results of an Intervention Programme in Southwest Ethiopia. *PloS one* 2017;12(1):e0169304-e.
27. Koo TK, Li MY. A Guideline of Selecting and Reporting Intraclass Correlation Coefficients for Reliability Research. *Journal of Chiropractic Medicine* 2016;15(2):155-63.
28. UNHCR: The united Nations Refugee Agency. http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Operational_Update_OCTNOV.pdf. Accessed 30 October 2019. .
29. United Nations Office for the coordination of Humanitarian Affairs: ETHIOPIA HUMANITARIAN FUND. http://www.unocha.org/sites/unocha/files/EHF%20Reserve%20Allocation%20Strategy%20Paper_%20%20August%202018.pdf. Accessed 30 October 2019. .
30. Duke T, Graham SM, Cherian MN, et al. Oxygen is an essential medicine: a call for international action. *The international journal of tuberculosis and lung disease : the official journal of the International Union against Tuberculosis and Lung Disease* 2010;14(11):1362-8.
31. Fouzas S, Priftis KN, Anthracopoulos MB. Pulse oximetry in pediatric practice. *Pediatrics* 2011;128(4):740.

Figure Legends

Figure1 Trial profile.



Supplementary Table 1: Sensitivity and specificity of clinical signs.

Clinical signs	Pulse oximeter			Sensitivity	Specificity	Positive predictive value	Negative predictive value
	Hypoxemia	No hypoxemia	Total				
Chest in-drawing				59%	81%	35%	92%
Yes	79	147	226				
No	56	626	682				
Total	135	773	908				
Fast breathing				94%	25%	18%	96%
Yes	127	587	714				
No	8	194	202				
Total	135	781	916				
Chest in-drawing and fast breathing				57%	82%	35%	92%
Yes	78	145	223				
No	57	641	698				
Total	135	786	921				

Table 1: CONSORT 2010 checklist of information to include when reporting a cluster randomised trial

Section/Topic	Item No	Standard Checklist item	Extension for cluster designs	Page No *
Title and abstract				
	1a	Identification as a randomised trial in the title	Identification as a cluster randomised trial in the title	1
	1b	Structured summary of trial design, methods, results, and conclusions (for specific guidance see CONSORT for abstracts) ^{1,2}	See table 2	1 and 2
Introduction				
Background and objectives	2a	Scientific background and explanation of rationale	Rationale for using a cluster design	2 and 3
	2b	Specific objectives or hypotheses	Whether objectives pertain to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both	3
Methods				
Trial design	3a	Description of trial design (such as parallel, factorial) including allocation ratio	Definition of cluster and description of how the design features apply to the clusters	4
	3b	Important changes to methods after trial commencement (such as eligibility criteria), with reasons		
Participants	4a	Eligibility criteria for participants	Eligibility criteria for clusters	4
	4b	Settings and locations where the data were collected		4
Interventions	5	The interventions for each group with sufficient details to allow replication, including how and when they were actually administered	Whether interventions pertain to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both	4 and 5
Outcomes	6a	Completely defined pre-specified primary and secondary outcome measures, including how and	Whether outcome measures pertain to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both	5 and 6

		when they were assessed	
	6b	Any changes to trial outcomes after the trial commenced, with reasons	6
Sample size	7a	How sample size was determined	Method of calculation, number of clusters(s) (and whether equal or unequal cluster sizes are assumed), cluster size, a coefficient of intracluster correlation (ICC or <i>k</i>), and an indication of its uncertainty
	7b	When applicable, explanation of any interim analyses and stopping guidelines	
Randomisation:			
Sequence generation	8a	Method used to generate the random allocation sequence	7
	8b	Type of randomisation; details of any restriction (such as blocking and block size)	Details of stratification or matching if used
Allocation concealment mechanism	9	Mechanism used to implement the random allocation sequence (such as sequentially numbered containers), describing any steps taken to conceal the sequence until interventions were assigned	Specification that allocation was based on clusters rather than individuals and whether allocation concealment (if any) was at the cluster level, the individual participant level or both
Implementation	10	Who generated the random allocation sequence, who enrolled participants, and who assigned participants to interventions	Replace by 10a, 10b and 10c
	10a		Who generated the random allocation sequence, who enrolled clusters, and who assigned clusters to interventions
	10b		Mechanism by which individual participants were included in clusters for the purposes of the trial (such as complete

			enumeration, random sampling)	
	10c		From whom consent was sought (representatives of the cluster, or individual cluster members, or both), and whether consent was sought before or after randomisation	7
Blinding	11a	If done, who was blinded after assignment to interventions (for example, participants, care providers, those assessing outcomes) and how		7
	11b	If relevant, description of the similarity of interventions		
Statistical methods	12a	Statistical methods used to compare groups for primary and secondary outcomes	How clustering was taken into account	7 and 8
	12b	Methods for additional analyses, such as subgroup analyses and adjusted analyses		7
Results				
Participant flow (a diagram is strongly recommended)	13a	For each group, the numbers of participants who were randomly assigned, received intended treatment, and were analysed for the primary outcome	For each group, the numbers of clusters that were randomly assigned, received intended treatment, and were analysed for the primary outcome	8 and figure 1
	13b	For each group, losses and exclusions after randomisation, together with reasons	For each group, losses and exclusions for both clusters and individual cluster members	Figure 1
Recruitment	14a	Dates defining the periods of recruitment and follow-up		8
	14b	Why the trial ended or was stopped		
Baseline data	15	A table showing baseline demographic and clinical	Baseline characteristics for the individual and cluster levels as	8 and (Table1)

		characteristics for each group	applicable for each group	
Numbers analysed	16	For each group, number of participants (denominator) included in each analysis and whether the analysis was by original assigned groups	For each group, number of clusters included in each analysis	8
Outcomes and estimation	17a	For each primary and secondary outcome, results for each group, and the estimated effect size and its precision (such as 95% confidence interval)	Results at the individual or cluster level as applicable and a coefficient of intracluster correlation (ICC or k) for each primary outcome	11 and 12
	17b	For binary outcomes, presentation of both absolute and relative effect sizes is recommended		11 (Table 3)
Ancillary analyses	18	Results of any other analyses performed, including subgroup analyses and adjusted analyses, distinguishing pre-specified from exploratory		10 and 13
Harms	19	All important harms or unintended effects in each group (for specific guidance see CONSORT for harms ³)		
Discussion				
Limitations	20	Trial limitations, addressing sources of potential bias, imprecision, and, if relevant, multiplicity of analyses		15 and 16
Generalisability	21	Generalisability (external validity, applicability) of the trial findings	Generalisability to clusters and/or individual participants (as relevant)	16
Interpretation	22	Interpretation consistent with results, balancing benefits and harms, and considering other relevant evidence		13, 14 and 15
Other information				
Registration	23	Registration number and		2

		name of trial registry	
Protocol	24	Where the full trial protocol can be accessed, if available	3
Funding	25	Sources of funding and other support (such as supply of drugs), role of funders	17

* Note: page numbers optional depending on journal requirements

For peer review only

Table 2: Extension of CONSORT for abstracts^{1,2} to reports of cluster randomised trials

Item	Standard Checklist item	Extension for cluster trials
Title	Identification of study as randomised	Identification of study as cluster randomised
Trial design	Description of the trial design (e.g. parallel, cluster, non-inferiority)	
Methods		
Participants	Eligibility criteria for participants and the settings where the data were collected	Eligibility criteria for clusters
Interventions	Interventions intended for each group	
Objective	Specific objective or hypothesis	Whether objective or hypothesis pertains to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both
Outcome	Clearly defined primary outcome for this report	Whether the primary outcome pertains to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both
Randomization	How participants were allocated to interventions	How clusters were allocated to interventions
Blinding (masking)	Whether or not participants, care givers, and those assessing the outcomes were blinded to group assignment	
Results		
Numbers randomized	Number of participants randomized to each group	Number of clusters randomized to each group
Recruitment	Trial status ¹	
Numbers analysed	Number of participants analysed in each group	Number of clusters analysed in each group
Outcome	For the primary outcome, a result for each group and the estimated effect size and its precision	Results at the cluster or individual participant level as applicable for each primary outcome
Harms	Important adverse events or side effects	
Conclusions	General interpretation of the results	
Trial registration	Registration number and name of trial register	
Funding	Source of funding	

¹ Relevant to Conference Abstracts

REFERENCES

- 1 Hopewell S, Clarke M, Moher D, Wager E, Middleton P, Altman DG, et al. CONSORT for reporting randomised trials in journal and conference abstracts. *Lancet* 2008, 371:281-283
- 2 Hopewell S, Clarke M, Moher D, Wager E, Middleton P, Altman DG at al (2008) CONSORT for reporting randomized controlled trials in journal and conference abstracts: explanation and elaboration. *PLoS Med* 5(1): e20
- 3 Ioannidis JP, Evans SJ, Gotzsche PC, O'Neill RT, Altman DG, Schulz K, Moher D. Better reporting of harms in randomized trials: an extension of the CONSORT statement. *Ann Intern Med* 2004; 141(10):781-788.

For peer review only

BMJ Open

Pulse oximeter with integrated management of childhood illness for diagnosis of severe childhood pneumonia at rural health institutions in Southern Ethiopia: Results from a cluster-randomized controlled trial

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2020-036814.R3
Article Type:	Original research
Date Submitted by the Author:	11-May-2020
Complete List of Authors:	Tesfaye, Solomon H.; Hawassa University College of Medicine and Health Sciences, School of public health; University of Bergen Centre for International Health, Global public health and primary care Gebeyehu, Yabibal ; Dilla University College of Health Sciences, School of medicine Loha, Eskindir ; Hawassa University College of Medicine and Health Sciences, School of public health; London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine Department of Infectious Disease Epidemiology Johansson, Kjell Arne; University of Bergen Centre for International Health, Global public health and primary care Lindtjørn , Bernt ; Hawassa University College of Medicine and Health Sciences, School of public health; University of Bergen Centre for International Health, Global public health and primary care
Primary Subject Heading:	Paediatrics
Secondary Subject Heading:	Public health
Keywords:	Community child health < PAEDIATRICS, PUBLIC HEALTH, Respiratory infections < THORACIC MEDICINE

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts



I, the Submitting Author has the right to grant and does grant on behalf of all authors of the Work (as defined in the below author licence), an exclusive licence and/or a non-exclusive licence for contributions from authors who are: i) UK Crown employees; ii) where BMJ has agreed a CC-BY licence shall apply, and/or iii) in accordance with the terms applicable for US Federal Government officers or employees acting as part of their official duties; on a worldwide, perpetual, irrevocable, royalty-free basis to BMJ Publishing Group Ltd ("BMJ") its licensees and where the relevant Journal is co-owned by BMJ to the co-owners of the Journal, to publish the Work in this journal and any other BMJ products and to exploit all rights, as set out in our [licence](#).

The Submitting Author accepts and understands that any supply made under these terms is made by BMJ to the Submitting Author unless you are acting as an employee on behalf of your employer or a postgraduate student of an affiliated institution which is paying any applicable article publishing charge ("APC") for Open Access articles. Where the Submitting Author wishes to make the Work available on an Open Access basis (and intends to pay the relevant APC), the terms of reuse of such Open Access shall be governed by a Creative Commons licence – details of these licences and which [Creative Commons](#) licence will apply to this Work are set out in our licence referred to above.

Other than as permitted in any relevant BMJ Author's Self Archiving Policies, I confirm this Work has not been accepted for publication elsewhere, is not being considered for publication elsewhere and does not duplicate material already published. I confirm all authors consent to publication of this Work and authorise the granting of this licence.

1
2
3 **Pulse oximeter with integrated management of childhood illness for diagnosis of severe**
4 **childhood pneumonia at rural health institutions in Southern Ethiopia: Results from a**
5 **cluster-randomized controlled trial**
6
7
8
9

10
11 Solomon H. Tesfaye^{1,2,3}, Yabibal Gebeyehu⁴, Eskindir Loha^{1,5}, Kjell Arne Johansson²,
12 and Bernt Lindtjørn^{1,2}
13
14

15
16 ¹ School of Public Health, Hawassa University, Hawassa, Ethiopia
17

18 ² Centre for International Health, University of Bergen, Bergen, Norway
19

20
21 ³ School of Public Health, Dilla University, Dilla, Ethiopia
22

23 ⁴ School of Medicine, Dilla University, Dilla, Ethiopia
24

25
26 ⁵ Department of Infectious Disease Epidemiology, London School of Hygiene and Tropical
27 Medicine, London, United Kingdom
28
29

30 **Correspondence to:**

31
32 Solomon H. Tesfaye, E-mail: solomon0917242124@gmail.com, Phone: +251917242124
33

34 **Word count:** 4169
35

36 **Number of figures and tables:** 5
37

38 **ABSTRACT**
39

40
41 **Objective:** To assess whether pulse oximetry improves health workers' performance in
42 diagnosing severe childhood pneumonia at health centres in Southern Ethiopia.
43

44 **Design:** Parallel cluster randomized trial.
45

46 **Setting:** Government primary health centres
47

48
49 **Participants:** Twenty-four health centres that treat at least one pneumonia case per day in
50 Southern Ethiopia. Children between 2 months and 59 months-of-age who present at health
51 facilities with cough or difficulty breathing were recruited in the study from September, 2018
52 to April, 2019.
53

54
55 **Intervention arm:** Use of the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) algorithm
56 and pulse oximeter.
57
58
59
60

Control arm: Use of the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) algorithm only.

Primary and secondary outcome measures: The primary outcome was the proportion of children diagnosed with severe pneumonia. Secondary outcomes included referred cases of severe pneumonia and treatment failure on day 14 after enrolment.

Result: Twenty-four health centres were randomized into intervention (928 children) and control arms (876 children). The proportion of children with severe pneumonia was 15.9% (148 of 928 children) in the intervention arm and 3.9% (34 of 876 children) in the control arm. After adjusting for differences in baseline variables children in the intervention arm were more likely to be diagnosed as severe pneumonia cases as compared to those in the control arm (adjusted odds ratio [OR]:5.4, 95% confidence interval [CI]: 2.0 – 14.3, p=0.001)

Conclusion: The combined use of Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) and pulse oximetry in health centres increased the number of diagnosed severe childhood pneumonia.

Trial registration: PACTR201807164196402 (14/06/2018).

Keywords: Community child health, Public health, Respiratory infection.

Strengths and limitations of this study

- Random allocation of health centres to intervention and control arms
- Participating health centres were typical of such institutions in rural communities in Ethiopia.
- Robust training on how use the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness algorithm, and how to measure oxygen saturation.
- Due to the nature of the intervention, inability to mask the health workers and the study participants of the intervention.
- Unequal number of children seeking health care between the two comparison arms.

INTRODUCTION

Pneumonia killed approximately 920,000 children less than five years-of-age in 2015.[1] The mortality rate is especially high in Ethiopia, and 59 deaths per 1,000 live births occurred in

1
2
3 2017 in children less than five years-of-age.[2] Ethiopia ranks sixth among countries with the
4 highest number of deaths from pneumonia in children less than five years-of-age.[1]
5
6

7
8 The World Health Organization (WHO) Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI)
9 improves the quality of child care for common illnesses,[3, 4] but there is poor diagnostic
10 precision for childhood pneumonia based on clinical features.[5] The ability of health care
11 providers to count breaths and classify respiratory rate in children using the IMCI algorithm
12 is a challenge.[6]
13
14
15

16
17
18 Clinical signs of pneumonia, such as tachypnoea, inability to drink or breastfeed, and head-
19 nodding, used in the IMCI algorithm, are not able to identify hypoxic children with severe
20 pneumonia as precisely as pulse oximetry.[7] Consequently, many children with severe
21 pneumonia are dying because hypoxemia is not adequately recognized and/or oxygen therapy
22 is unavailable.[1]
23
24
25
26

27
28 This study is an extension of a study in which we first assessed the health system support of
29 IMCI, where we found that the basic supplies for effective management of pneumonia were
30 inadequate. Indeed, in a large proportion of the surveyed health facilities, essential drugs,
31 vaccines, job aids, and equipment were lacking. None of the health centres and health posts
32 had a pulse oximeter. We also determined that many health facilities had an insufficient
33 number of IMCI-trained health workers, and were deficient in requisite supportive
34 supervision. In addition, health workers' knowledge of managing severe pneumonia was
35 low.[8]
36
37
38
39
40
41

42
43 For the abovementioned reasons, an urgent need exists for interventions that assist health
44 workers to improve the diagnosis of severe childhood pneumonia. The objective of the study
45 was to assess whether pulse oximetry improves health workers' performance in diagnosing
46 severe childhood pneumonia at health centres in Southern Ethiopia.
47
48
49
50

51 **METHODS**

52
53 This study adheres to the Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) statement
54 extension for cluster randomized trials,[9] available as supplementary files (CONSORT
55 checklist). The full protocol of this trial was published at protocols.io (DOI:
56 <http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.88mhzu6>).
57
58
59
60

Trial design

The study constitutes a parallel-cluster randomized controlled trial conducted at 24 health centres. An equal number of health centres were allocated into intervention and control arms, i.e., the combined use of IMCI algorithm,[10]and pulse oximetry (intervention arm), and the IMCI algorithm only (control arm). No changes were made to the design of the study after its commencement.

Study setting and participants

The study was conducted in the Gedeo Zone of Southern Ethiopia. The zone's population is more than one million people, of which approximately 170,000 are children younger than five years-of-age.[11] There are 146 health posts (operational unit for health extension workers), 38 primary health centres, and one teaching and referral hospital. At these institutions, pneumonia is among the top-10 causes of outpatient treatment, and currently health professionals in study settings utilize the WHO IMCI algorithm to manage pneumonia and other common childhood illnesses.[10]

The study comprises 24 primary health centres in the rural Gedeo Zone, each of which treats at least one case of pneumonia per day. Children who were aged 2 months to 59 months with cough or had difficulty breathing for less than 14 days were included and followed for treatment outcome. Children aged 2 months to 59 months with cough or difficulty breathing for more than 14 days, or whose diagnoses were for other conditions, such as pulmonary tuberculosis, were excluded. In both arms, the assessment for inclusion and exclusion of children were identical. Pulse oximetry was not used to screen patients for inclusion in the study. Since there was no pulse oximeter in the study settings, no pulse oximeters were removed from their usual clinical practice for the purpose of the study. The recruitment of children started on September, 2018 and lasted until April, 2019.

Trial interventions

Health workers from the intervention arm used the WHO IMCI algorithm,[10] and a paediatric fingertip pulse oximeter (ADC® Adimals 2150) to diagnose pneumonia. Oxygen saturation was measured twice, 5 min apart. The measurement was taken when the child was calm, and recorded when the pulse oximetry accurately reflected consistent, high-amplitude plethysmographic waveforms associated with stable oxygen saturation for 1 min. Hypoxemia (oxygen saturation less than 90%) diagnosis was based on the average of the two measures.

Health workers from the control arm used the same WHO IMCI algorithm, but without measuring oxygen saturation.

Training was given for health workers on IMCI algorithm and how to use pulse oximetry. An IMCI-trained paediatrician offered the training, which was supported by a video-based exercise and practical session that was developed by the WHO and adopted by the Ethiopian Federal Ministry of Health.[12] Prior to implementing the trial, a pilot study was conducted to estimate the intra and inter observer reliability of the pulse oximetry. Detail about training, data collection and pilot results were given in trial protocol.

Study outcomes

The primary study outcome was severe pneumonia diagnosed using the IMCI algorithm in both arms.[10] The IMCI criteria used to diagnose severe pneumonia or very severe disease is presented in table 1. In addition to the IMCI criteria, average oxygen saturation less than 90%,[13] was used in the intervention arm.

Table 1 WHO IMCI criteria used to diagnose severe pneumonia or very severe disease.

Variable name	WHO IMCI criteria
Severe pneumonia cases detected for the intervention group	<p>A child with cough or difficult breathing plus at least one of the following signs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Any general danger signs (unable to drink or breastfeed, vomiting everything, convulsion, or lethargic) or stridor in calm child <p>In addition one of the following symptoms of pneumonia:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fast breathing (respiratory rate ≥ 50 breaths/min in children aged 2 up to 11 months and respiratory rate ≥ 40 breaths/min in children aged 12 months up to 5 years) Lower chest wall in-drawing <p>AND/OR</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oxygen saturation $< 90\%$ as measured by pulse oximetry.
Severe pneumonia cases detected for the control group	<p>A child with cough or difficult breathing plus at least one of the following signs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Any general danger signs (unable to drink or breastfeed,

	<p>vomiting everything, convulsion, or lethargic) or stridor in calm child.</p> <p>In addition one of the following symptoms of pneumonia:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fast breathing (respiratory rate ≥ 50 breaths/min in children aged 2 up to 11 months and respiratory rate ≥ 40 breaths/min in children aged 12 months up to 5 years) • Lower chest wall in-drawing
--	--

The secondary study outcomes were: Treatment failure on day 14 after enrolment,[14] and severe pneumonia cases referred to the hospital. We considered treatment failure at day 14 if any of the following signs were present: Development or persistence of general danger signs (e.g., inability to drink or breastfeed, vomits everything, convulsions, lethargy, or unconsciousness), persistence of fever (axillary temperature ≥ 37.5 degrees Celsius), persistence of tachypnoea (respiratory rate ≥ 50 breaths/min in children aged 2 to 11 months and ≥ 40 breaths/min in children aged 12 months to 5 years), chest wall in-drawings, presence of persistent cough, recurrence of fever, withdrawal from the trial or death. Treatment failure on days 2, 5 and 14 was initially planned in this study. But for the following reasons only treatment failure on day 14 was included in the final analysis: in Ethiopia, children with pneumonia will be managed at home and severe pneumonia is expected to be treated at a hospital. If the child had cough or difficulty breathing after 14 days of treatment, children would have been assessed for other diseases, for example tuberculosis.

Follow-up visits

Children in both the intervention and control arms were followed for a total of 14 days. Visits were scheduled on day 2, day 5, and day 14 after enrolment. For children who missed a scheduled follow-up visit, health workers contacted the families at home on the following day. A child who could not be located was considered as lost to follow-up. In such cases, we contacted the participants' family and neighbours by phone to collect information about deaths, relocation, or hospitalizations.

Study size

The sample size was calculated based on a difference in effect size of 10%, power of 90%, 95% significance level, intraclass correlation coefficient of 0.025, and a minimum of 25

1
2
3 children with cough per cluster. Based on previous research, we expected health workers
4 using the IMCI-alone algorithm to identify 4% of children with severe pneumonia.[15] With
5 this assumption, the estimated number of clusters was 11 in each arm. Drop-out of the entire
6 clusters is uncommon, however, according to a recommendation by Rutterford et al,[16] we
7 incorporated 1 extra cluster per treatment group. Therefore, the total size of the cluster was
8 12 per treatment group.
9

14 **Randomization**

16 Randomization was done after we obtained consent from the district and health facilities
17 head. The randomization units were health centres. From 38 health centres in the study area,
18 31 health centres with at least one pneumonia case treated per day were included in the
19 sampling frame. Accordingly, 24 of 31 health centres were randomly selected using the
20 simple random sampling method. Of those 24, 12 were randomly selected for the intervention
21 group and 12 for the control group. This random selection was performed at the University of
22 Bergen using a list generated by SPSS software. Due to the nature of the intervention, it was
23 impossible to blind the data collectors and the study participants. Those doing the analysis
24 were not blinded to the intervention allocation.
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 **Analyses**

35 We used Stata version 15 (Stata Corp. LLC, College Station, TX, U.S.A.) for data analysis.
36 An independent sample t-test for normally distributed continuous variables, Mann-Whitney
37 U-test for skewed continuous variables, and chi-squared test for categorical variables were
38 utilized to compare baseline data in the two arms.
39
40
41
42

43 Mixed effect logistic regression with random intercept to account for clustering by health
44 centres was used to estimate the effect of the intervention on primary and secondary
45 outcomes. The effect estimate for primary outcome was expressed in odds ratio (OR) with
46 95% confidence interval (CI), and P-value less than 0.05 was considered as statistically
47 significant. To control for potential confounding factors, some of the unbalanced baseline
48 variables, such as child's vaccination, parents' wealth, and educational status were considered
49 during the analysis. Individual level variables such as child's age, stunting, and sex
50 constituted other potential confounders, and were also adjusted for the regression analysis.
51 Intraclass correlation coefficient for the primary outcome was estimated from the random
52 effect model output.
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Where values for baseline variables were missing, they were treated as missing and the
4 missed values for few variables were less than 5 percent. Analyses were by intention-to-treat
5 (ITT) principle. Those who died or withdraw from the trial were classified as treatment
6 failure and included in the ITT analysis.
7
8
9

10 11 **Patient and Public involvement** 12

13 There is no tradition in Ethiopia to invite patient organisations to take part in the planning,
14 design and follow up of trials. In this study, and before the implementation of the
15 intervention, meetings were held with representatives from the Gedeo Zone Health
16 Department, district health offices, and head of health facilities. The meeting was about the
17 burden of childhood pneumonia in the study area and at national level, and the purpose of the
18 study. After having the authorities consent to carry out the study, written permission was
19 obtained from Zone and district health offices. All patients were informed about the purpose
20 of the study, and caregivers were told that involvement is voluntary and that they could
21 withdraw at any time regardless of reason. Caregivers were briefed about the oximetry
22 procedure and routine pneumonia diagnosis. The caregivers were informed that the
23 instrument would not harm the child. They were also assured that refusal to participate in the
24 study would not affect their medical care in health centres. The findings of this study will be
25 communicated to each of the health institutions and through the institutions to the patients.
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36

37 **RESULTS** 38

39
40 Twenty-four health centres were randomly and equally assigned into intervention and control
41 arms. Nine hundred twenty eight children in the intervention arm and 876 children in the
42 control arm were recruited and diagnosed for severe pneumonia and followed from
43 September 2018 to April 2019. All of the 24 health centres and all recruited children were
44 included for the primary and secondary outcome analysis on the basis of the original
45 assignment (figure 1 for details on participants' flow and recruitment).
46
47
48
49
50

51 **Baseline characteristics** 52

53 The baseline characteristics of the study group were comparable, except for Pneumococcal
54 and Haemophilus influenzae type b vaccines, and educational and wealth status of parents
55 (table 2).
56
57

58 Table 2 Baseline comparison between groups at individual and cluster level.
59
60

Variables	Intervention	Control
Cluster level		
Number of clusters	12	12
Number of children age less than five years of age in the catchment area	63,285	50,629
Total number of children attending health centres	2600	1755
Total number of eligible children	928	876
Number of eligible children per cluster	77	73
Sex of health workers		
Male	8	9
Female	4	3
Age of health workers in year: Mean (SD)	29 (4.5)	26 (2.8)
Total service duration in months: Median (IQR)	37 (30 to 81)	45 (25 to 68)
Service in child care in months: Median (IQR)	25 (23 to 45)	21 (8 to 56)
Previous training in IMCI		
Yes	7	8
No	5	4
Profession of health workers		
Health officer	2	4
BSc nursing	1	1
Diploma nursing	9	7
Number of eligible children per cluster	77	73
Individual level		
Sex of child		
Boys	479/914 (52%)	475/870 (55%)
Girls	435/914 (48%)	395/870 (45%)
Duration of cough or difficulty breathing in days: Mean (SD)	3.8 (2.3)	3.8 (1.9)
Age of child in months: Median (IQR)	12 (7 to 28)	12 (7 to 25)
Weight-for-age-z score: Median (IQR)	-1.0 (-2.0, 0.1)	-1.1 (-2.2,0.1)
Weight-for-height-z score: Median (IQR)	-0.1 (-1.4,1.4)	-0.1 (-1.7,1.8)

Height-for-age-z score: Median (IQR)	-1.7 (-3.4, -0.0)	-1.8 (-3.5, -0.1)
Pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b vaccines		
Fully vaccinated	668/928 (72.0%)	667/876 (76.1%)
Partially vaccinated	260/928 (28.0%)	209/876 (23.9%)
Age of caregivers in years: Mean (SD)	26.6 (6.2)	27.1 (4.7)
Educational status of caregivers		
No education	386/927 (41.6%)	437/875 (49.9%)
Primary	432/927 (46.6%)	371/875 (42.4%)
Secondary and above	109/927 (11.8%)	67/875 (7.7%)
Wealth tertiles		
Poor	217/830 (26.1%)	322/789 (40.8%)
Medium	313/830 (37.7%)	208/789 (26.4%)
Rich	300/830 (36.1%)	259/789 (32.8%)

Hypoxemia

A total of 1804 children were enrolled in the study, of which 928 children were enrolled into the intervention and 876 into the control arm. Of the 928 children in the intervention arm, 135/928 (14.5%) had oxygen saturation of less than 90%. A total of 148 severe pneumonia cases were diagnosed in the intervention arm and, of these, 65 cases (43.9%) met the IMCI algorithm and had oxygen saturation < 90%, 70 (47.3%) did not meet the IMCI algorithm, but had oxygen saturation < 90%, and 13 (8.8%) met the IMCI algorithm, but had oxygen saturation > 90%. The overall median oxygen saturation was 94% (IQR = 91% to 96%). The median oxygen saturation among children diagnosed with severe pneumonia was 82%, (IQR = 72% to 86%), while among non-severe pneumonia cases the median was 94% (IQR = 92% to 96%).

In addition, we estimated the sensitivity and specificity of the two clinical signs used in WHO IMCI algorithm to diagnose pneumonia (fast breathing and chest in-drawing). Fast breathing had the highest sensitivity (94%), but specificity was low (25%) as compared to chest in-drawing (81%). Furthermore, using a combination of both symptoms did not improve their predictive ability (see supplementary file, table 1).

Primary outcome

The cluster adjusted proportion of diagnosed severe pneumonia was 148/928 (15.9%, 95% CI 4.7– 27.2) for the intervention arm and 34/876 (3.9%, 95% CI 1.2 – 6.6) for the control arm, and $P < 0.001$. The crude odds ratio of being diagnosed with severe pneumonia for children in the intervention arm was 4.7 (95% CI 1.9 –11.8; $P < 0.001$) as compared to the control arm. The effect of the intervention remained the same after adjusting for each of the baseline variables (Table 3). In addition, children who were boys, aged 2 months to 11 months, height for age z-scores less than -2, and not fully vaccinated for Pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b were more likely to be diagnosed with severe pneumonia than their counterparts (table 3).

We carried out effect modification analysis to see whether the effect of pulse oximeter in identifying severe pneumonia was modified by the type of health profession (Bachelor degree versus diploma degree nurses). The impact of pulse oximeter is not modified by the health professionals' medical background knowledge for diagnosing severe childhood pneumonia (P - value = 0.828). Therefore, we have removed the interaction term and present the model without interaction and present the effect of pulse oximetry adjusted for the baseline confounders.

Table 3 Odds ratio from the multilevel logistic regression model comparing the proportion of diagnosed severe pneumonia between the arms.

Variables	Total	Diagnosed severe pneumonia	Bivariate analysis	Multivariable analysis		
		n (%)	COR* (95% CI)	AOR** (95% CI)	P value	
Intervention†	Yes	928	148 (15.9)	4.7 (1.9–11.8)	5.4 (2.0–14.3)	0.001
	No	876	34 (3.9)	1	1	
Sex of child	Boy	954	113 (11.8)	1.9 (1.1–3.1)	1.5 (1.1–2.3)	0.033
	Girl	830	69 (8.3)	1	1	
Age of child (months)	2–11	773	93 (12.0)	1.7 (1.2–2.4)	1.7 (1.1–2.6)	0.011
	12–59	1031	89 (8.6)	1	1	
Height-for-age z-score (<-2)	Yes	763	87 (11.4)	1.5 (1.0–2.3)	1.5 (1.0–2.3)	0.055
	No	914	73 (8.0)	1	1	
Pneumococcal and Haemophilus influenzae type b vaccines	Partially vaccinated	469	67 (14.3)	2 (1.3–3.0)	1.7 (1.1–2.7)	0.043
	Fully vaccinated	1335	115 (8.6)	1	1	
Educational status of parents	No education	823	96 (11.7)	1.7 (0.9–3.3)	1.1 (0.5–2.3)	0.797
	Primary	803	72 (9.0)	1.4 (0.7–2.6)	1.3 (0.6–2.6)	0.487

	Secondary	176	14 (8.0)	1	1	
Wealth tertiles	Poor	539	52 (9.6)	1.7 (0.8–3.3)	1.1 (0.7–1.9)	0.617
	Medium	521	47 (9.0)	1.3 (0.8–2.3)	0.9 (0.6–1.5)	0.761
	Rich	559	58 (10.4)	1	1	

*Crude odds ratio

**Adjusted odds ratio

†The intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) for severe pneumonia was 0.043.

Secondary outcomes

After examining the clustering effect, the proportion of children with severe pneumonia referred to the hospital was 116/148 (78.4%, 95% CI 67.6 – 89.2) in the intervention arm and 15/34 (44.1%, 95% CI 6.9 – 81.3) in the control arm, with $P=0.496$. Among these, 62/116 (53.4%) in the intervention arm, and 11/15 (73.3%) in the control arm, reached the hospital and received the standard treatment.

Table 4 shows the total treatment failure, and treatment failure by specific causes, between the arms. The proportion of treatment failure at day 14 was 132/928 (14.2%, 95% CI 6.0 – 22.4) in the intervention arm and 93/876 (10.6%, 95% CI 5.2 – 16.1) in the control arm ($P=0.622$). There were two deaths in each of the intervention and control arms. Nine children from the intervention and three children from the control arms had persistent cough at day 14. The crude odds ratio of treatment failure for children with oxygen saturation $< 90\%$ was 3.3 (95% CI; 1.87 – 5.80) as compared to children with oxygen saturation greater or equal to 90%.

Table 4 Treatment failures by specific causes at day 14.

Outcome	Treatment failure at day 14			
	Intervention	Control	Difference % (95% CI)	P value
Total	132/928 (14.2%)	93/876 (10.6%)	-3.6% (-17 to 10.7)	0.622
General danger signs	17/815 (2.1%)	31/823 (3.8%)	1.7% (-5.2 to 8.6)	0.635
Chest in-drawing	2/815 (0.2%)	3/823 (0.4%)	0.2% (-0.4 to 0.7)	0.662
Persistence of tachypnoea	33/815 (4.0%)	18/823 (2.2%)	-1.9% (-12.2 to 8.5)	0.722
Persistence of fever	9/815 (1.1%)	5/823 (0.6%)	-0.5% (-3.4 to 2.4)	0.737
Persistent cough	9/815 (1.1%)	3/823 (0.4%)	-0.7% (-5.1 to 3.6)	0.736

Lost to follow-up	68/928 (7.3%)	49/876 (5.6%)	-2.1% (-17.0 to 12.9)	0.785
Death	2/928 (0.22%)	2/876 (0.23%)	0.0% (-0.4 to 0.4)	0.954

Sensitivity analysis

The cut-off point we used in the trial proposal to define hypoxemia was an issue raised by the Regional Committees for Medical Research Ethics, South East Norway that approved our study. The committee commented that the cut-off point of oxygen saturation under 90% to define hypoxemia is too low as it would contradict the Norwegian guidelines. Therefore, Oxygen saturation cut-off point < 92% was used for the sensitivity analysis. If we use an oxygen saturation cut off < 92% to define hypoxemia, the proportion of children with hypoxemia would be 298/921 (32.4%, 95% CI 16.2 – 48.5). Moreover, the cluster adjusted proportion of severe pneumonia would be 304/928 (32.8%, 95% CI 18.2– 47.3) in the intervention arm, and crude odds ratio 13.3 (95% CI 5.0 – 35.3) as compared to control arm.

One of the health centres in intervention arm is found at high altitude (2993 metres above sea level) and we did a sensitivity analysis adjusting oxygen saturation level at < 87% [13]. The proportion of children with severe pneumonia in intervention arm was 124/928 (13.4%; 95% CI 8.0 – 21.4), and 34/876 (3.9%, 95% CI 1.2 – 6.6) in the control arm. The crude odds ratio of being diagnosed with severe pneumonia for children in the intervention arm was 4.2 (95% CI 1.8 –9.5) as compared to the control arm.

As it was the first time that mid-level health workers in this rural part of Ethiopia used pulse oximeters, this could result non-valid pulse oximeter readings. Assuming that 85% of the readings would be valid, we randomly select 85% of cases with pulse oximeter measurements and did sensitivity analysis. The proportion of children with severe pneumonia in intervention arm was 126 of 789 children (15.9%; 95% CI 10.0 – 21.9), and 34/876 (3.9%, 95% CI 0.8 – 6.9) in the control arm. The adjusted odds ratio of being diagnosed with severe pneumonia for children in the intervention arm was 5.3 (95% CI 1.9 –14.4; P = 0.001) as compared to the control arm.

DISCUSSION

Introducing pulse oximetry into the WHO IMCI algorithm significantly increased the diagnosis of severe childhood pneumonia in health centres.

1
2
3 The IMCI algorithms are based on clinical symptoms, and do not involve any objective
4 diagnostic test to identify children with severe pneumonia.[17] Health workers often
5 misclassify pneumonia from severe pneumonia cases because of difficulty with interpretation
6 of danger signs.[18] In our trial, we attempted to show how pulse oximetry assisted health
7 workers in identifying severe pneumonia cases through detecting hypoxemia. The combined
8 use of pulse oximetry with the WHO IMCI algorithm achieves better performance than the
9 IMCI algorithm alone in identifying children with hypoxemia requiring oxygen therapy.[7,
10 19]

11
12 Chest in-drawings and fast breathing are keys to enable health workers to identify and
13 provide treatment for childhood pneumonia.[20] However, IMCI-based respiratory rate and
14 chest in-drawing increase the misclassification of pneumonia cases.[21] In subgroup analysis
15 for the intervention arm of 135 children with hypoxemia, 56 of them did not have chest in-
16 drawing. This means that, without pulse oximetry, 56/135 (42%) children would have been
17 missed and inappropriately treated. Pulse oximetry identified 67% of children without chest
18 in-drawing or danger signs.[22]

19
20 Children aged 2 months to 11 months, and partially immunized children, were more likely to
21 be diagnosed with severe pneumonia (approximately two-fold as compared to those fully
22 immunised). Our findings are consistent with other results, in which partial immunization
23 constitutes a risk factor for childhood pneumonia.[23] A finding from another study also
24 demonstrated that older children were less likely to develop childhood pneumonia.[24]

25
26 There was no difference in severe pneumonia cases referred to a hospital between the arms.
27 However, the total number of severe pneumonia cases referred to a hospital in the study area
28 increased as compared to the number of cases referred to a hospital in the study area prior to
29 the implementation of the intervention. In our previous survey of 66 severe pneumonia cases,
30 only 18 (27%) were referred to a hospital.[8] In other observational research, the utilization
31 of pulse oximetry improved the decision-making of health workers in referring children with
32 severe pneumonia.[19, 22]

33
34 There was also no difference in treatment failure between the trial arms. A large number of
35 children from the intervention arm did not go to hospital. Limited access to transport was the
36 main reason for low compliance with referral in the study settings.[8] This implies that only
37 providing pulse oximetry may be insufficient to improve treatment outcome, as both pulse
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 oximetry and adequate management, including oxygen therapy, are critical.[25] However, our
4 study suggests that providing adequate pneumonia treatment at peripheral hospitals and
5 health centres needs to be considered and should be future research area. Such strategies that
6 decentralise treatment have, for example, been shown to reduce maternal mortality.[26]
7
8
9

10
11 One of the main strengths of this study is that it was based on randomly selected health
12 centres, which are typical of rural communities in Ethiopia. Moreover, we measured oxygen
13 saturation after checking the reliability of pulse oximetry in the study area. The intra- and
14 inter-rater reliability estimates ranged from good to excellent.[27] In this trial, except for
15 educational and wealth status of parents and vaccination status of children, the baseline
16 characteristics of the study arms were balanced. To control for bias due to possible
17 confounding factors, we used estimates adjusted for those potential confounders.
18
19
20
21
22
23

24 The study also possesses certain limitations that are worth noting. First, the number of
25 children who attended the facilities was larger in the intervention arm than in the control
26 group. This might be due to the following two reasons: (1) the base population in the
27 intervention arm was large (63,285) as compared to the control base population (50,629).
28 Accordingly, proportionally more children 2600/63,285 (4.1%) from the intervention arm
29 attended the study facilities than the control arm 1755/50,629 (3.5%), (2) during the study
30 period, approximately one million people were displaced due to inter-communal violence in
31 the study area.[28] From six refugee camps for the displaced people, four camps were found
32 in the intervention areas.[29] This might have drawn more children to seek medical care in
33 the intervention centres.
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

43 Second, the trial also did not confirm the diagnosis of severe pneumonia using radiological
44 examination. Hypoxemia can also occur in diseases other than childhood pneumonia,
45 including sepsis, meningitis, and severe malaria.[30] Our trial could include children with
46 acute bronchitis or acute bronchiolitis and lobar pneumonia. We used the WHO IMCI
47 algorithm, which labelled these diseases clinically as pneumonia, and our findings should be
48 interpreted within this context.
49
50
51
52
53

54 Third, it is well documented that obtaining accurate saturations readings in sick children is
55 challenging and that our documented pulse oximetry readings may not always be accurate for
56 three main reasons (1) the pulse oximeter may have given an inaccurate reading, for example
57 when there was motion artefacts, poor perfusion, or irregular rhythms.[31] (2) the
58
59
60

1
2
3 requirement to record an oxygen saturation that had been stable for 60 seconds may have
4 forced health workers to document a reading, even when this was not always possible. (3) it
5 was the first time that health workers at these institutions used pulse oximeter, therefore,
6 health workers may document an inaccurate pulse oximeter reading. However, the sensitivity
7 analysis based on 85% of anticipated valid pulse oximetry readings showed that our
8 conclusion is similar.
9

10
11
12
13
14 The fourth limitation of the study was that there were missing values for few of the baseline
15 variables. However, the missing values were less than 5% and there was no significant
16 difference between the two trial groups. Another limitation was that we used oxygen
17 saturation level < 90%, which is high for children living at high altitude. This may increase
18 the false positive cases of severe pneumonia. However, our sensitivity analysis shows that the
19 result remains statistically significant after adjusting oxygen saturation level of < 87% for
20 children living at high altitude.[13]
21
22

23
24
25
26
27 Fifthly, the confidence interval for the effect estimate of the primary outcome in the
28 intervention arm is wide. It is well known that estimates accounting for clustering can result
29 in wide confidence interval. Therefore we recommend future research to be conducted using
30 a larger sample size.
31
32
33

34 35 **Implications**

36
37 Our results could be beneficially applied to health centres with mid-level health workers,
38 where the management of childhood pneumonia is based on WHO IMCI algorithm.
39 Therefore, the application of pulse oximeter to supplement the existing WHO IMCI
40 algorithm to health centres in rural Ethiopia could assist health workers to find more cases of
41 severe pneumonia
42
43
44
45

46 47 48 **CONCLUSION**

49
50 The addition of pulse oximetry to the WHO IMCI algorithm significantly increased the
51 number of diagnosed severe pneumonia cases in health centres, and could help to
52 substantially reduce childhood mortality from hypoxemia. Specific interventions that improve
53 compliance with referrals and decentralize treatment to health centres for the management of
54 severe childhood pneumonia are urgently needed.
55
56
57
58
59
60

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the Norwegian Programme for Capacity Development in Higher Education and Research for Development (NORHED) for funding this study. We also sincerely acknowledge the contributions of the Gedeo Zone Health Department and district health offices in helping to successfully launch the implementation of this study. We are grateful for the health workers and health facilities where the study was conducted. We would also like to sincerely thank the study participants involved in this study.

Contributorship

SHT conceptualized the idea, designed the study, wrote the protocol, coordinated the data collection, analysed and interpreted the data, and drafted this manuscript. BL conceptualized the idea, guided the study design, wrote the protocol, analysed and interpreted the data, took part in the proposal writing and writing of this manuscript. EL provided methodological advice, supported the analysis and revised the draft paper. KAJ provided methodological advice and revised the draft paper. YG took part in the training of staff at the health centres, monitored data collection and revised the draft paper. All authors read and approved the submitted version of the manuscript.

Funding

This work was supported by the Norwegian Programme for Capacity Development in Higher Education and Research for Development (NORHED). The funder had no role in the design, data collection, analysis, interpretation, writing of the manuscript, or decision to submit the paper for publication.

Competing interests: None declared

Patient consent for publication: Not required

Ethics approval

The study was approved by the institutional review board of the College of Medicine and Health Sciences at Hawassa University (ref: IRB/009//2017) and the Regional Committees for Medical Research Ethics, South East Norway (ref: 2017/2473/REK sør-øst). Children were included in the study after giving written informed consent by parents.

Data availability statement: The data for this trial will be published if the paper is accepted.

We usually post such data sets at <https://osf.io>

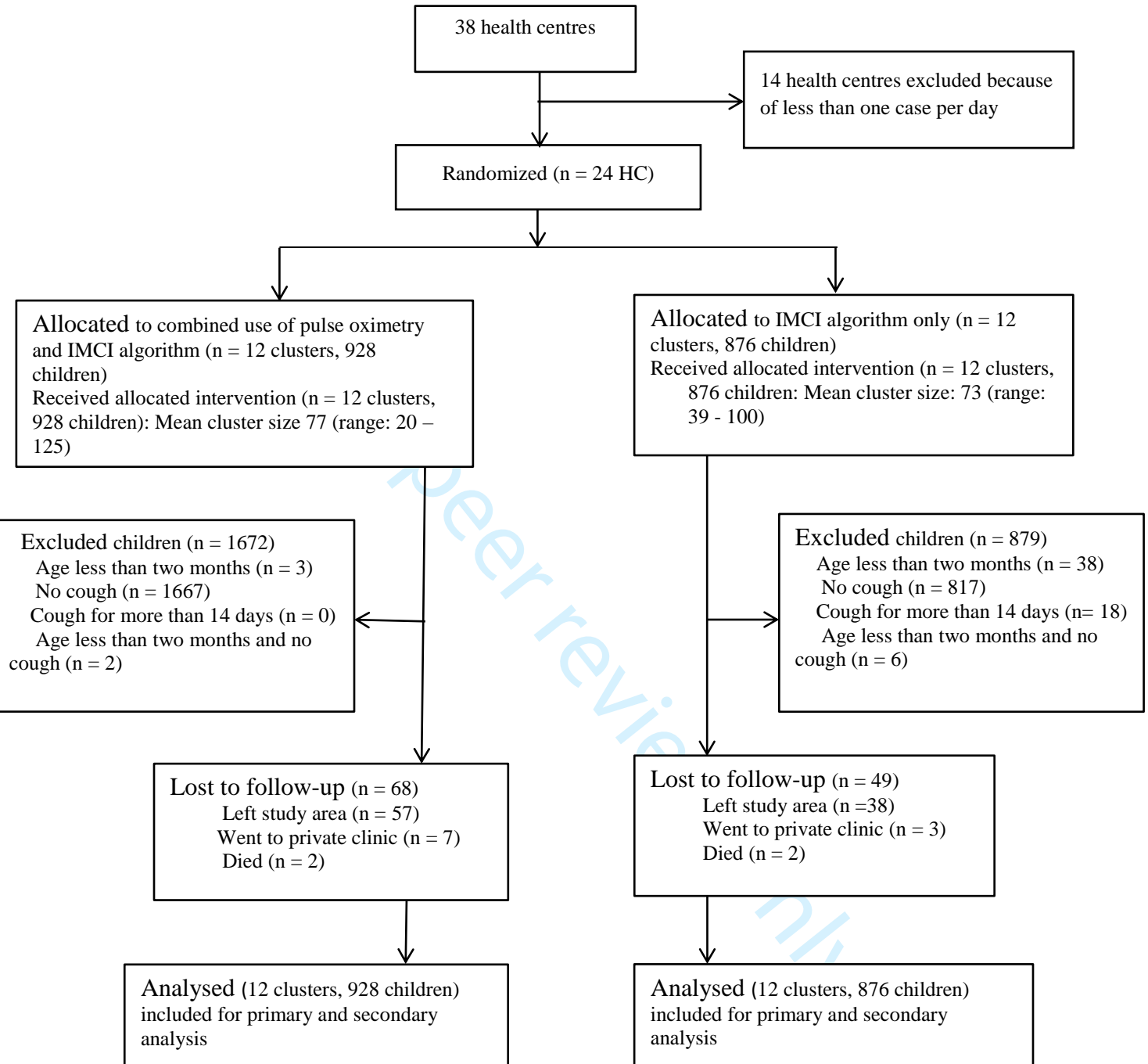
REFERENCES

1. UNICEF (2016): One is too many: ending child deaths from pneumonia and diarrhoea. <http://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/UNICEF-Pneumonia-Diarrhoea-report2016-web-version.pdf>. Accessed 06 March 2019.
2. WHO, UNICEF, World Bank Group, United Nations. Levels & trends in child mortality: Report 2017. <http://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/Child-Mortality-Report-2018.pdf>. Accessed 06 March 2019.
3. Amaral J, Gouws E, Bryce J, et al. Effect of Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) on health worker performance in Northeast-Brazil. *Cadernos de saude publica* 2004;20 Suppl 2:S209-19.
4. Bryce J, Gouws E, Adam T, et al. Improving quality and efficiency of facility-based child health care through Integrated Management of Childhood Illness in Tanzania. *Health policy and planning* 2005;20 Suppl 1:i69-i76.
5. Armstrong Schellenberg JR, Adam T, Mshinda H, et al. Effectiveness and cost of facility-based Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) in Tanzania. *Lancet (London, England)* 2004;364(9445):1583-94.
6. Armstrong Schellenberg J, Bryce J, de Savigny D, et al. The effect of Integrated Management of Childhood Illness on observed quality of care of under-fives in rural Tanzania. *Health policy and planning* 2004;19(1):1-10.
7. Alwadhvi V, Dewan P, Malhotra RK, et al. Tachypnea and Other Danger Signs vs Pulse Oximetry for Prediction of Hypoxia in Severe Pneumonia/Very Severe Disease. *Indian pediatrics* 2017;54(9):729-34.
8. Hailemariam S, Gebeyehu Y, Loha E, et al. Inadequate management of pneumonia among children in South Ethiopia: findings from descriptive study. *BMC health services research* 2019;19(1):426.
9. Campbell MK, Piaggio G, Elbourne DR, et al. Consort 2010 statement: extension to cluster randomised trials. *BMJ : British Medical Journal* 2012;345:e5661.
10. World Health Organization. Integrated Management of Childhood Illness, chart booklet. (WHO, March 2014). Available http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/104772/16/9789241506823_Chartbook_eng.pdf. Accessed 02 February 2017.
11. South Nations, Nationalities, and Peoples Region's. Gedeo Zone Administration Office. <http://www.gedeozone.gov.et/Health.html>. Accessed 02 February 2017.
12. World Health Organization. IMCI in-service training Modules. Integrated management of childhood illness. Assess and classify the sick child age 2 months up to 5 years. World Health organization and UNICEF, 1997. http://www.who.int/maternal_child_adolescent/documents/9241595650/en/. Accessed 25 May 2018.
13. World Health Organization. Oxygen therapy for children: a manual for health workers. World Health Organization, 2016. Geneva, Switzerland. http://WWW.apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/204584/.../9789241549554_eng.pdf. Accessed 17 April 2018.
14. Vilas-Boas AL, Fontoura MS, Xavier-Souza G, et al. Comparison of oral amoxicillin given thrice or twice daily to children between 2 and 59 months old with non-severe pneumonia: a randomized controlled trial. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2014;69(7):1954-9.

15. Simoes EA, Desta T, Tessema T, et al. Performance of health workers after training in integrated management of childhood illness in Gondar, Ethiopia. *Bull World Health Organ* 1997;75 Suppl 1:43-53.
16. Rutterford C, Copas A, Eldridge S. Methods for sample size determination in cluster randomized trials. *International journal of epidemiology* 2015;44(3):1051-67.
17. Gove S. for WHO Working Group on Guidelines for Integrated Management of the Sick Child. Integrated management of childhood illness by outpatient health workers: technical basis and overview. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 1997;75(Suppl 1):7-24.
18. Anand K, Patro BK, Paul E, et al. Management of sick children by health workers in Ballabgarh: lessons for implementation of IMCI in India. *Journal of tropical pediatrics* 2004;50(1):41-7.
19. Garde A, Zhou G, Raihana S, et al. Respiratory rate and pulse oximetry derived information as predictors of hospital admission in young children in Bangladesh: a prospective observational study. *BMJ open* 2016;6(8):e011094.
20. World Health Organization. Programme of Acute Respiratory Infections. (1990). Acute respiratory infections in children : case management in small hospitals in developing countries. Geneva WHO 1990. <http://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/61873>. Accessed 02 February 2017.
21. McCollum ED, Ginsburg AS. Outpatient Management of Children With World Health Organization Chest Indrawing Pneumonia: Implementation Risks and Proposed Solutions. *Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America* 2017;65(9):1560-4.
22. McCollum ED, King C, Deula R, et al. Pulse oximetry for children with pneumonia treated as outpatients in rural Malawi. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 2016;94(12):893.
23. Gothankar J, Doke P, Dhumale G, et al. Reported incidence and risk factors of childhood pneumonia in India: a community-based cross-sectional study. *BMC public health* 2018;18(1):1111.
24. Hisato K, Raita T, Mayuko S, et al. Incidence and Risk Factors of Childhood Pneumonia-Like Episodes in Biliran Island, Philippines--A Community-Based Study. *PloS one* 2015;10(5):e0125009.
25. Wandt F, Peel D, Duke T. Hypoxaemia among children in rural hospitals in Papua New Guinea: epidemiology and resource availability--a study to support a national oxygen programme. *Annals of tropical paediatrics* 2006;26(4):277-84.
26. Lindtjørn B, Mitiku D, Zidda Z, et al. Reducing Maternal Deaths in Ethiopia: Results of an Intervention Programme in Southwest Ethiopia. *PloS one* 2017;12(1):e0169304-e.
27. Koo TK, Li MY. A Guideline of Selecting and Reporting Intraclass Correlation Coefficients for Reliability Research. *Journal of Chiropractic Medicine* 2016;15(2):155-63.
28. UNHCR: The united Nations Refugee Agency. http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Operational_Update_OCTNOV.pdf. Accessed 30 October 2019. .
29. United Nations Office for the coordination of Humanitarian Affairs: ETHIOPIA HUMANITARIAN FUND. http://www.unocha.org/sites/unocha/files/EHF%20Reserve%20Allocation%20Strategy%20Paper_%207%20August%202018.pdf. Accessed 30 October 2019. .
30. Duke T, Graham SM, Cherian MN, et al. Oxygen is an essential medicine: a call for international action. *The international journal of tuberculosis and lung disease : the official journal of the International Union against Tuberculosis and Lung Disease* 2010;14(11):1362-8.
31. Fouzas S, Priftis KN, Anthracopoulos MB. Pulse oximetry in pediatric practice. *Pediatrics* 2011;128(4):740.

Figure Legends

Figure1 Trial profile.



Supplementary Table 1: Sensitivity and specificity of clinical signs.

Clinical signs	Pulse oximeter			Sensitivity	Specificity	Positive predictive value	Negative predictive value
	Hypoxemia	No hypoxemia	Total				
Chest in-drawing				59%	81%	35%	92%
Yes	79	147	226				
No	56	626	682				
Total	135	773	908				
Fast breathing				94%	25%	18%	96%
Yes	127	587	714				
No	8	194	202				
Total	135	781	916				
Chest in-drawing and fast breathing				57%	82%	35%	92%
Yes	78	145	223				
No	57	641	698				
Total	135	786	921				

Table 1: CONSORT 2010 checklist of information to include when reporting a cluster randomised trial

Section/Topic	Item No	Standard Checklist item	Extension for cluster designs	Page No *
Title and abstract				
	1a	Identification as a randomised trial in the title	Identification as a cluster randomised trial in the title	1
	1b	Structured summary of trial design, methods, results, and conclusions (for specific guidance see CONSORT for abstracts) ^{1,2}	See table 2	1 and 2
Introduction				
Background and objectives	2a	Scientific background and explanation of rationale	Rationale for using a cluster design	2 and 3
	2b	Specific objectives or hypotheses	Whether objectives pertain to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both	3
Methods				
Trial design	3a	Description of trial design (such as parallel, factorial) including allocation ratio	Definition of cluster and description of how the design features apply to the clusters	4
	3b	Important changes to methods after trial commencement (such as eligibility criteria), with reasons		
Participants	4a	Eligibility criteria for participants	Eligibility criteria for clusters	4
	4b	Settings and locations where the data were collected		4
Interventions	5	The interventions for each group with sufficient details to allow replication, including how and when they were actually administered	Whether interventions pertain to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both	4 and 5
Outcomes	6a	Completely defined pre-specified primary and secondary outcome measures, including how and	Whether outcome measures pertain to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both	5 and 6

		when they were assessed	
	6b	Any changes to trial outcomes after the trial commenced, with reasons	6
Sample size	7a	How sample size was determined	Method of calculation, number of clusters(s) (and whether equal or unequal cluster sizes are assumed), cluster size, a coefficient of intracluster correlation (ICC or <i>k</i>), and an indication of its uncertainty
	7b	When applicable, explanation of any interim analyses and stopping guidelines	
Randomisation:			
Sequence generation	8a	Method used to generate the random allocation sequence	7
	8b	Type of randomisation; details of any restriction (such as blocking and block size)	Details of stratification or matching if used
Allocation concealment mechanism	9	Mechanism used to implement the random allocation sequence (such as sequentially numbered containers), describing any steps taken to conceal the sequence until interventions were assigned	Specification that allocation was based on clusters rather than individuals and whether allocation concealment (if any) was at the cluster level, the individual participant level or both
Implementation	10	Who generated the random allocation sequence, who enrolled participants, and who assigned participants to interventions	Replace by 10a, 10b and 10c
	10a		Who generated the random allocation sequence, who enrolled clusters, and who assigned clusters to interventions
	10b		Mechanism by which individual participants were included in clusters for the purposes of the trial (such as complete

			enumeration, random sampling)	
	10c		From whom consent was sought (representatives of the cluster, or individual cluster members, or both), and whether consent was sought before or after randomisation	7
Blinding	11a	If done, who was blinded after assignment to interventions (for example, participants, care providers, those assessing outcomes) and how		7
	11b	If relevant, description of the similarity of interventions		
Statistical methods	12a	Statistical methods used to compare groups for primary and secondary outcomes	How clustering was taken into account	7 and 8
	12b	Methods for additional analyses, such as subgroup analyses and adjusted analyses		7
Results				
Participant flow (a diagram is strongly recommended)	13a	For each group, the numbers of participants who were randomly assigned, received intended treatment, and were analysed for the primary outcome	For each group, the numbers of clusters that were randomly assigned, received intended treatment, and were analysed for the primary outcome	8 and figure 1
	13b	For each group, losses and exclusions after randomisation, together with reasons	For each group, losses and exclusions for both clusters and individual cluster members	Figure 1
Recruitment	14a	Dates defining the periods of recruitment and follow-up		8
	14b	Why the trial ended or was stopped		
Baseline data	15	A table showing baseline demographic and clinical	Baseline characteristics for the individual and cluster levels as	8 and (Table1)

		characteristics for each group	applicable for each group	
Numbers analysed	16	For each group, number of participants (denominator) included in each analysis and whether the analysis was by original assigned groups	For each group, number of clusters included in each analysis	8
Outcomes and estimation	17a	For each primary and secondary outcome, results for each group, and the estimated effect size and its precision (such as 95% confidence interval)	Results at the individual or cluster level as applicable and a coefficient of intracluster correlation (ICC or k) for each primary outcome	11 and 12
	17b	For binary outcomes, presentation of both absolute and relative effect sizes is recommended		11 (Table 3)
Ancillary analyses	18	Results of any other analyses performed, including subgroup analyses and adjusted analyses, distinguishing pre-specified from exploratory		10 and 13
Harms	19	All important harms or unintended effects in each group (for specific guidance see CONSORT for harms ³)		
Discussion				
Limitations	20	Trial limitations, addressing sources of potential bias, imprecision, and, if relevant, multiplicity of analyses		15 and 16
Generalisability	21	Generalisability (external validity, applicability) of the trial findings	Generalisability to clusters and/or individual participants (as relevant)	16
Interpretation	22	Interpretation consistent with results, balancing benefits and harms, and considering other relevant evidence		13, 14 and 15
Other information				
Registration	23	Registration number and		2

		name of trial registry	
Protocol	24	Where the full trial protocol can be accessed, if available	3
Funding	25	Sources of funding and other support (such as supply of drugs), role of funders	17

* Note: page numbers optional depending on journal requirements

For peer review only

Table 2: Extension of CONSORT for abstracts^{1,2} to reports of cluster randomised trials

Item	Standard Checklist item	Extension for cluster trials
Title	Identification of study as randomised	Identification of study as cluster randomised
Trial design	Description of the trial design (e.g. parallel, cluster, non-inferiority)	
Methods		
Participants	Eligibility criteria for participants and the settings where the data were collected	Eligibility criteria for clusters
Interventions	Interventions intended for each group	
Objective	Specific objective or hypothesis	Whether objective or hypothesis pertains to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both
Outcome	Clearly defined primary outcome for this report	Whether the primary outcome pertains to the cluster level, the individual participant level or both
Randomization	How participants were allocated to interventions	How clusters were allocated to interventions
Blinding (masking)	Whether or not participants, care givers, and those assessing the outcomes were blinded to group assignment	
Results		
Numbers randomized	Number of participants randomized to each group	Number of clusters randomized to each group
Recruitment	Trial status ¹	
Numbers analysed	Number of participants analysed in each group	Number of clusters analysed in each group
Outcome	For the primary outcome, a result for each group and the estimated effect size and its precision	Results at the cluster or individual participant level as applicable for each primary outcome
Harms	Important adverse events or side effects	
Conclusions	General interpretation of the results	
Trial registration	Registration number and name of trial register	
Funding	Source of funding	

¹ Relevant to Conference Abstracts

REFERENCES

- 1 Hopewell S, Clarke M, Moher D, Wager E, Middleton P, Altman DG, et al. CONSORT for reporting randomised trials in journal and conference abstracts. *Lancet* 2008, 371:281-283
- 2 Hopewell S, Clarke M, Moher D, Wager E, Middleton P, Altman DG at al (2008) CONSORT for reporting randomized controlled trials in journal and conference abstracts: explanation and elaboration. *PLoS Med* 5(1): e20
- 3 Ioannidis JP, Evans SJ, Gotzsche PC, O'Neill RT, Altman DG, Schulz K, Moher D. Better reporting of harms in randomized trials: an extension of the CONSORT statement. *Ann Intern Med* 2004; 141(10):781-788.

For peer review only