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1 **Using qualitative insights to change practice - Exploring the culture of antibiotic**
2 **prescribing and consumption for urinary tract infections**

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28
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36

37 **ABSTRACT**

38 Objectives: The aim of this paper is to explore the culture of antibiotic prescribing and
39 consumption in the community for urinary tract infections from the perspective of the
40 General Practitioners (GP) and community member.

41 Design: In-depth interviews were conducted with GP and focus groups were held with
42 community members.

43 Setting: General Practice and community setting

44 Participants: Fifteen GPs practicing in rural and urban locations in Ireland participated in the
45 in-depth interviews. Six focus groups (n=42) with participants who had direct or indirect
46 experiences with urinary tract infections were also undertaken.

47 Results: The decision to prescribe or consume an antibiotic for a UTI is a set of complex
48 behaviours including need recognition, information search and evaluation processes governed
49 by the relationship and interactions between the GP and patient. Different GP and patient
50 decision making profiles emerged emphasizing the diversity and variety of general practice in
51 real life settings. The GP findings showed a requirement for more microbiological
52 information on Antibiotic Resistance patterns to inform prescribing decisions. Focus group
53 participants wanted a conversation with the GP about their illness and the treatment options
54 available. Guided by the principles of social marketing the finding informed the design of the
55 SIMPLE complex intervention.

56 Conclusions: This paper demonstrates how qualitative research can identify the interacting
57 processes which are instrumental to the decision to prescribe or consume an antibiotic.
58 Collectively this research identified the consultation as a priority intervention environment
59 for stimulating change in relation to antibiotics. Qualitative research empowers researchers to

60 investigate the what, how and why of interventions in real life setting. Qualitative research
61 can play a critical and instrumental in designing behavioural change strategies with high
62 impact on practice. The results of this research were used to design a complex intervention
63 and develop a recruitment and retention strategy.

64 **Strength and limitations of this study**

- 65 • The combination of qualitative research, theoretical and decision making social
66 marketing frameworks ensured that the research findings could be used to design an
67 intervention which met the needs of both the GP and patient.
- 68 • This research not only provided the foundations for the intervention design, is also
69 contributed to the refining of the primary and secondary outcomes within the
70 randomised control trial and the recruitment strategy.
- 71 • As with all qualitative research the sample size is small however, the level of detail
72 emerging is of great value and the methodology described can be replicated in other
73 settings.
- 74 • Small incentives (gift vouchers) were used to compensate the participant of this
75 research which could have led to selection bias.

76

77

78 **BACKGROUND**

79 Antibiotic resistance (ABR) is a global public health issue and the over prescription and
80 consumption of antibiotics in the community is a main driver¹⁻³. Interventions to address this
81 issue are often aimed at the general public and fail to acknowledge the decisions made by
82 specific groups such as General Practitioners (GP) or their patients⁴⁻⁶. These decisions
83 become important as the prescription of antibiotics goes beyond a simple or uniform decision,
84 to prescribe or not⁷. This simple decision mind-set downplays the power relations inherent in
85 a GP patient consultation and the wider social structures that shape antibiotic prescription and
86 consumption patterns. For example, GPs within the Irish health care system see a mixture of
87 private fee paying patients and patients covered under the General Medical Services (GMS)
88 scheme. Fee paying patients pay between €40 and €60 to consult their GP while GMS
89 patients receive free health care with a co-payment of approximately €1.50 per prescription.
90 Approximately 30% of the Irish population are entitled to the GMS scheme⁸. Payment of
91 consultations may be one factor that influences the expected outcome of the consultation
92 however others also exist. To identify and comprehend strategies for change, antibiotic
93 prescribing and consumption is best analysed within the reality in which the behaviours
94 exist⁹. Interrogating and integrating these behaviours and decision making processes can
95 contribute to the design of long term behavioural change strategies.

96 The aim of this paper is to explore the culture of antibiotic prescribing and consumption in
97 the community for urinary tract infections (UTI) from the perspective of the GP and
98 community member. This paper demonstrates how qualitative research can identify the
99 interacting processes which are instrumental to the decision to prescribe or consume an
100 antibiotic. These findings can be used to design complex interventions to facilitate change.
101 UTI is the second most common infection in primary care¹⁰⁻¹⁴. A recent study of antibiotic
102 prescribing in primary care for UTI in Ireland identified that only 55% of antibiotic

103 prescriptions could be interpreted as appropriately targeted when evaluated against the
104 laboratory report on the urine sample¹.

105 **METHOD**

106 **Participants**

107 Fifteen in-depth interviews with GPs and six community focus groups with 42 participants
108 were conducted in 2013. Purposeful non-probability sampling was used to recruit all in depth
109 interview and focus group participants. To recruit GPs, 30 postal invitations were sent to
110 members of an established GP network consisting of over 170 GPs. All GPs selected
111 practiced outside the proposed intervention catchment area, but had similar characteristics to
112 it including a mixture of GPs practicing in urban and rural locations. In two cases, two GPs of
113 different gender were recruited from the same practice. All GPs were assumed to be able to
114 improve their antibiotic prescribing practices¹, no further selection criteria was applied.
115 Invitations were followed up with a telephone call to confirm an interview. Table 1
116 summaries the characteristics of the participating GPs. Participants ranged in age and practice
117 size. The number of years experience as a GP ranged from 3 – 37 years.

118 *Table 1: GP in-depth interview characteristics*

Age	Count (n = 15)
30-39 year	6
40-49 years	4
50-59 years	3
60+ years	2
No. of years practicing as a GP	Count (n=14)

≤ 5 years	4
6 – 15 years	4
≥ 16 years	6
No. of GPs in your practice	Count (n = 15)
Single handed	3
2-3	8
4	3
> 4	1
Area in which your practice is based	Count (n = 15)
City	3
Town	5
Village	1
Countryside	6

119

120 Two focus groups were recruited from a rural location and four from an urban. Forty-two
121 participants were recruited and included those who had direct and indirect experience of a
122 UTI. A gatekeeper recruitment strategy was used to contact participants. Gatekeepers were
123 identified as people who had access to the study population and had a prior relationship with
124 them e.g. community group leaders. Gatekeepers were contacted via email and/or telephone;
125 they in turn nominated members of their network to participate who fulfilled the eligibility
126 criteria. Participants were eligible if they were over 18 years and able to give informed
127 consent. Participants ranged in age from 18 to over 70, however, participants of similar ages
128 were recruited to each group to identify if there were any cultural differences between the age
129 groups. Exclusion criteria included anyone who had recently suffered from a complicated

130 UTI, had insufficient command of the English language (spoken and written) and were
 131 pregnant or breast feeding. The gatekeepers initiated contact with their network and
 132 assisted in arranging the focus groups to ensure it was convenient to participate. Five
 133 focus groups were conducted with females as almost half of all females experience at least
 134 one UTI episode during their lifetime¹⁵. One focus group was conducted with males only as
 135 they are less likely to experience UTI, therefore their experiences of consulting with a GP and
 136 attitudes towards consuming antibiotics may be different. Male and female groups were also
 137 separated to avoid potential embarrassment due to the topic being discussed. Any gender
 138 differences may impact on intervention design and therefore needed to be investigated. Over
 139 a third of participants were GMS patients (received free health care) in line with the national
 140 average. Each focus group comprised of 5–10 participants. Table 2 summaries the
 141 characteristics of the focus group participants.

142 *Table 2: Focus group participant characteristics*

Age	Response Count (n = 42)
< 30	11
30-39	11
40-49	2
≥ 50	18
Medical Card Status	Response Count (n=42)
GMS Scheme Patient	15
Area in which they lived	Response Count (n=42)

City	18
Countryside	12
Town	6
Village	6
Have you ever had a UTI?	Response Count (N= 38)
Yes, one	5
Yes, Several	7
None	26*

143 **10 of the participants were male and therefore less likely to have experienced a UTI.*

144 The overall recruitment strategy is summarised in Table 3.

145 *Table 3: Summary of sampling and recruitment strategy*

Sample	Recruitment Strategy	Sample Size
Females aged 18 & over	Via local gatekeeper groups = Senior citizen social clubs and young mothers groups	2 pre-test groups 5 focus groups
Males aged 18 & over	Via local gatekeeper groups = Men's Sheds users	1 focus group
GPs	Members of an established GP research network. Recruited via invitation letter and follow up by phone call to the practice	3 pre-test interviews N = 15

146

147 Recruitment continued until theoretical saturation was achieved. All participants were
148 remunerated (gift voucher) to participate in this research.

149

150

151 **Procedures**

152 The first author (SD) conducted all in depth interviews and facilitated all focus groups. The
153 third author (AC) acted as the second facilitator in all focus groups. All in depth interviews
154 and focus groups were led using topic guides. These questions were used to guide the
155 discussion however, were flexible and adaptable to ensure the conversation was not
156 constrained. A summary of key questions is provided in Table 4. Discussion was limited to
157 the community health care setting, and focused on knowledge, attitudes and awareness of the
158 role of antibiotics in general and specifically the decision making processes for treatment of
159 UTIs. The topic guides were informed by a literature review and in consultation with a
160 multidisciplinary team of experts. Two decision making theories guided the development of
161 the topic guide and the analysis process; Trans theoretical Model (TTM)¹⁶ and the Buyer
162 Behaviour and Decision Making Model¹⁷. These theories were adopted to understand the
163 interrelating contextual factors and processes which contributed to prescription and
164 consumption decision making. The TTM focused on the decision making process of the GP
165 to prescribe and their readiness to change. The model has five stages (Pre-contemplation,
166 Contemplation, Preparation, Action and Maintenance) and is the most used theory by health
167 researchers to identify and tailor interventions to facilitate behavioural change¹⁸. The Buyer
168 Behaviour and Decision Making Model also has five stages (Need Recognition, Information
169 Search, Evaluation of Alternatives, Purchase Decision and Purchase Evaluation). This model
170 evaluated how, when and why someone consults with a GP and how they evaluate the
171 outcome. Both models captured direct and indirect factors which influenced decision making.

172

173

174

175 *Table 4: Summary of key questions discussed within this research*

GP Interview Questions	Focus Group Questions
Section 1: Usual practice for treating a UTI	Section 1: General Health and GP Consultations
Can you talk me through how you would normally diagnose someone with a UTI? What treatment do you recommend, how do you make this choice? Please describe the role of the patient in the diagnosis?	Activity to establish participants health seeking behaviours and current relationship with GPs
Section 2: Antibiotics	Section 2: Awareness of Antibiotics
Overall, what are your views on prescribing antibiotics? Positive/negative aspects? Do these views change for a UTI patient? Have you ever received any guidelines on prescribing antibiotics? Can you remember what the guidelines are? Do they include UTI? How did you feel about using this guidelines in practice?	Can you explain to me what an antibiotic is? Have you been prescribed any kind of antibiotic in the past year? Did you ask your GP/doctor any questions relating to the prescription? Can you describe the benefits and consequences of taking an antibiotic?
Section 3: Antimicrobial resistance	Section 3: Urinary Tract Infections Experiences and Associations
Are there any adverse side effects to prescribing antibiotics? Do you know what the antimicrobial resistance patterns are in your area?	Scenario based exercise describing symptoms experienced by a typical UTI patient. Discussions of personal experiences of having a UTI and the actions taken throughout the illness. Has anyone here ever experienced a Urinary Tract Infection (UTI) or known someone that has had one – what words or phrases would you associate with it? Please describe the steps that you go through when deciding to go to see your GP doctor key priorities. Scenario based exercise to discuss association between UTI illness and antibiotic.
Section 4: Intervention Design	Section 4: Antibiotic Resistance
Discussion of possible strategies to facilitate changing their attitudes and behaviours towards prescribing antibiotics for UTI.	Have you ever heard of the term antimicrobial resistance? What does it mean to you? In what context did you hear it?
	Section 5: Intervention Design
	Discussion of possible strategies to facilitate changing their attitudes and behaviours towards consuming antibiotics for UTI.

176

177 Three pre-test in-depth interviews and two pre-test focus groups were undertaken prior to the
178 commencement of data collection. Minor changes were made as a consequence such as plain
179 English proofing and re-ordering of questions.

180 In-depth interviews were conducted in the GP's practice and lasted between 30 minutes and
181 one hour. Fourteen were audio recorded, one participant declined to be audio recorded, in this
182 case only hand written notes were available. Focus groups were conducted in locations
183 convenient to participants and lasted approximately one and a half hours.

184 Prior to participation in this research, all participants were asked to complete a brief profile
185 survey and written consent was obtained. All study procedures were approved by the Irish
186 College of General Practitioners (ICGP) ethics committee in December 2012.

187 **Data Analysis**

188 After each focus group a debriefing session was held to discuss the session and emerging
189 themes. Digital recordings were transcribed verbatim, transcripts were reread and coded
190 aided by manual coding and Nvivo 10. In applying an analytical perspective to the qualitative
191 data analysis, we adopted a realist perspective, which emphasizes the importance of context
192 for interpreting reality and that the phenomena under investigation are complex¹⁹.

193 Thematic data analysis was concurrent with data collection and followed Braun and Clarks
194 (2006) six step process²⁰. We integrated, coded, and thematically analyzed both datasets
195 using an interpretive approach and a coding scheme derived both from the research aim and
196 from issues that emerging during data generation and early analysis. The TTM and Buyer
197 Behaviour and Decision Making Model were used to inform the initial codes. Throughout the
198 process of analysis the data was constantly compared to identify the underlying themes
199 within the data.

200 **RESULTS**

201 The results of this research focus on knowledge of AMR and the factors which affect the
202 decision to consult a GP, the diagnosis of a UTI and how it is treated.

203 **Knowledge of Antibiotic Resistance (ABR)**

204 GPs are knowledgeable of the definition of ABR and the consequences of it, however, their
205 discussion of ABR focused on the longer term societal impact. GPs accepted that antibiotics
206 were overprescribed contributing to the spread of ABR but are also a necessary part of a
207 modern healthcare system. They believed other sectors such as vets and agriculture were part
208 of the problem.

209 *GPs role in creating awareness*

210 All but one GP agreed it was the GPs responsibility to discuss the issue of ABR with their
211 patients. However, many did not engage in this conversation within every consultation. All
212 GPs felt they needed evidence from the microbiology laboratory to support this conversation.
213 In addition, GPs perceived discussing ABR with patients as time consuming which was a
214 major concern.

215 *“... probably the way the practice works here it's so busy that they're not given an
216 opportunity to kind of discuss it, you know. (GP 12)”*

217 The patient also needed to be willing to listen, this was not the case in all instances.

218 The GPs who believed they were more prudent prescribers, had already integrated a
219 conversation about ABR into the consultation. They used it as a justification for not
220 prescribing an antibiotic or using a delayed prescribing strategy. Their comfort with this
221 conversation developed over time and by focusing on the short term benefits the message
222 seemed to be accepted.

223 *“Certainly sometimes I use it as leverage to kind of try to avoid giving prescriptions.” (GP*

224 *13)*

225

226 No GP discussed ABR specifically with the patient once they had prescribed an antibiotic.

227 *“Because I would usually have the decision made myself that this person needs an antibiotic*

228 *or they don't...” (GP 12)*

229 *Patient knowledge of ABR*

230 In contrast, when asked directly focus group participants found it difficult to define ABR,

231 instead making reference to becoming ‘immune’ to antibiotics if you do not consume them

232 correctly. Overall, focus group participants lacked an awareness about the lasting

233 consequence of ABR. They were unaware that antibiotics would “run-out” in the future if not

234 protected. Focus group participants believed this type of information would encourage them

235 to question their consumption. However, messages needed to be simple and relevant to them.

236 **Decision to Consult a GP**

237 Focus group participants were aware of the symptoms of a UTI and the discomfort associated

238 with it. Prior to consulting a GP with UTI symptoms, half of focus group participants described

239 trying home remedies such as ‘flushing’ the UTI out with water and cranberry juice.

240 *“Start by trying to deal with it on your own and then if it really doesn't go away, go to the*

241 *doctor” (FG1).*

242 Advice was often sought from close family members (usually mothers) and pharmacists

243 relating to how to manage the UTI. If symptoms persisted and were deemed severe participants

244 would then decide to consult a GP.

245 Other participants used past experience to assess their need to consult a GP. Some who had

246 experienced UTI in the past, and associated their present symptoms with a UTI consulted the

247 GP immediately expecting antibiotic treatment and a shorter illness duration.

271 *“He listens to you. Some doctors don’t listen to you. They just brush you by. He listens to you*
272 *and takes you seriously and do something about it.” (FG 5)*

273 More health conscious individuals, such as the young mothers, sought reassurance that they
274 were not suffering from a more serious condition rather than an antibiotic and that they could
275 return to their daily lives as soon as possible.

276 *“As long as I found some way of alleviating whatever pain I was in I don’t care whether I got*
277 *a prescription or not”.* (FG 3)

278 GPs stated they did not treat private and GMS patients differently, however they were
279 conscious of patients receiving value for money from the consultation.

280 *“Yeah, I mean I suppose the GMS patients would present more frequently and earlier than*
281 *the private patients purely for financial... You know, the private patient would certainly have*
282 *done the cystopurin and the cranberry juice first and would present later, yeah”* (GP 12)

283

284 **Diagnosing and treatment of a UTI**

285 The treatment of UTI centred around two decision making processes, firstly whether to
286 prescribe an antibiotic or not and secondly the type of antibiotic prescribed.

287 *Diagnosis of a UTI*

288 UTI consultations are common and a relatively simple consultation which GPs did not want
289 to complicate or elongate.

290 *“Great. In and out in two minutes... I think it’s something that’s very straightforward... (GP*

291 *6)*

292 GPs believed UTIs were easy to treat and all GPs interviewed asked patients to describe their
293 symptoms, some followed this conversation with a dip stick test. However, if the dipstick is
294 normal but the symptoms are suggestive of a UTI, a GP may choose to prescribe anyway.

295 *“I think if the symptoms are very suggestive, it doesn't necessarily mean that they don't have*
296 *an infection. So, I suppose if they had normal urinalysis I might look at weighing up the pros*
297 *and cons of what treatment prescribe”.* (GP In 3)

298 In this instance of uncertainty a GP will choose whether to prescribe an antibiotic or not.
299 Some of the GPs prescribed an antibiotic if they believed the symptoms suggested a UTI. In
300 other cases, if the patient had already delayed consulting with the GP, the symptoms were
301 perceived as severe and non-responsive to other remedies they was more inclined to
302 prescribe.

303 A sense of guilt arose when private patients presented as they were paying a fee for the
304 consultation and even GPs who were comfortable not prescribing or delaying prescriptions
305 perceived the private patient to expect a prescription.

306 *“I think it's much more difficult not to prescribe with a private patient because they're*
307 *coming in and paying €45 for a consultation and they don't expect just something that can get*
308 *over the counter. I think they're probably as willing to defer the prescription as a public*
309 *patient but I think I probably would be more likely to give a delayed prescription to them*
310 *than no prescription at all...”* (GP 13)

311 Consultations within general practice are often unpredictable, with time constraints impacting
312 on what can be discussed. The perceived ease of diagnosing a UTI coupled with external
313 pressures related to consultation duration often resulted in a quick diagnosis. Patients wanted
314 to get back to health quickly.

315

316 **Antibiotic Treatment of UTI**

317 Both GPs and focus group participants agreed that in general GPs were prescribing less
318 antibiotics. However, GPs have not changed their behaviour for UTI. They believe antibiotics
319 are a necessary treatment for patients experiencing a UTI. Antibiotic treatment for UTI is

320 usually empirical due to a delay between the consultation and microbiological analysis results
321 confirming a UTI.

322 *So, rather than sitting in the patient, I would treat them with a broad spectrum antibiotic and*
323 *I would send a sample off for a culture and sensitivity and we'd see how we were fixed when*
324 *that would come back whether we were on the right antibiotic or not and that's basically..."*

325 (GP 1)

326 GPs preferred to treat empirically due to the discomfort experienced by the patient and to
327 reduce reconsultations. Once they have decided to prescribe an antibiotic it is difficult to
328 change their minds. However, if a GP was unsure of the diagnosis, multiple factors influence
329 the decision to treat a UTI with an antibiotic, beyond the illness itself. Additional
330 considerations include, severity of symptoms, personal circumstances, previous experiences
331 (GP and Patient), GPs general attitude to treating UTI and grey areas whereby symptoms are
332 presented but there is no evidence of a UTI. Any combination of factors could influence the
333 outcome of the consultation.

334 For GPs who did not wish to prescribe, negative dip stick (urine test) results coupled with the
335 lag time with receiving laboratory results present GPs with an opportunity to delay antibiotic
336 treatment until results are known. This conversation was easier with patients who preferred
337 not to take antibiotics. However, there were cohorts who wanted to get well quickly and
338 wanted an antibiotic to treat their symptoms.

339 Even a GP who have a well established reputation for not prescribing antibiotics accept that
340 prudent prescribing is a long term strategy whereby patients may only see the benefits in the
341 future.

342 *"No. Now, twenty years on people begin to think maybe we're right." (GP8)*

343 It is also acknowledged that not all patients share the same views on antibiotic consumption
344 and therefore patients also need to be willing to change their perspectives.

345 *“Well, first of all they've been used to the pattern of getting them down through the years...*
346 *They feel they need to get something and to get over the infection as quick as possible. So,*
347 *that's part of the problem.” (GP 9)*

348

349 *Antibiotic Prescribing Preferences*

350 The GPs had spent little time reflecting on the influences on their antibiotic prescribing
351 preferences with many GPs prescribing the same antibiotic for UTI routinely. However, some
352 patients requested an antibiotic and in some cases even indicated the treatment they thought
353 was required.

354 GPs rarely received formal feedback on their prescribing, few were knowledgeable on local
355 resistance patterns and their antibiotic prescribing preferences were instead formed through
356 habit (prescribing the same antibiotic routinely), anecdotal evidence from observing patients
357 and the laboratory results of individual patients. In a few cases GPs cited observing patterns
358 within their patients which suggested that there was increased resistance to trimethoprim (a
359 type of antibiotic) in the community. This knowledge encouraged the GPs to switch to
360 alternatives. The GPs were aware of guidelines but rarely cited as the primary reason for
361 choosing a particular antibiotic treatment.

362

363 **DISCUSSION**

364 The diversity and complexity of factors contributing to the culture of antibiotic prescribing
365 and consumption for UTI in the community is evident within the findings from our research.
366 Few qualitative studies have discussed the culture of antibiotic prescribing and consumption
367 from the perspective of the GP and patient. This research highlights how difficult it is to
368 capture the complex interactions which contribute to antibiotic prescribing for UTI. These
369 interactions take place within the consultation, and like other studies, our findings highlight

370 the important role of the consultation encounter when deciding to prescribe, particularly if
371 prudent prescribing is a desired outcome²¹.

372 Overall GPs are aware of the consequences of antibiotic resistance and have taken steps to
373 improve their prescribing behaviours particularly when treating colds and flues. Unlike other
374 areas in general practice where improvements have been made to antibiotic prescribing
375 practices (REF- sarah Tonkin crine), the GPs within this research viewed UTI differently.
376 Instead believing that antibiotics are a necessary treatment for UTI. This mind-set and the
377 perceived ease of the UTI consultation, have contributed to GPs not questioning their
378 prescribing decisions. Support from microbiological laboratory may interrupt this culture and
379 encourage GPs to question their prescribing decisions. {Arnold, 2005 #42}

380 The findings outline at least two distinct GP decision making perspectives, the 'habitual' and
381 'questioning' prescriber both representing different views on the culture of prescribing. The
382 'habitual prescriber' treats all UTIs with an antibiotic if they believe symptoms are consistent
383 with a UTI, particularly if the patient has tried to manage the symptoms themselves before
384 consulting. This GP is in the pre-contemplation stage of changing their prescribing behaviour.
385 They need to be convinced of the necessity of change through scientific evidence. The
386 'questioning prescriber', recognises there is a grey area when diagnosing a UTI, these GPs
387 are more willing to question the need for an antibiotic depending on the symptoms presented
388 to them by the patient and the dipstick results. These GPs are in the contemplation or action
389 stages of change. Evidence linking their prescribing behaviour with ABR may facilitate a
390 change in practice, particularly amongst the GPs who routinely prescribe for UTI. Similar to
391 other research, GPs would favour an intervention that would support their skills.²³
392 'Questioning prescribers' also need scientific evidence to support their decisions but in this
393 instance to reassure them that the actions are correct and that the patient will be satisfied with

394 the outcome. Change strategies should focus on the uncertainty of diagnosing UTIs within
395 this grey area.

396 Patients need to be satisfied with the treatment and GPs reassured that they were making
397 adequate treatment decisions. Similarly the results revealed at least three profiles of patients,
398 the young professional (quick fixers), the young mothers (advice seekers) and the mature
399 patient (experienced consulters). Each type of patient can be satisfied differently from a
400 'simple' UTI consultation. For instance the 'quick fixers', prioritise their personal health,
401 adopt a low involvement approach and are satisfied to receive their antibiotic prescription.
402 The 'advice seekers' adopt a higher involvement perspective, discussing treatment options for
403 their illness, an antibiotic is not a satisfactory outcome in all instances. Confirming the
404 findings outlined in Leyton *et al* (2010), UTI patients do not always expect an antibiotic
405 instead seek reassurance that their symptoms will improve. In this instance time, spent
406 listening and interacting with patients may result in patient satisfaction with the
407 consultations.²² Finally, the 'experienced consulters', have experienced a UTI and antibiotic
408 treatment in the past reinforcing the norm and expectations of treatment. The association
409 between symptoms and treatment needs to be broken for change efforts to be successful in
410 these cases. For all profiles of patients, the GPs decision making power and influence hinges
411 directly on the type of patient consulting for a UTI and vice versa. The findings indicated the
412 interaction within the consultation and dialogue between the GP and patient which activate
413 the outcome.

414 CONCLUSION

415 The culture of prescribing and consuming antibiotics for suspected UTI is contributing to the
416 issue of antibiotic resistance. As a result of this qualitative research, the behavioural
417 interventions should focus on:

- 418 1. Improving the quality of antibiotic prescribing for UTI by encouraging GPs to reflect on
419 their current antibiotic prescribing practices, including when they prescribe and what the
420 antibiotics they choose.
- 421 2. Supporting a dialogue between the GP and patient within the consultation about the
422 positive and negative aspects of antibiotic treatment for UTI particularly when symptoms
423 are non-specific.
- 424 3. Integrating behavioural change messages into routine care without elongating the
425 consultation.

426 Change will not emerge from a once off intervention, however, steps can be taken to
427 stimulate positive behaviour changes for both GPs and patients. Using these insights, the
428 SIMPle complex intervention was designed using the principles of social marketing. SIMPle
429 incorporated the following components: a professional development programme for the GP,
430 which includes interactive workshops, audit and feedback reports on antibiotic prescribing
431 and resistance, an electronic antibiotic prescribing prompt summarising guidelines and a
432 supportive framework educating patients on ABR²⁴. By integrating this intervention into
433 routine care the final intervention (SIMPle study) aimed to be sustainable and self-promoting.

434

435

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438 **CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT**

439 SD, CD and AV conceived the study. SD and AC carried out the fieldwork. SD and CD
440 conducted the analysis. SD drafted the manuscript and CD and AV revised the paper. All
441 authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript. All members of the SIMPle
442 Study team contributed to the data collection and study design.

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448 **ETHICAL APPROVAL**

449 Ethical approval for the formative research data collection was obtained from the Irish
450 College of General Practitioners.

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452 **TRANSPARENCY DECLARATIONS**

453 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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455 **TRIAL REGISTRATION**

456 This intervention is registered at [ClinicalTrials.gov](https://clinicaltrials.gov), ID NCT01913860.

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