



**University of Dundee**

## **Prioritizing research areas for antibiotic stewardship programmes in hospitals**

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1 **Prioritising research areas for antibiotic stewardship programmes in**  
2 **hospitals: a behavioural perspective consensus paper**

3

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44

## 45 **Abstract**

### 46 **Scope**

47 Antibiotic stewardship programmes (ASPs) are necessary in hospitals to improve the  
48 judicious use of antibiotics. While ASPs require complex change of key behaviours on  
49 individual, team, organisation and policy levels, evidence from the behavioural  
50 sciences is underutilised in antibiotic stewardship studies across the world, including  
51 high-income countries (HICs). A consensus procedure was performed to propose  
52 research priority areas for optimising effective implementation of ASPs in hospital  
53 settings, using a behavioural perspective.

### 54 **Methods**

55 A workgroup for behavioural approaches to ASPs was convened in response to the  
56 fourth call for leading expert network proposals by the Joint Programming Initiative  
57 on Antimicrobial Resistance (JPIAMR). Eighteen clinical and academic specialists in  
58 antibiotic stewardship, implementation science and behaviour change from four high-  
59 income countries with publicly-funded health care systems (that is Canada, Germany,  
60 Norway and the UK), met face-to-face to agree on broad research priority areas using  
61 a structured consensus method.

### 62 **Question addressed and recommendations**

63 The consensus process on the 10 identified research priority areas resulted in  
64 recommendations that need urgent scientific interest and funding to optimise  
65 effective implementation of antibiotic stewardship programmes for hospital  
66 inpatients in HICs with publicly-funded health care systems. We suggest and detail,  
67 behavioural science evidence-guided research efforts in the following areas: 1)  
68 Comprehensively identifying barriers and facilitators to implementing antibiotic  
69 stewardship programmes and clinical recommendations intended to optimise  
70 antibiotic prescribing; 2) Identifying actors ('who') and actions ('what needs to be  
71 done') of antibiotic stewardship programmes and clinical teams; 3) Synthesising  
72 available evidence to support future research and planning for antibiotic stewardship  
73 programmes; 4) Specifying the activities in current antibiotic stewardship programmes  
74 with the purpose of defining a 'control group' for comparison with new initiatives; 5)

75 Defining a balanced set of outcomes and measures to evaluate the effects of  
76 interventions focused on reducing unnecessary exposure to antibiotics; 6) Conducting  
77 robust evaluations of antibiotic stewardship programmes with built-in process  
78 evaluations and fidelity assessments; 7) Defining and designing antibiotic stewardship  
79 programmes; 8) Establishing the evidence base for impact of antibiotic stewardship  
80 programmes on resistance; 9) Investigating the role and impact of government and  
81 policy contexts on antibiotic stewardship programmes; and 10) Understanding what  
82 matters to patients in antibiotic stewardship programmes in hospitals.

83           Assessment, revisions and updates of our priority-setting exercise should be  
84 considered, at intervals of 2 years. To propose research priority areas in low- and  
85 medium income countries (LIMCs), the methodology reported here could be applied.

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87

88

## 89 **Scope**

90 The proposed overarching priority research areas are intended for researchers,  
91 representatives from funding agencies and policy-makers. These priorities provide  
92 suggestions on what needs urgent scientific interest and funding to optimise effective  
93 implementation of antibiotic stewardship programmes for hospital inpatients using  
94 theoretical and empirical evidence from behavioural sciences. We based those  
95 suggestions on experiences from high-income countries (HICs) with publicly-funded  
96 health care systems, where most evidence on antibiotic stewardship come from.

## 97 **Context**

98 Antibiotic resistance is a globally important problem associated with excess mortality,  
99 morbidity, prolonged hospital stays and increased healthcare costs [1]. Overuse or  
100 inappropriate use of antibiotics drives the development of antibiotic resistance [2].  
101 The vast majority of human consumption of antibiotics occurs in primary-care settings  
102 and nursing homes [3], but antibiotic resistance has predominantly been a clinical  
103 problem in hospitals which are particularly susceptible to harbouring multidrug-  
104 resistant organisms [4]. Therefore, antibiotic stewardship is essential to improve the  
105 judicious use of antibiotics in hospitals by providing practitioners with tools to  
106 prescribe effective therapy while reducing antibiotic-related adverse events, such as  
107 antibiotic resistance [1,4].

108 An antibiotic stewardship programme (ASP) is a coherent set of collective daily  
109 actions that promotes using antibiotic agents responsibly, where ‘action’ is defined as  
110 a strategy (*i.e.* a specific set of coherent interventions) [5]. In practice, ASPs involve a  
111 heterogeneous group of system- and organisation-based actions, so understandably  
112 there is not only substantial transnational variability in the development and  
113 implementation of ASPs [6], but even organisation-level variability in HICs [7-10]. This  
114 suggests a global need to optimise and standardise the implementation of ASPs. Co-  
115 ordinated transnational response efforts are underway to enhance the  
116 implementation (*i.e.* uptake into practice and policy) of effective ASPs [4]. The  
117 planning of such large-scale quality improvement initiatives first requires optimising  
118 the use of existing research resource management [11]. The growing number of  
119 research projects on ASPs being conducted and submitted for publication

120 demonstrates that it is a priority area [12], but a number of important research gaps  
121 still need to be addressed [4]. Addressing high-importance questions (*i.e.* research  
122 priorities) will reduce avoidable research waste [11]. Core elements and checklist  
123 items for global ASPs, including in LIMCs where most of antibiotics are prescribed,  
124 have been developed [13], but without a behavioural ‘lens’. More robust qualitative  
125 research investigating contextual influences on ASPs is needed from LMICs to propose  
126 research priorities for those countries using behavioural ‘lens’.

127         An antibiotic stewardship programme requires complex behaviour change;  
128 multiple healthcare providers are required to change multiple behaviours at different  
129 time points in the patient care pathway. Moreover, change is required at the  
130 individual, team, organisation and policy levels to change key behaviours. It has been  
131 widely recognised that evidence from behavioural science can be used to inform that  
132 change [3,4,14,15]. The underlying principle of this need is understanding the  
133 difference between recommendations for appropriate antibiotic use (the ‘what’) and  
134 behaviour change interventions (the ‘how’) [3]. To inform the development of a more  
135 effective health behaviour change intervention (that is a systematic interference  
136 designed to modify how an individual acts), researchers have started to specify the  
137 active ingredients of interventions in terms of their component behaviour change  
138 techniques (BCTs) [16]. BCTs are the observable, replicable components of behaviour  
139 change interventions. We know from a Cochrane review that interventions to improve  
140 the translation of antibiotic use recommendations into practice are effective in  
141 increasing compliance with antibiotic policy and reducing duration of antibiotic  
142 treatment in acute care hospital settings [14]. However, the review suggests that few  
143 of those interventions used effective behaviour change techniques (such as action  
144 planning or feedback), the role of a key stakeholder (*i.e.* junior doctors) is mostly  
145 overlooked, and interventions are developed at the local level on an *ad hoc* basis [14].  
146 One of the main recommendations from the review included a need to bring together  
147 world experts in antibiotic stewardship in partnership with experts in implementation  
148 and social sciences to develop a research agenda to guide future research efforts to  
149 optimise effective implementation of ASPs in hospital settings [14].

150 **Question addressed**

151 What are the research priority areas to optimise effective implementation of ASPs in  
152 hospital settings in HICs with publicly-funded health care systems?

153 **Methods**

154 *Description of the development group*

155 A transnational multidisciplinary workgroup on behavioural approaches to ASPs was  
156 convened in response to the fourth call for leading experts' network proposals of the  
157 Joint Programming Initiative on Antimicrobial Resistance (JPIAMR). The steering  
158 committee (CR, JMG, PGD) identified 16 members (all the other co-authors) through  
159 a process of peer knowledge sharing and consultation, through existing research  
160 networks and contacts. Members were invited on the basis of: 1) their recognised  
161 expertise in antibiotic stewardship, behavioural and implementation science,  
162 including clinical leads, senior academic staff or experts for health authorities or  
163 policy-makers, with at least 10 years of experience in their subject area or 2) being  
164 frontline clinical staff, clinical- academic or non-clinical academic staff with extensive  
165 experience in the above three areas and 3) coming from a high-income countries with  
166 publicly funded health care systems. In total, the group included 19 members from  
167 the UK (11), Germany (2), Norway (2) and Canada (4). The members had different  
168 backgrounds, including infectious disease physicians, nurses, researchers;  
169 implementation scientists; health psychologists; intervention design methodologists  
170 and health care service scientists (full list: Appendix 1- Supplementary materials 1).

171 *Consensus procedure*

172 The workgroup met face-to-face on the 27th - 28th April 2017 (in Birmingham, UK)  
173 and 30th- 31st October 2017 (in Aberdeen, UK). Meetings were audio-recorded and  
174 summarised and notes were taken. To ensure the priority-setting team had necessary  
175 information about the context [17], each meeting was guided by an agenda for  
176 activities, including practical group work and presentations of knowledge synthesis  
177 undertaken by the workgroup. The latter included: a non-systematic review and  
178 knowledge synthesis of existing evidence on ASP implementation efforts worldwide;  
179 a systematic review of multi-country studies on barriers and facilitators to ASPs in



180 hospitals (PROSPERO registration number CRD42017076425); and the Cochrane  
181 review of interventions to improve antibiotic prescribing to hospital inpatients [14].

182 The stages of the priority setting process were informed by existing literature  
183 [18] and are summarised in Figure 1. We used the nominal group technique (NGT) - a  
184 commonly used formal consensus development method involving a highly structured  
185 face-to-face group interaction. Practical benefits for which we chose the NGT  
186 included: immediate dissemination of results to the group [19], giving equal voice to  
187 each participant by encouraging individual input [19], reduction of personality effects  
188 (*e.g.* influences of a power structure) and creating an environment conducive to  
189 initiation of change [20]. In our experience research needs within the area of  
190 behavioural approaches to ASPs are vast and intertwined. Also, in practice, specific  
191 research questions are likely to vary across systems and specific settings [8].  
192 Therefore, similar to Healy and colleagues [21], we used a modified James Lind  
193 Alliance (JLA) process [22] that led to suggesting unique broad general prioritisation  
194 research areas rather than specific research questions.

195 The process protocol is presented in the Supplementary Materials 1. The  
196 session began the workgroup coordinator (CR) with an introduction to the whole  
197 group and an explanation of the purpose of the activity. Participating members then  
198 split into two equal-sized groups. Each group was allocated one consensus decision-  
199 making process facilitator (KG and EMD). Both have been previously involve in a  
200 consensus process, and one facilitator (KG) also had previous experiences with the JLA  
201 process. We selected facilitators with the skills to unite differing perspectives and  
202 spheres of expertise and enabling interaction [23]. To capture experiential differences  
203 in people with similar background, thereby giving rise to new perspectives,  
204 participants with similar areas of expertise were grouped together (*e.g.* experts in  
205 infectious diseases and health psychology and implementation). At the same time, to  
206 stimulate discussion, each group included sub-groups with at least three different  
207 areas of expertise and we also included a clinical-academic in each group. Participants  
208 were asked to generate specific research ideas in these groups. For this purpose, in  
209 silence, participants wrote down research ideas on provided sticky notes. They were  
210 instructed to write one idea per note and encouraged to use as many notes as needed.  
211 Each participant presented and brought their research ideas forward for discussion in

212 their groups by reading them aloud and explaining their choices. All ideas were  
213 collected, numbered and displayed on a flipchart board by a group facilitator. All  
214 participants were then asked to read the ideas generated by the other group.

215 Participants were brought together through discussion and inductively  
216 collated overlapping research ideas into topics. In the JLA process of priority setting –  
217 a well-established framework – typically the main focus is to agree the list of the Top  
218 10 priorities for future research [22]. However, to avoid artificial consensus, the group  
219 was not informed about this specific number. Instead, we planned to offer the group  
220 an option to decide how many research priority topics would be carried forward for  
221 ranking and prepared *a priori* a strategy to reduce the number of generated topics if  
222 necessary (detailed in the Supplementary Materials 1).

223 After a short break, each participant was provided with a printed copy of the  
224 prioritised research topics and asked to rank these priorities from most to least  
225 important. An e-polling system that collects and summarises responses was used to  
226 collate the ranking of the priority ideas. Responses were submitted using personal  
227 electronic devices. After an interval for another activity, the results were presented to  
228 the group on a large projection screen. A facilitator then guided the participants  
229 through listening to each idea, opinion, and concern and initiated discussion to reach  
230 consensus (*i.e.* a solution that everyone actively supports, or at least can accept).

## 231 Results

### 232 *Consensus process*

233 The consensus process for research priority setting took place in Aberdeen in October  
234 2017 and lasted 2.5 hours. Sixteen members generated and collated research ideas  
235 into topics, of which fifteen (one person had to leave an activity early) ranked the  
236 prioritised research topics. Following discussion, the group spontaneously collated  
237 individually-generated overlapping research ideas into 10 research topics, hence there  
238 was no need to consider reducing the numbers of generated topics. During the  
239 discussion of the results of ranking of the prioritised research topics, the group  
240 concluded that the top five research priorities received similar ranking scores; priority  
241 research areas are inter-dependent, and so research is much needed across all ten.

242 The dynamic of each group was different, due to different personalities,  
243 experiences, expertise, backgrounds, communication styles and levels of confidence.  
244 The discussions were however vigorous and each participant took strong ownership  
245 of their own proposed ideas. The presence of a facilitator, with experience in both  
246 behavioural and implementation science, to moderate those discussions ensured  
247 mutual understanding. Placing individuals with similar background and prior  
248 presentations and group activities also facilitated shared understanding. In the next  
249 step, pragmatism was required to collate individual research ideas to reach acceptable  
250 compromises and revision of opinions in the search for consensus. At this point, the  
251 group required the assistance of the second facilitator and an administrator for record  
252 keeping, to ensure full, fair, respectful and equal participation.

### 253 *Recommendations*

254 Table 1 shows priorities and ranked research topics grouped into three main  
255 descriptive themes. Individual research ideas are presented in the Supplementary  
256 Materials 2. We would anticipate research teams to select the broad research areas  
257 prioritised and develop a specific research project from them. For example, one  
258 research objective for the top research priority would be: *Developing a core outcome  
259 set, reflecting clinicians' and patients' views, to enable evaluation of effectiveness of  
260 an intervention to support behaviour change, specified (in terms of Target, Action,  
261 Context, Time, Actor (TACTA)), focused on reducing unnecessary exposure to  
262 antibiotics in hospital patients.* Within the second top research priority topic, a specific  
263 research objective could be: *Developing and piloting a multicentre, transnational,  
264 cluster-randomised controlled trial to compare short- and long-term effects of two  
265 ASPs with different BCT-specified antibiotic stewardship interventions in hospital  
266 inpatient settings.* An example research objective within the third research topic:  
267 *Estimating short- and long-term effects of TACTA-specified ASP behaviours on Gram-  
268 negative and Gram-positive bacteria, using a controlled interventional study design  
269 and data-reporting.*

## 270 **Implications**

271 The main implication of this consensus work is potentially reducing avoidable waste  
272 and inefficiency in research by directing future research to address the proposed  
273 uncertainties of importance [23]. To facilitate this process, participation of a priority-  
274 setting team in discussion with the community of interest, to share findings and  
275 experiences, is recommended [17]. Research teams are encouraged to identify  
276 opportunities for building robust proposals focused on comprehensively addressing  
277 research objectives within these priorities. Robust proposals could be informed by  
278 recommendations for avoiding research waste [11]; and guidance on designing and  
279 reporting of ASP intervention studies [24,25], implementation studies [26] and  
280 behaviour change interventions [27,28]. ASPs are a global concern, and hence best  
281 addressed by engaging existing research teams to collaborate internationally and  
282 contribute evidence to answer the prioritised research topics. The JPIAMR Virtual  
283 Research Institute has offered to provide a platform to achieve that by increasing  
284 coordination, improving visibility and facilitating knowledge exchange globally  
285 (<https://www.jpiaamr.eu/activities/jpiaamr-virtual-research-institute/>). A promising  
286 innovative solution for contributing generalisable evidence is ‘implementation  
287 laboratories’ [29] - such as for the one proposed for audit and feedback  
288 (<http://www.ohri.ca/auditfeedback/>). For ASPs this would involve a research team  
289 integrated into healthcare systems undertaking research projects directly relevant to  
290 the healthcare systems’ priorities for ASPs. This could offer a much-needed platform  
291 for moving forward from small-scale studies developed on an *ad hoc* basis, towards  
292 co-ordinated large-scale initiatives focusing on applied research, to develop,  
293 implement and evaluate theoretically-informed ASPs in different contexts. Sufficient  
294 and sustainable resources to support further research efforts are needed to take this  
295 agenda forward. According to Chalmers et al, “research funders have primary  
296 responsibility for reduction in waste resulting from decisions about what research to  
297 do” [23], hence should be encouraged to integrate set research priorities into their  
298 organisational plans, research strategies and funding calls [23].

299 Our aim was to further optimise ASPs for hospital inpatients, based on  
300 experiences of research partners from HICs. Globally, the majority of prescribing takes

301 place in LMICs [3]. We fully agree with proposals to advance antibiotic stewardship  
302 research in those countries [4,24] - as evident in the fact that most of our group  
303 members collaborate with research partners in LMICs. However, the health research  
304 capacity strengthening research field with a focus on implementation science is  
305 emerging, and currently evidence bases are not yet sufficiently advanced to effectively  
306 inform health research capacity strengthening research programme planning [30].  
307 Based on our best knowledge and experiences, we recognised that implementation of  
308 ASPs varies greatly across types of healthcare systems, let alone LMICs, so inviting a  
309 limited number partners from LMICs was likely to unfairly prioritise specific research  
310 needs in their countries. We expect a similar consensus procedure to be conducted  
311 with a range of front-line clinicians and academics from LMICs with extensive  
312 experience with antibiotic prescribing in partnership with experts in implementation,  
313 intervention design and behavioural sciences from HICs and LMICs. More robust  
314 qualitative research investigating contextual influences on ASPs is needed from LMICs  
315 to inform such a consensus procedure.

316 We did not include patients whose role in hospital antibiotic stewardship was  
317 traditionally limited, but now is starting to increase [31]. We anticipated that a major  
318 practical challenge to include patients would be a need to overcome patient-reported  
319 doubts on their ability to understand antibiotic use-related medical information [31].  
320 We expect that including patients would affect the completeness of the prioritised  
321 areas; hence this is needed. As recommended by Nasser et al [17], improving and  
322 refining the proposed research priorities should be continued, so we encourage  
323 assessment, revisions and updates of our consensus process at intervals of 2 years,  
324 including involvement of other stakeholders (e.g. patients). Single systematic  
325 literature reviews around each priority topic could be conducted, where numbers and  
326 types of scientific publications could serve as a proxy to quantitatively assess the  
327 impact of our research priority areas.

### 328 *Conclusions*

329 We propose 10 research priorities areas - shared by clinicians, clinical and non-clinical  
330 academics from HICs with publicly-funded health care systems - for future research on  
331 hospital antibiotic stewardship programmes. For this we focused on a behavioural

332 science perspective – currently underutilised in antibiotic stewardship studies  
333 [3,14,15,32]. This way we addressed a recognised important gap in knowledge [14].  
334 We specified how optimising implementation of ASPs will depend on the use of  
335 theoretical and empirical evidence from behavioural science for knowledge synthesis;  
336 investigation of implementation failures; informing the improved design and  
337 evaluation of effectiveness, sustainability and scalability of ASPs as quality  
338 improvement initiatives.

### 339 **Conflict of interest**

340 There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

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### 353 **Author contribution**

354 MR, KG, EMD, CRR, JMG: conceived and designed the prioritisation activity; KG, EMD:  
355 acted as group facilitators; EC, JE, PGD, EMD, JJF, KG, FL, CAM, JM, RM, AMM, CRR,  
356 MR, SRVK, BS, IS, KNS, JMG: prioritised research topics; All authors: drafting the article  
357 or revising it critically for important intellectual content; All authors: final approval of  
358 the version to be submitted consensus paper.

### 359 **Figure legend:**

360 **Figure 1** The stages of the research priorities setting process for antibiotic  
361 stewardship programmes in hospital settings.

362 **Table 1** The prioritised 10 research topics (an overarching aspiration: more impactful  
363 hospital antibiotic stewardship programmes).

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