

1 **Age-related decline in antibiotic prescribing for uncomplicated**
2 **respiratory tract infections in primary care in England following the**
3 **introduction of a national financial incentive (the Quality Premium)**
4 **for health commissioners to reduce use of antibiotics in the**
5 **community: an interrupted time series analysis**

6
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18
19 Short running title: Antibiotic stewardship impacts RTI prescribing

20 **Abstract**

21 **Objectives:** To assess the impact of the 2015/16 NHS England Quality Premium
22 (which provided a financial incentive for Clinical Commissioning Groups to reduce
23 antibiotic prescribing in primary care) on antibiotic prescribing by General Practitioners
24 (GPs) for respiratory tract infections (RTIs).

25 **Method:** Interrupted time series analysis using monthly patient-level consultation and
26 prescribing data obtained from the Clinical Practice Research Datalink (CPRD),
27 between April 2011 and March 2017. The study population comprised patients
28 consulting a GP who were diagnosed with an RTI. We assessed the rate of antibiotic
29 prescribing in patients (both aggregate and stratified by age) with a recorded diagnosis
30 of uncomplicated RTI, before and after the implementation of the Quality Premium.

31 **Results:** Prescribing rates decreased over the six year study period, with evident
32 seasonality. Notably, there was a 3% drop in the rate of antibiotic prescribing (equating
33 to 14.65 prescriptions per 1,000 RTI consultations) ($p<0.05$) in April 2015, coinciding
34 with the introduction of the Quality Premium. This reduction was sustained, such that
35 after two years there was a 3% decrease in prescribing relative to that expected had
36 the pre-intervention trend continued. There was also a concurrent 2% relative
37 reduction in the rate of broad-spectrum antibiotic prescribing. Antibiotic prescribing for
38 RTIs diagnosed in children showed the greatest decline with a 6% relative change two
39 years after the intervention. Of the RTI indications studied, the greatest reductions in
40 antibiotic prescribing were seen for patients with sore throats.

41 **Conclusions:** Community prescribing of antibiotics for RTIs significantly decreased
42 following the introduction of the Quality Premium, with the greatest reduction seen in
43 younger patients.

44 **Introduction**

45 There is widespread recognition that antibiotic use is a major driver for the emergence
46 and spread of bacterial antibiotic resistance. This has highlighted the importance of
47 antibiotic stewardship, which seeks to reduce unnecessary use of antibiotics in order
48 to conserve the effectiveness of those currently available.¹ Particular emphasis is
49 placed on primary care, which is the healthcare setting in which the highest level of
50 antibiotic prescribing occurs.^{2, 3,4} The majority of patients consulting in primary care
51 present with respiratory tract infections (RTIs), which are also the most common
52 indications for antibiotic prescribing in general practice.⁵ RTIs (including otitis media,
53 the common cold, sore throats, cough, acute bronchitis and sinusitis) are
54 predominantly uncomplicated self-limiting infections. Treatment of these infections
55 with antibiotics is often inappropriate as they are unlikely to be of clinical benefit while
56 subjecting patients to adverse side effects such as toxicity and carriage of antibiotic-
57 resistant bacteria.^{3, 5, 6}

58 There are wide variations in community antibiotic prescribing rates both within
59 the UK and when comparing the UK to other European countries.^{2, 7} Community
60 consumption of antibiotics in the UK (2016: 19.6 defined daily doses [DDD] per 1,000
61 inhabitants per day), although lower than the European average (21.9 DDD per 1,000
62 inhabitants per day), is still much higher than prescription rates seen in some
63 European countries (e.g. the Netherlands: 10.4, Sweden: 12.0, Germany: 14.1 DDD
64 per 1,000 inhabitants per day), suggesting that further reductions can be made.⁷

65 A range of antibiotic stewardship, educational and policy interventions have
66 been implemented in England, aimed at improving the quality of antibiotic
67 prescribing.^{1, 8} One such initiative, introduced in April 2015 and published each
68 financial year since, was the inclusion of an antibiotic prescribing element to the

69 national Quality Premium (QP), which provides financial remuneration to Clinical
70 Commissioning Groups (CCGs) responsible for the planning and commissioning of
71 healthcare services in their region. The antibiotic prescribing component of the
72 2015/16 QP required CCGs to achieve a reduction of 1% in total antibiotic prescribing
73 in primary care and a 10% decrease in the proportion of broad-spectrum antibiotics
74 prescribed, specifically co-amoxiclav, cephalosporins and quinolones.

75 This study examined the impact of the QP on antibiotic prescribing for RTIs in
76 primary care in England, using an interrupted time series design, which is often used
77 in the evaluation of 'natural experiments'.⁹ The study focused on trends in antibiotic
78 prescribing in patients with a recorded diagnosis of uncomplicated acute RTI after
79 consulting their GP. This group of infections was selected as they are the most
80 common indication for which antibiotics are inappropriately prescribed in primary care,
81 and offer the most scope for improvements in the quality of prescribing. Patients were
82 stratified by age to assess whether changes in prescribing were associated with
83 particular age groups.

84 Methods

85 ***Ethical approval:***

86 The protocol for this research was approved by the Independent Scientific Advisory
87 Committee (ISAC) for Medicines and Healthcare products Regulatory Agency (MHRA)
88 database research (protocol number 16_129R).

89

90 ***Data source and study population***

91 The Clinical Practice Research Datalink (CPRD) is a large, validated electronic
92 database containing routinely collected longitudinal patient-level primary care medical
93 records. CPRD covers approximately 7% of the UK population,¹⁰ with the data being
94 representative of patient demographic characteristics (age, sex, ethnicity).^{11, 12} Data
95 were extracted from the CPRD by identifying all patients with a diagnosis of RTI
96 recorded using Read codes, a hierarchical classification system that includes codes
97 for clinical signs, symptoms and diagnoses.¹¹ Acute uncomplicated RTIs were
98 classified as acute otitis media (AOM), rhinosinusitis, sore throats, upper RTIs, lower
99 RTIs (not including pneumonia related codes), viral RTIs, and total respiratory
100 infections (total of all diagnostic codes excluding duplicated codes). We included
101 symptoms and viral infections and were inclusive with the selection of codes in order
102 to increase sensitivity. Diagnostic codes were excluded if they were indicative of a
103 more complicated infection, such as pneumonia, where antibiotic prescribing would be
104 recommended.

105 The cohort of patients with an RTI was analysed to see whether their
106 consultations resulted in antibiotic prescriptions. A prescription was linked to a
107 patient's consultation if both occurred on the same day. The antibiotic therapy codes

108 were identified and categorised using the British National Formulary sub-chapter 5.1,
109 excluding anti-tuberculosis and anti-leprotic drugs.¹³

110 We included patients with permanent registration status (i.e. excluded
111 temporary residents, visitors), for whom data had been recorded by GPs who met
112 CPRD “up-to-standard” criteria. This ensured that the included data had been
113 validated to meet reliable quality levels for completeness and recording. Data for
114 individual patients were collected throughout the study period (April 2011 to March
115 2017), or until the date of transfer of a patient to another general practice, date of
116 death or the date at which the practice had its last collection.

117 We estimated monthly antibiotic prescription rates (measured as antibiotic
118 items) per 1000 RTI consultations for all practices. The RTI consultation denominator
119 was stratified by age where age specific rates were being assessed. We compared
120 rates by age group, infection group and antibiotic type (total antibiotic and broad-
121 spectrum antibiotics). Aligned with the QP, broad-spectrum penicillins (including co-
122 amoxiclav), cephalosporins and quinolones were the BNF antibiotic classes used to
123 define broad-spectrum antibiotics. To assess potential differences in antibiotic
124 prescribing by age, the data were split into three age groups: children (under 16 year
125 olds), adults (16 to 64 year olds) and the elderly (65 years and older).

126

127 ***Statistical analyses:***

128 Interrupted time series analysis is a strong quasi-experimental research design
129 commonly used for evaluation of longitudinal effects of interventions, and is particularly
130 appropriate for interventions that target population-level health outcomes.^{9, 14} The
131 analyses used a segmented regression of interrupted time series data to examine the
132 impact of the QP 12 months and 24 months after its introduction in England. A monthly

133 time series of the rate of antibiotic prescribing from April 2011 to March 2015 was used
134 to establish the underlying trend (slope) prior to the introduction of the QP. The
135 observed post-intervention trend line was then compared with the continuation of the
136 pre-intervention trend that would have been expected in the absence of an intervention
137 (the counterfactual), in terms of the change in the trend post-intervention, and the
138 change in the level at the intercept (when the QP was introduced, 1st April 2015).¹⁴
139 The model estimates were then used to quantify the absolute change and relative
140 change at 12 months and 24 months. To model possible long-term seasonal patterns,
141 the data were “time stratified” by month,¹⁵ which permitted adjustment for confounding
142 by seasonality. To account for autocorrelated data, Autoregressive Moving average
143 (ARMA) models were fitted.¹⁶ The order of the moving average and the autoregressive
144 model parameters were determined using multiple methods including scatter plots of
145 the deviance residuals versus time, the Durbin Watson test, and the autocorrelation
146 and partial autocorrelation functions.^{14, 15, 17} To assess the fit of the model parameters
147 the maximum likelihood ratio test and quantile-quantile plots were used.¹⁷ Data were
148 tested for heteroscedasticity prior to modelling using residual plots (standardised
149 residuals vs fitted values) along with Breush Pagan tests. The data for the models was
150 homoscedastic.

151 STATA version 14 (STATA Corp, College Station, TX, USA) was used to
152 perform the data management. The modelling and statistical tests were implemented
153 in R Studio (<http://www.r-project.org>).

154 ***Sensitivity analysis:***

155 The QP is an incentivised initiative targeted at the CCG-level and not the GP practice-
156 level. Therefore the time to disseminate information or develop local agreements
157 would not necessarily happen instantaneously. To account for this delay, a separate

158 interrupted time series regression model was developed with a 3-month phase-in
159 period. This sensitivity analysis assesses the extent to which the results were
160 influenced by a lag in the implementation following the intervention.

161 **Results**

162 ***GP consultations for RTIs***

163 Between April 2011 and March 2017, a total of 2,198,602 patients (mean age: 37.15
164 [SD: 25.7], age range=0-113 years; females: n=1,228,585, 55.9%) who were
165 registered at 431 GP practices across England had 6,480,800 consultations for RTIs.
166 Consultation rates for RTIs of registered patients over the six year study period
167 decreased by 28% from 2011/12 (342.80 per 1,000 registered patients) to 2016/17
168 (247.20). The concurrent rate of registered patients being prescribed antibiotics for
169 RTIs also decreased over these years (36% decrease, from 173.32 to 110.12 per
170 1,000 registered patients) (Table 1). Of the age groups studied, children consulted
171 more often than the other age groups for RTIs (418.11 consultations per 1,000
172 registered patient in 2011/2012 compared with 187.48 and 277.08 for adults and the
173 elderly respectively) (Figure S1, available as Supplementary data at JAC Online).
174 Adults were prescribed fewer antibiotics (89.2 prescriptions per 1,000 registered
175 patients in 2016/17) compared to children and the elderly (146.9 and 145.1
176 prescriptions per 1,000 registered patients, respectively) (Figure S1).

177 As the QP was aimed at changing prescribing behaviour, we continued the
178 analysis by calculating the antibiotic prescription rate per 1,000 RTI consultations.
179 Total antibiotic prescribing (prescription items per 1,000 consultations) for all RTIs
180 showed a decreasing trend across the study period (Table 1, Figure 1) and seasonal
181 fluctuation (Figure 1), with higher rates during the winter months (December) and
182 lower in summer (August).

183 ***Reductions in antibiotic prescribing***

184 Figure 1 shows the decrease in the antibiotic prescribing rate (prescription items per
185 1,000 RTI consultations) over the study period. Although the antibiotic prescribing rate
186 was already decreasing by 0.83 prescription items per 1,000 RTI consultations per
187 month prior to the introduction of the QP ($p<0.0001$), there was a 3% drop in the rate,
188 corresponding to a reduction of 14.65 prescriptions per 1,000 RTI consultations
189 ($p<0.05$) which coincided with the implementation of the QP in April 2015. This
190 reduction continued post-QP with no significant change in the slope of the trend (Table
191 2). Twelve months and twenty-four months after the QP, the average monthly antibiotic
192 prescribing rate was 14.6 per 1,000 RTI consultations less than would have been
193 expected had the QP not been introduced. This represents a 3% decrease relative to
194 that expected had the existing trend continued (Table 2).

195 When the rates were censored around a 3-month implementation period, the
196 change in level was greater, and showed a decrease of 21.39 antibiotic items per
197 1,000 consultations ($p<0.0001$). Due to reduction in the gradient of the slope post-QP,
198 the drop in level was not sustained and there was no difference in the relative change
199 after two years compared to the model without a lag period (Figure 1B, Table 2).

200 The most commonly prescribed antibiotic group was broad-spectrum
201 penicillins. The prescribing rate for broad-spectrum antibiotics decreased by 8.53 per
202 1,000 consultations per month ($p<0.05$). Whether this further reduction was sustained
203 below that projected without the QP is questionable as there was a positive change in
204 the post-QP trend; this reduction in the gradient of the post-QP slope was not
205 statistically significant (Figure 2A, Table 2). Prescription of broad-spectrum antibiotics
206 as a proportion of all antibiotic prescriptions did not vary considerably between the
207 years, a finding that was consistently seen in all age groups (Figure 2B, Table 1).

208 ***Changes in antibiotic prescribing by age***

209 The prescription rate per 1,000 consultations was highest in the elderly and lowest in
210 children, who also consult the most often (elderly: 523.69 per 1,000 consultations,
211 adults: 475.66, and children: 351.32 in 2016/17) (Figure S1, Figure 3).

212 The age-stratified interrupted time series analysis illustrates that the impact of
213 the QP differed across the three age groups, with the greatest reduction in antibiotic
214 prescribing for RTIs occurring in children (Table 2). Two years after implementation of
215 the QP, there was a 6% reduction in the rate of antibiotic prescribing for children
216 relative to that expected had the pre-QP trend continued. At implementation of the QP,
217 the rate of antibiotic prescribing fell across all the age groups, with the largest seen in
218 the adult category (decrease of 16 per 1,000 consultation, compared with 12.71 in
219 children and 12.32 in the elderly) (Figure 3, Table 2). The interrupted time series
220 graphs illustrate that only the prescription rate in children seemed to be widening from
221 the counterfactual prescription rate trend as time progressed, due to the change in the
222 children's post-QP trend which further declined by 0.47 per 1,000 consultations
223 (children's post-QP trend was declining by 1.09 compared with 0.62 pre-QP, $p>0.05$).

224 ***Reductions in different RTI infection groups***

225 The most commonly reported codes for a consultation were for upper RTIs, with 54%
226 of consultations referring to such an infection. Of the total antibiotic prescriptions, 48%
227 were prescribed for upper RTIs. Antibiotic prescribing for upper RTI consultations in
228 adults and the elderly were higher than in children (Figure S2). However prescribing
229 in children showed the greatest decrease in absolute and relative change (Figures S2
230 and S3), with the time series for the elderly showing a shift post-QP to an increase in
231 antibiotic prescribing compared to the pre-QP trend. Adults and elderly had greater

232 antibiotic prescription rates in all infection groups apart from AOM, which was highest
233 in children.

234 Consultations for lower RTIs and rhinosinusitis resulted in the greatest rate of
235 antibiotic prescribing, as shown by the highest estimate of the intercepts in Table 2.
236 Sore throats and lower RTI consultations had the greatest decline in the level of
237 antibiotic prescribing post-QP compared to the other infection groups (Table 2, Figure
238 4), with a 4% and 3% decline, respectively, in antibiotic prescriptions per 1,000
239 consultations relative to the counterfactual expected rate at the same point in time.
240 The majority of the reductions in the sore throat and the lower RTI groups were
241 influenced by the decreases in the level and trend post-QP seen in children (Figures
242 S2 and S3).

243 Rhinosinusitis-related consultations showed an overarching decrease in
244 antibiotic prescribing over time. The greatest reductions in absolute change was seen
245 in children across all infection groups, apart from rhinosinusitis (Figure S3), where
246 there was an increased change in level (16.61 per 1,000 consultations) and trend (1.47
247 per 1,000 consultations ($p<0.05$)).

248

249 **Discussion**

250 We observed a decreasing trend in antibiotic prescribing for RTIs in primary care, with
251 seasonal peaks in the winter period and troughs in the summer. There was a
252 significant drop in the level of this trend by 14.65 antibiotic items per 1,000
253 consultations in April 2015 ($p<0.05$), coinciding with the introduction of the QP in April
254 2015. A year after the implementation of the QP there was a 3% relative reduction
255 below the level of antibiotic prescribing for RTI consultations expected in the absence

256 of this intervention. Our findings suggest that this decline was sustained after 2 years.
257 Similarly there was a level drop in the rate of broad-spectrum antibiotic prescribing,
258 although no differences were seen in the proportions of broad-spectrum antibiotics
259 prescribed.

260 The rate of antibiotic prescribing across the study period was highest in adults
261 for the majority of RTIs, and lowest in children, apart from AOM, an infection most
262 commonly seen in the young. This may be because adults attend with more
263 pronounced or more numerous symptoms, and are better able to communicate
264 subjective symptoms.¹⁸ However, overall antibiotic prescribing for RTIs in children
265 exhibited the greatest decline, with a 6% relative change in this age group two years
266 post-QP. These reductions in prescribing for children were predominantly for upper
267 RTI, sore throat and lower RTI related consultations (6%, 9% and 8% relative change
268 24 months post-QP, respectively). RTIs are more common in children, particularly
269 those younger than four years, as they are immunologically naive and have an
270 increased tendency to develop infections.¹⁸ This along with parental anxiety regarding
271 their child's infection may be responsible for the higher rates of consultations in this
272 age group,¹⁹ with research suggesting that two-thirds of young children visit their GP
273 with an acute RTI at least once a year.¹⁹ Doctors' concern around potential
274 complications where a bacterial infection is not treated, difficulty in establishing a
275 clinical diagnosis and perceived parental expectations may have contributed to high
276 prescribing rates for RTIs in children.¹⁸ Along with growing GP and patient awareness
277 of antibiotic stewardship, the introduction of the pneumococcal conjugate vaccine in
278 recent years may have decreased the perceived risk of bacterial infections in
279 children.²⁰ It would therefore be expected that the greatest reductions in antibiotic
280 prescribing, as has been seen in this study, would be made in children for self-limiting

281 indications such as upper RTIs and sore throats. Assessment of the underlying lower
282 RTI Read codes revealed that there have been reductions in prescribing for bronchial
283 cough, acute bronchitis and bronchiolitis, and acute tracheitis consultations. Decrease
284 in prescribing for acute tracheitis is of potential concern, as antibiotics may be
285 advisable in certain instances; these findings would benefit further investigation.

286 The interrupted time series analysis that took account of a three month phase-
287 in following the introduction of the QP suggested that there were greater reductions in
288 the level change post-QP when a lag in the intervention was included. The QP was
289 targeted at CCGs and therefore the time to disseminate information and develop local
290 agreements would vary and would not necessarily happen instantaneously. An
291 assumption made when using an interrupted time series analysis is that the pre-
292 intervention trend would have continued unchanged in the absence of the intervention
293 of interest and that there are no competing interventions. In addition to the QP, other
294 initiatives, guidance and reports have highlighted the importance of reducing
295 inappropriate antibiotic prescribing.⁸ It could therefore be problematic when attempting
296 to discriminate between whether the changes seen were truly an effect of the QP, or
297 a cumulative impact of multiple initiatives. The QP is an NHS England-led national
298 initiative, which provided a financial incentive for reductions in antibiotic prescribing in
299 primary care, an approach which several studies have indicated as being effective in
300 bringing about change in prescribing.²¹⁻²³ There are however studies which report
301 improvements occurring prior to the schemes and no discernible effects.^{25, 27-30} In
302 England, the positive influence of financial incentives on clinical outcomes has been
303 previously shown with the Quality and Outcomes Framework in 2004,^{23, 24} although
304 positive effects were not universal²⁵ and there were associated concerns about
305 unintended consequences.^{26, 27} Our results do show that although a decreasing trend

306 was evident prior to the QP, there was a statistically significant further decrease in
307 antibiotic prescribing, when compared to the expected counterfactual trend had the
308 QP not been introduced. There are various mechanisms by which an intervention
309 implemented at CCG-level may filter and impact on GP practice-level antibiotic
310 prescribing behaviour. It has been suggested that medicine management teams may
311 play an active role in mediating this transfer,³¹ further research providing evidence for
312 the route of QP translation into primary care would be beneficial.

313 Previous studies have shown declining trends in both consultation rates and
314 antibiotic prescribing for acute RTIs,³²⁻³⁴ and have suggested that reductions in
315 antibiotic prescribing arose mainly because the rate of infections had been declining.³³
316 This reduction in consultations is either due to a true decrease in the incidence of RTIs
317 or to the growth in public awareness around health issues, antibiotic consumption and
318 self-management.³² We used the count of RTI consultations as the denominator for
319 the rate calculations, permitting us to attenuate for changes in consultations and
320 therefore identifying changes to prescribing behaviours in primary care.

321 A limitation of the data used is that collection is not primarily for research
322 purposes and as with all routine data, there is an inherent risk of miscoding and
323 misclassification bias due to differences in the accuracy and completeness of clinical
324 codes used by GPs and/or over time. To reduce selection bias, we were inclusive with
325 the selection of codes, including symptom, diagnosis codes and viral respiratory
326 infections. Having studied a large number of patients and including practices with good
327 quality data, the sample is representative of the population in England and
328 generalisable to other countries with similar healthcare settings.^{11, 12}

329 A further limitation to be noted is that we were unable to assess whether
330 prescriptions were dispensed or whether a delayed antibiotic prescription was given.

331 In summary, we have shown that there have been significant reductions in
332 prescribing of antibiotics for RTIs following the implementation of the 2015-16 QP, with
333 the greatest reductions seen in children. Many patients were still prescribed antibiotics
334 for upper RTIs such as sinusitis, AOM and sore throats, which guidance suggests are
335 likely to be self-limiting infections where antibiotics offer little clinical benefit. Further
336 reductions in primary care antibiotic prescribing should therefore still be achievable.
337 However, it will be important to monitor whether reductions in antibiotic prescribing are
338 associated with any increases in morbidity, such work is currently on-going.

339

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353

354 **Transparency declarations**

355 None to declare.

356

357 **Disclaimer**

358 The views expressed are those of the author(s) and not necessarily those of the NHS,
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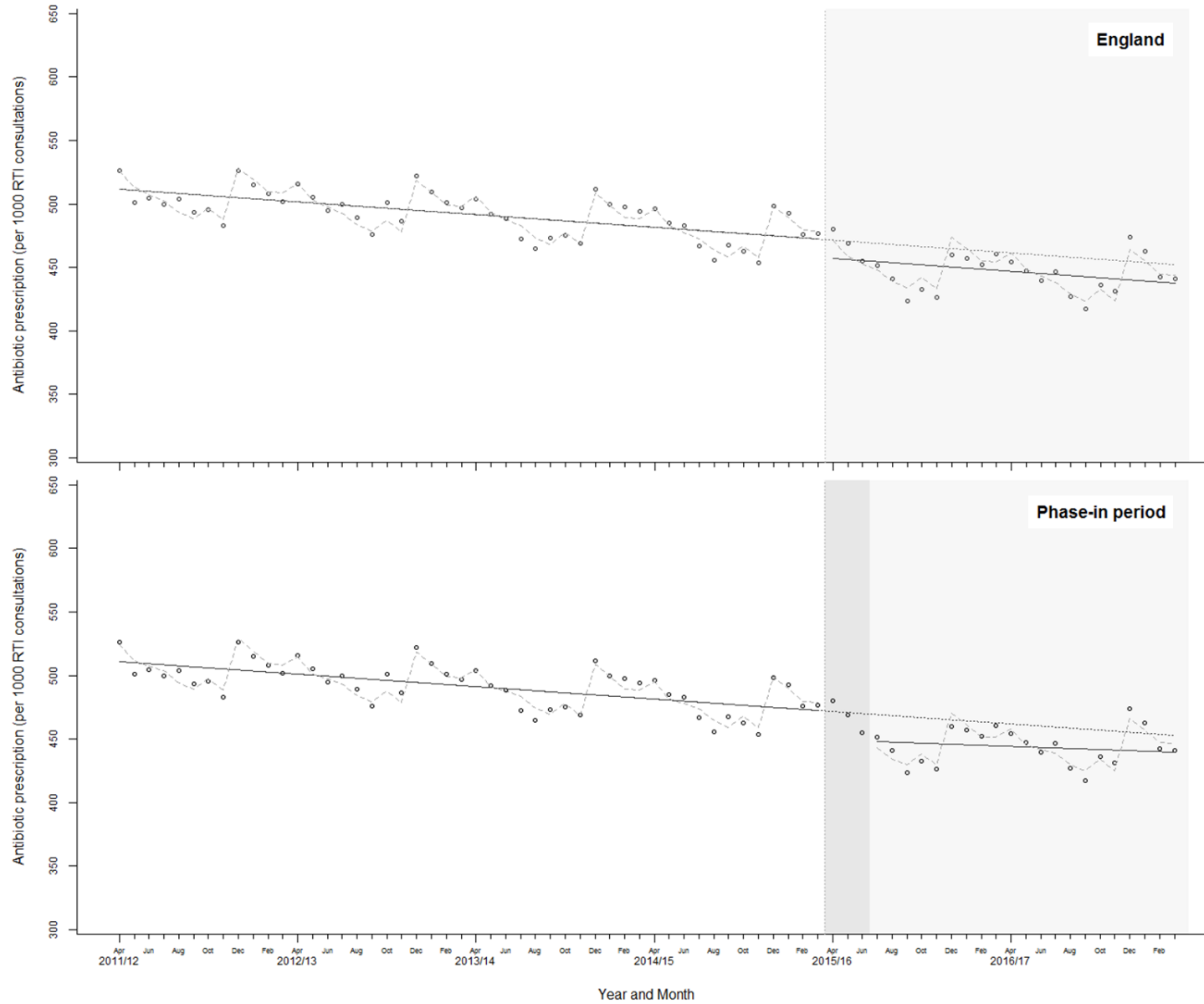
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Table 1: Study population and summary of calculated rates by financial year, April 2011 to March 2017

Parameter	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17
CPRD GP registered patients	4,235,620	4,100,117	3,895,895	3,439,041	2,832,256	1,949,629
Patients who consulted with an RTI included in study	871,406	906,658	750,018	662,462	454,962	309,724
RTI consultations	1,451,984	1,522,399	1,231,712	1,080,171	712,590	481,944
Number of antibiotic items prescribed for RTI	734,137	763,329	602,620	517,236	322,185	214,695
RTI consultation rate, per 1,000 registered patients	342.80	371.31	316.16	314.09	251.60	247.20
Rate of antibiotic prescribing for RTIs, per 1,000 registered patients	173.32	186.17	154.68	150.40	113.76	110.12
Rate of antibiotic prescribing, per 1,000 RTI consultations	505.61	501.40	489.25	478.85	452.13	445.48
Broad-spectrum antibiotic prescribing rate, per 1,000 RTI consultations	312.93	307.49	295.05	290.29	268.78	267.44
Broad-spectrum antibiotics as a proportion of the total antibiotics prescribed for RTI	69.5%	69.3%	69.2%	69.8%	69.2%	69.9%
Rate of antibiotic prescribing per 1,000 RTI consultations, with different recorded diagnoses						
Acute Otitis Media	67.56	63.98	64.86	62.17	61.30	60.96
Rhinosinusitis	719.30	705.28	687.31	676.99	648.10	641.49
Sore throat	435.79	434.56	415.28	403.85	374.51	363.78
Upper RTI	454.22	448.98	442.71	429.79	407.84	404.86
Lower RTI	801.20	803.85	791.61	795.11	768.84	770.48
Viral respiratory infection	122.95	126.47	105.18	101.23	82.93	84.81

450 **Figure 1: Interrupted time series analyses of A) Total antibiotic prescription rate for RTI consultations in England, April 2011**
451 **to March 2017. B) Total antibiotic prescription rate with a 3 month phase-in period.**



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454 **Table 2: Findings from the interrupted time series analyses on the change in trend and level of antibiotic prescribing for**
 455 **RTIs and the relative and absolute changes post-QP**

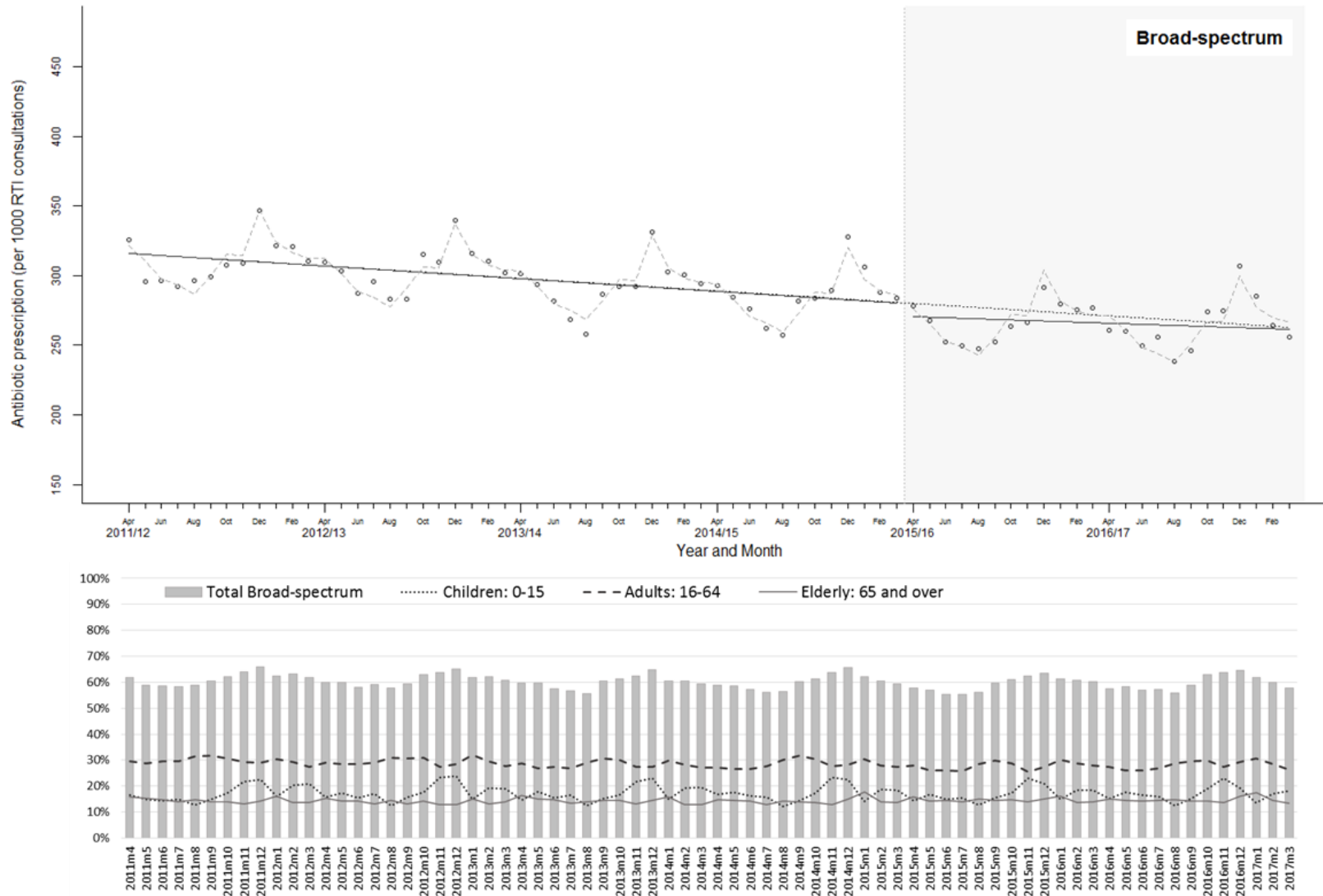
Prescribing measure, 2011/12 - 2016/17 (item/per 1000 RTI consultations)		Estimate of intercept (<i>p</i> -value)	Pre-QP trend (<i>p</i> -value)	Change in level (<i>p</i> -value)	Change in post-QP trend (<i>p</i> -value)	Absolute change post 12 months	Relative change post 12 months (%)	Absolute change post 24 months	Relative change post 24 months (%)
England antibiotic prescribing		526.73 (<i><</i> 0.0001)	-0.83 (<i><</i> 0.0001)	-14.65 (0.0022)	0.0018 (0.9950)	-14.62	-3	-14.60	-3
Broad-spectrum antibiotic prescribing		321.18 (<i><</i> 0.0001)	-0.76 (<i><</i> 0.0001)	-8.53 (0.0022)	0.29 (0.0727)	-5.62	-2	-1.37	-0.5
Subgroup analyses:									
Age group	Children	418.85 (<i><</i> 0.0001)	-0.62 (0.0002)	-12.71 (0.0553)	-0.47 (0.3091)	-18.31	-5	-23.91	-6
	Adult	560.83 (<i><</i> 0.0001)	-0.91 (<i><</i> 0.0001)	-16.00 (0.0007)	0.17 (0.5315)	-18.03	-4	-20.05	-4
	Elderly	598.70 (<i><</i> 0.0001)	-1.02 (<i><</i> 0.0001)	-12.32 (0.002)	1.05 (<i><</i> 0.0001)	0.23	0	12.77	2
RTI group	Acute Otitis Media	65.80 (<i><</i> 0.0001)	-0.11 (0.0126)	-0.36 (0.8603)	-0.02 (0.8827)	0.58	1	0.81	1

Rhinosinusitis	729.26	-0.62	-12.71	-0.47				
	(<0.0001)	(0.0002)	(0.0553)	(0.3091)	-6.36	-1	-5.91	-1
Sore throat	462.08	-1.04	-13.75	-0.07				
	(<0.0001)	(<0.0001)	(0.0869)	(0.9028)	-14.54	-4	-15.33	-4
Upper RTI	474.19	-0.76	-13.21	0.28				
	(<0.0001)	(<0.0001)	(0.0192)	(0.4297)	-9.88	-2	-6.55	-2
Lower RTI	811.38	-0.23	-24.11	0.28				
	(<0.0001)	(0.0461)	(0.0002)	(0.4352)	-20.74	-3	-17.38	-2
Viral respiratory infection	139.93	-0.70	-8.36	0.39				
	(<0.0001)	(<0.0001)	(0.2217)	(0.3565)	-3.72	-4	0.92	1

Sensitivity analysis:

3 month phase-in period, England	525.08	-0.82	-21.39	0.44				
antibiotic prescribing	(<0.0001)	(<0.0001)	(<0.0001)	(0.1186)	-19.86	-4.2	-14.53	-3.15

457 **Figure 2: A) Interrupted time series analysis of broad-spectrum antibiotic prescription rate for RTI consultations in England,**
 458 **April 2011 to March 2017. B) Proportion of broad-spectrum antibiotics prescribed, by age group**



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461 **Figure 3: Interrupted time series analyses of Antibiotic prescription rate for RTI**
462 **consultations in England, April 2011 to March 2017, for A) children, B) adults, C) the elderly**

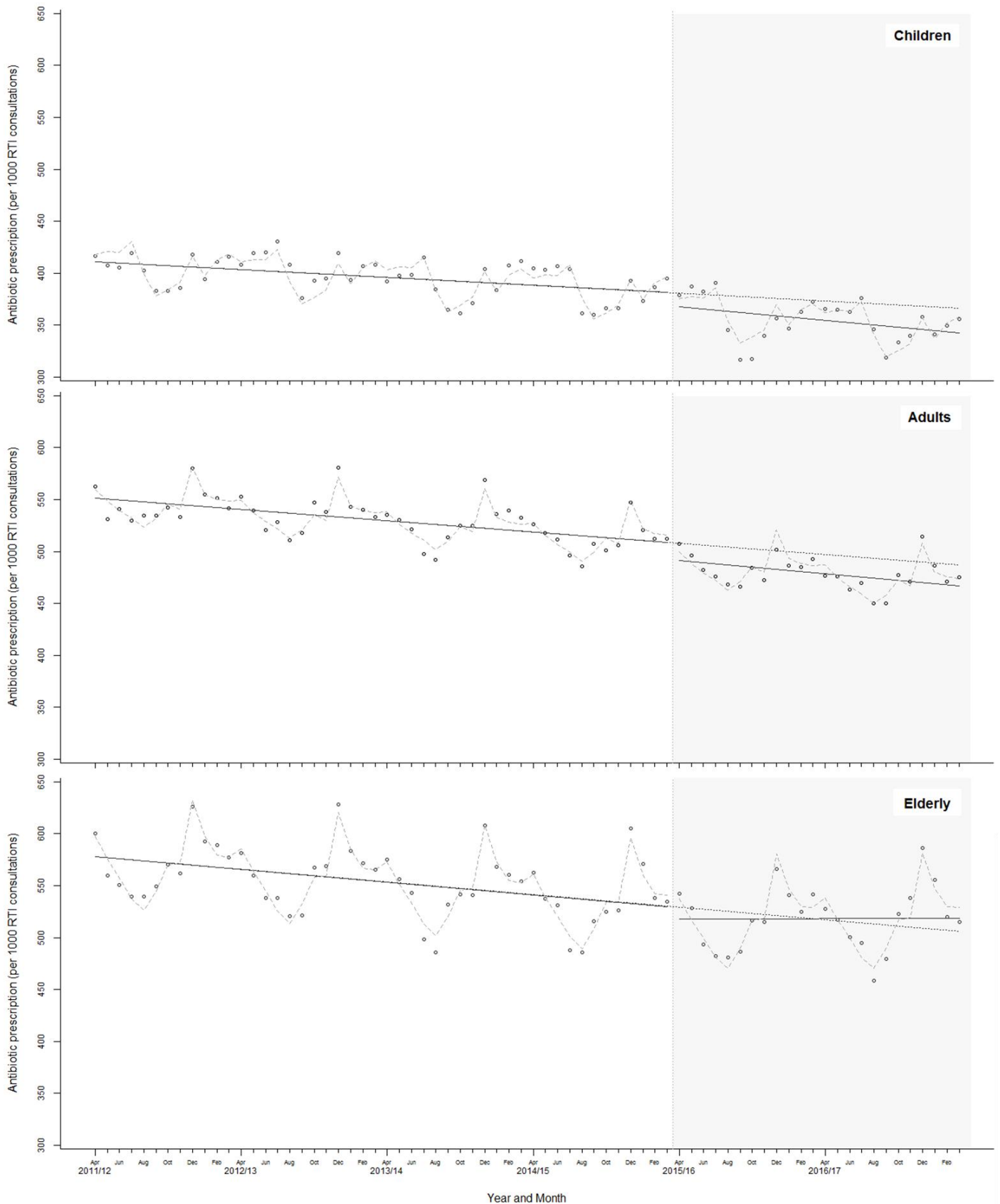


Figure 4: Antibiotic prescription rate for RTI consultations stratified by infection group, April 2011 to March 2017

