

LONDON
SCHOOL of
HYGIENE
& TROPICAL
MEDICINE



LSHTM Research Online

Dewez, Juan Emmanuel; Nijman, Ruud G; del Torso, Stefano; Grossman, Zach; Hadjipanayis, Adamos; Van Esso, Diego; Bath, David; Emonts, Marieke; Lim, Emma; Miners, Alec; +2 more... Pembrey, Lucy; Yeung, Shunmay; (2020) The availability and use of diagnostic tests for the management of acute childhood infections in Europe: the protocol for a cross-sectional survey of paediatricians. London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, London, United Kingdom. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.17037/PUBS.04656309>

Downloaded from: <http://researchonline.lshtm.ac.uk/id/eprint/4656309/>

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.17037/PUBS.04656309>

Usage Guidelines:

Please refer to usage guidelines at <https://researchonline.lshtm.ac.uk/policies.html> or alternatively contact researchonline@lshtm.ac.uk.

Available under license: <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/2.5/>

<https://researchonline.lshtm.ac.uk>

1 **The availability and use of diagnostic tests for the management of acute**
2 **childhood infections in Europe: the protocol for a cross-sectional survey of**
3 **paediatricians.**

4 Juan Emmanuel Dewez,¹ Ruud G Nijman,² Stefano del Torso,³ Zachi Grossman,⁴ Adamos
5 Hadjipanayis,^{5,6} Diego Van Esso,⁷ David Bath,¹ Marieke Emonts,^{8,9} Emma Lim,⁸ Alec Miners,¹ Lucy
6 Pembrey,¹ Shunmay Yeung^{1,2}

7
8 **Affiliations:**

9 1: London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, London, United Kingdom

10 2: Section of Paediatrics, Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Medicine, Imperial College
11 London, London, United Kingdom

12 3: Primary Care Paediatrician, Padova, Italy

13 4: Pediatric clinic, Maccabi Healthcare services, Tel Aviv, Israel

14 5: Paediatric Department, Larnaca General Hospital, Larnaca, Cyprus

15 6: European University Medical School, Nicosia, Cyprus

16 7: Primary Care Paediatrician, Health Care Centre Pere Grau, Barcelona. Spain

17 8: Great North Children's Hospital, Paediatric Immunology, Infectious Diseases & Allergy, Newcastle
18 upon Tyne Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust, Newcastle upon Tyne, United Kingdom

19 9: Translational and Clinical Research Institute, Newcastle University, Newcastle upon Tyne, United
20 Kingdom

21

22 **Corresponding author**

23 Shunmay Yeung. Email address: shunmay.yeung@lshtm.ac.uk

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39 **ABSTRACT**

40 **Introduction**

41 Fever is a frequent reason of consultation in children, but correctly identifying the few febrile children
42 with potentially severe bacterial infections is difficult. This encourages clinicians to prescribe empirical
43 antibiotics and subject children to extensive and sometimes invasive testing. Rapid point of care tests
44 (POCTs) are recommended internationally to reduce the use of antibiotics and medical resources. The
45 extent of the availability and use of POCTs by paediatricians in Europe is unclear, but appears to vary
46 widely across countries. The aim of this study is to document the availability and use of rapid POCTs
47 for the clinical management of acute childhood infections and to identify factors associated with the
48 variability of their adoption across Europe.

49 **Methods and analysis**

50 The study is an online cross-sectional survey of paediatricians working in primary care and hospitals
51 in more than 24 European countries. Participants were recruited through several European research
52 and clinical networks

53 Descriptive statistics will be used to describe the availability of rapid POCTs to paediatricians and the
54 use of rapid POCTs in a clinical scenario of an infant with undifferentiated fever. Weighted regression
55 analyses will identify factors of the availability and use of rapid POCTs across the included countries.

56 **Ethics and dissemination**

57 Participating to this anonymous survey does not carry any risk. Ethical approval was obtained from
58 the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine Ethics Committee.

59 The results of the survey will be presented at European paediatrics conferences and submitted for
60 publication in peer-reviewed medical journals. This study will contribute to understanding the reasons
61 for the variability in the adoption of rapid POCTs across different countries. The findings from this
62 study will be useful for clinicians, health services and the industry developing and implementing rapid
63 POCTs, particularly for the clinical management of febrile children.

64 **Key words**

65 Acute febrile illness, point of care tests, diagnostics, paediatrics, child health

66 **ARTICLE SUMMARY**

67 **Strengths and limitations of this study**

- 68 • Paediatricians from 24 European countries were recruited through several pan-European
69 research networks and national professional associations of general, infectious diseases, and
70 emergency medicine paediatricians working at primary care and hospital levels
- 71 • The survey materials were developed through a robust process including the involvement of
72 experts from 10 European countries, two pilot pre-studies, the translation of the
73 questionnaires into 10 languages, and the use of a software which allowed several quality
74 assurance checks, such as mandatory questions, adaptative questions, consistency and
75 completeness checks, and the prevention of automated multiple entries
- 76 • The main limitation is the non-probabilistic nature of the sampling approach, which implies
77 that there may have been selection bias
- 78 • Response rates may be low, given the online nature of the survey, and there is a risk of
79 response fatigue, given the number of questions, which may have led to non-response bias
80 and loss of statistical power
- 81 • We used one specific clinical scenario to explore the use of rapid POCTs, which implies that
82 the findings of the study will not necessarily be generalisable to other clinical scenarios

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92 INTRODUCTION

93 Fever is a frequent cause of consultation in children.¹ On average, children under five years of age
94 experience two episodes of fever annually.^{2,3} Most febrile children have an infection. Infections cause
95 32% of under-five deaths globally.⁴ However, most infections in children are self-limiting.⁵⁻⁷ Severe
96 bacterial infections represent less than 1% of febrile children consulting in primary care,⁵ and 7-15%
97 of those presenting to emergency departments.^{6,7}

98 Correctly identifying the few children with potentially severe bacterial infections is difficult.⁵ At
99 primary care level, clinicians have limited access to diagnostics and use their clinical expertise.
100 However, history and physical examination may be unspecific.⁵ As a result, antibiotics are often
101 prescribed to ensure no potentially severe bacterial infections are left untreated.⁸ On the other hand,
102 some children who are developing an invasive bacterial infection may be sent home without
103 treatment because they lack specific symptoms at the time of consultation.

104 At hospital level, clinicians often admit young febrile children to rule-out potentially severe infections.
105 During the hospitalisation, children are monitored, and undergo several, sometimes invasive,
106 diagnostic tests. It can take 48 hours or more for some of the tests such as blood cultures to return
107 results. In the meantime, children receive broad-spectrum antibiotics, while most of them actually do
108 not have a severe bacterial infection.^{6,7} This approach can result in anxiety and discomfort for children
109 and their parents, expensive hospitalisations,⁹ and may contribute to the development of
110 antimicrobial resistance (AMR).¹⁰

111 The World Health Organization recommends using rapid point-of-care tests (POCTs) to reduce
112 antibiotic prescription because they can be easily performed and provide rapid results to aid clinical
113 decision-making.¹¹ The use of rapid POCTs could also limit the use of other invasive tests, and allow a
114 better use of medical resources.¹² There are three main types of rapid POCTs for the management of
115 acute infections in children. The first are tests that detect the presence of a specific pathogen, such as
116 group A Streptococci (GAS), or influenza.^{13,14} The second type are tests that measure the host reaction
117 to infection, such as tests measuring C-reactive protein (CRP), or procalcitonin (PCT).¹⁵ These latter

118 tests are useful in febrile children with no other clinical signs to rule-in or out bacterial infections¹⁶
119 and as an indicator of severity, even if the pathogen and/or the location of infection is not identified.
120 The third type are tests that detect both the pathogens and the host reaction, for example urine
121 dipsticks, which can indicate the presence of nitrites produced by bacteria, and of leucocyte esterase,
122 an enzyme produced by the hosts during bacterial infections.¹⁷

123 The impact of rapid POCTs depends on several factors, including their analytical and clinical
124 performance, but also their adoption by clinicians.¹⁸ For example, effective rapid POCTs to diagnose
125 malaria are available. However, many clinicians in malaria-endemic countries prescribe antimalarials
126 even when patients test negative, because they are reluctant to shift from reliance on clinician
127 judgement, or mistrust test results.¹⁹

128 There seems to be a wide variability in the availability and use of rapid POCTs across Europe. However,
129 evidence describing the availability and use is scarce and mainly limited to studies on the use of POCTs
130 by General Practitioners (GPs) in adults in northern countries. These show that tests POCTs to detect
131 GAS are widely used in France²⁰ and CRP POCTs are used in almost all GP practices in Sweden²¹⁻²⁵ and
132 Denmark,²⁶ while the proportion of GPs which use the test is 3% in Belgium, 15% in the United
133 Kingdom, and 48% of in the Netherlands.²⁷ Urine dipsticks seem to be widely used across Europe.²⁷⁻²⁹

134 The availability and use of rapid POCTs in the management of febrile children across Europe is unclear,
135 but also appears to vary. This variability could be explained by health systems and policy factors while
136 the variability in the use of the tests could be due to characteristics of clinicians, such as specialization,
137 or years of experience, and their attitudes towards rapid POCTs.

138 The aim of this study is to document the variability in the availability and use of rapid POCTs for the
139 clinical management of acute childhood infections in Europe and to identify factors associated with
140 the variability. The knowledge generated by the study will inform the development and
141 implementation of current and future rapid POCTs in different European countries.

142 **METHODS AND ANALYSIS**

143 The study is an online cross-sectional survey of paediatricians working in primary care and in hospitals
144 in Europe. Data collection was conducted between September and November 2019.

145 **Outcomes**

146 1. Primary outcomes:

- 147 I. Proportion of participants who report the availability of CRP POCT in their workplace.
148 CRP was chosen because it is one of the most widely used and researched non-specific
149 tests for indicating bacterial infection and severity, and is a blood test (as are many of
150 the new tests in development)
- 151 II. In those reporting that CRP POCT is available in their workplace, the proportion of
152 participants who report they would use it in a clinical scenario (i.e. a febrile infant with
153 no clear focus)

154 2. Secondary outcomes include:

- 155 I. Proportion of participants who would like specific rapid POCTs to be made available
156 II. Proportion of participants who report the availability of other rapid POCTs (e.g. urine
157 dipsticks) in their main workplace.
- 158 III. Proportion of participants who report the use of diagnostic tests other than CRP POCT
159 in the clinical scenario. Proportion of participants reporting different reasons for using
160 diagnostic tests in the clinical scenario. Characteristics of future rapid POCTs for the
161 management of acute childhood infections considered to be most important by
162 participants.

163 **Study setting**

164 We aim to include clinicians providing healthcare to acutely ill children from any European country.
165 The authors are members of several European paediatric research networks (see below) which
166 between them have a strong presence in 24 countries: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus,
167 Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Israel, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, the Netherlands,
168 Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Ukraine, and the United Kingdom. We expect

169 that most participants will be from these targeted countries. These countries represent a wide
170 spectrum of European countries in terms of potentially important characteristics, including who
171 delivers most primary healthcare to children (paediatricians or GPs), and the financing mechanisms
172 for health services.

173 **Recruitment of participants**

174 To be included, participants needed to fulfil the following criteria:

- 175 • Be a clinically active paediatrician providing acute care to children based either in primary
176 care or in hospital
- 177 • Be a general paediatrician or paediatrician with a subspecialty or special interest
178 (particularly in infectious diseases and emergency medicine)

179 We included both junior doctors and consultants, and doctors working in either the private or public
180 sector in any European country. Paediatricians not clinically active or medical students were not
181 included.

182 Participants were identified through the following networks:

- 183 • Personalised Risk assessment in febrile illness to optimise Real-life Management across the
184 European Union (PERFORM) network, a European research consortium which aims to improve
185 the clinical management of febrile children³⁰
- 186 • European Academy of Paediatrics Research in Ambulatory Settings network (EAPRASnet)³¹
- 187 • European Society of Paediatric Infectious Diseases (ESPID)³²
- 188 • Research in European Paediatric Emergency Medicine (REPEM)³³
- 189 • National associations of paediatrics, paediatric infectious diseases, and paediatric emergency
190 medicine from the countries listed above (Additional file 1)

191 Within each network, an authorised person emailed an invitation to all members, using internal email
192 lists, except in the UK where the invitation was incorporated in the newsletter of the national
193 association (Royal College of Paediatrics and Child Health). Three reminders were sent two weeks
194 apart. Participation was monitored weekly, and in countries with low participation, national

195 coordinators, who were members of one of the above networks, further disseminated the survey
196 locally through professional networks, or during conferences or workshops. In the UK, the survey was
197 also disseminated by the national association's social media account. No incentives were offered to
198 potential participants.

199 **Sample size**

200 The sample size was computed to allow estimation of the two main outcomes of interest (the
201 availability of CRP POCT, and the use of CRP POCT in the clinical scenario) with a certain degree of
202 precision (Table 1). We considered primary care and hospital paediatricians as two different
203 populations because of the differences in the availability of diagnostics and the overall context of care
204 in those settings, as well as different *a priori* chance of bacterial infection in children in these settings.
205 We assessed whether these sample sizes would also allow identification of determinants of the main
206 outcomes of interest with sufficient statistical power in multiple logistic regression analyses. Based on
207 a rule of thumb of doubling the sample size to allow for multivariable analyses, we considered that if
208 half of the sample sizes in Table 1 would allow detection of a difference in the main outcomes of
209 interest between categories of the main hypothesised explanatory variables (health expenditure per
210 capita for CRP POCT availability, and years of clinical experience for CRP POCT use), with >90% power,
211 then the full sample sizes presented in Table 1 would also be sufficient for the regression analyses.
212 With regards the determinants of CRP POCT availability, we grouped countries into two categories of
213 health expenditure per capita (HEC): category 1 grouped countries spending $\leq 2,800$ Euros per capita
214 and category 2 countries spending $> 2,800$ Euros, as 2,800 Euros is the median HEC of the countries
215 included in the study^{34,35} (Table 2). We hypothesised that CRP POCT would be available to 50% of
216 clinicians in the $> 2,800$ Euros group based on the availability of CRP POCT in the Netherlands,²⁷
217 compared to 25% in the $\leq 2,800$ Euros. The power to detect a difference between the two groups (with
218 252 primary care paediatricians in the $\leq 2,800$ Euros category versus 241 in the $> 2,800$ category, and
219 322 hospital paediatricians in the $\leq 2,800$ Euros category versus 385 in the $> 2,800$ category, Table 2)
220 would be 100% in both primary care and hospital settings. With regards the determinants of CRP POCT

221 use in the clinical scenario, we grouped participants into two categories: category 1 grouped
222 participants with ≤ 10 years of experience, category 2 participants with >10 years of experience.³⁶ We
223 considered that 20% of the sample will have ≤ 10 years of experience, based on European figures of
224 years of experience of medical doctors.³⁷ We hypothesised that less experienced paediatricians would
225 use CRP POCT in 45% of patients in the clinical scenario, while more experienced paediatricians will
226 do so in 25% of patients, based on the median rate of CRP use in febrile infants from 11 European
227 hospitals members of the PERFORM consortium (unpublished data). The power to detect a difference
228 between the two groups (with 99 primary care paediatricians in the ≤ 10 years of experience category
229 versus 394 in the >10 years of experience category, and 141 hospital paediatricians in the ≤ 10 years
230 of experience category versus 566 in the >10 years of experience category, Table 3) would be 97% in
231 primary care and 99% in hospital settings. Thus, the sample sizes in table 1 would ensure that the
232 planned regression analyses have sufficient power.

233 **Consent and confidentiality**

234 The invitation email provided information about the identity of the research team, the aim and nature
235 of the study, the reason for contacting the recipient, and the time needed to complete the
236 questionnaire (approximately 10 minutes). The email included a weblink to access the online survey.
237 The first page of the survey consisted of a participant information sheet which further informed
238 participants about the anonymous nature of the survey, the storing of all data for 10 years in the
239 London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine (LSHTM) secure data server, which is password
240 protected and only accessible to Juan Emmanuel Dewez (JED) and Shunmay Yeung (SY). The page also
241 contained a consent box that participants had to tick to confirm they agree to take part to the study
242 and to access the website hosting the questionnaires.

243 **Data collection tools**

244 Data were collected through an on-line structured questionnaire. There were two questionnaires:
245 one targeting primary care paediatricians and another for hospital paediatricians. Most questions

246 were identical in the two questionnaires (14 questions were different). The questionnaires were
247 developed based on a literature review and had four sections (Additional file 2):

- 248 1. Section A: general characteristics of participants and their workplace
- 249 2. Section B: availability of rapid POCTs in the workplace
- 250 3. Section C: clinical scenario and use of diagnostics in the scenario
- 251 4. Section D: characteristics of future diagnostics that are important to participants

252 The actual number of questions varied from 43 to 58 questions, depending on how the respondent
253 answered certain questions (i.e. selecting specific answers to some questions gave access to
254 additional questions). Collaborators from the targeted countries tested the initial drafts and provided
255 input to improve the relevance of the questionnaires for their countries. The questionnaires were
256 piloted for the first time during the paediatric infectious diseases master course of the 2017 European
257 Academy of Paediatrics annual conference with 58 attendees, and adapted after analysis to improve
258 the clarity and relevance of questions. The survey was developed in English and translated into
259 French, German, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Latvian, Polish, Spanish, Slovenian, and Ukrainian by a
260 bilingual translator. This was followed by a back translation into English by another bilingual translator
261 blinded to the original version. Any disagreement was solved through discussion with collaborators
262 from the respective countries. There were a few exceptions with no back translation: the translations
263 into French and Spanish were made by JED, who was one of the main developers of the
264 questionnaires, and checked for accuracy by collaborators from France and Spain; the Slovenian
265 translation was made by a Slovenian collaborator and checked by two other collaborators without
266 back translation. Collaborators from each country checked the final online versions and provided
267 feedback to correct typographical and formatting errors. The final version was piloted in Norway and
268 Slovenia in June-July 2019 with 115 participants who could provide feedback by email. No technical
269 issues were reported during the pilot. A few typographical errors were corrected after the second
270 pilot.

271 **Software and data management**

272 We used software developed by a professional company with a track record in conducting online
273 surveys.³⁹⁻⁴¹ Questions were mandatory except three questions. Most questions were closed-
274 questions with a single answer from a drop-down menu; six questions were open with free text
275 answers. The order of questions was not randomised. Questions were displayed in 13 pages. Pages
276 contained between 1 to 10 questions. Completeness of each page and accuracy of responses (e.g.
277 some of the free text answers had to be numerical answers) was checked through JAVAScripts.
278 Participants were able to return to previous questions and change their answers. Data were
279 automatically saved into a database after completion of each page. There was no technical means to
280 prevent multiple entries by the same participant. A challenge-response test (CAPTCHA) was
281 mandatory at the beginning of the questionnaire to prevent automated multiple entries by a
282 computer.

283 **Analysis**

284 Only complete questionnaires will be analysed. Questionnaires that were completed in less than two
285 minutes will be excluded, as completing the questionnaire in less than two minutes is possible only if
286 respondents do not fully engage with the questions and provide random answers.

287 There might be response bias related to characteristics of participants (e.g. there might be more
288 younger respondents because of the online nature of the survey, or more participants with a special
289 interest in, for example, infectious diseases). To address this, we will use non-response weighting⁴² to
290 weight the data to replicate the distribution of the different sub-groups (including age groups,
291 subspecialty groups) in the total population of paediatricians per country, provided that auxiliary data
292 on these characteristics are available. Moreover, there will be an over-representation of participants
293 from smaller countries given that the sample sizes are similar while the total population of
294 paediatricians per country vary widely (Table 1). To address this in the analyses that use combined
295 data from several countries (e.g. means across group of countries) we will use population size
296 weighting.⁴² The population size weight will be combined with the non-response weight.

297 Descriptive statistics will be used to derive the proportions of participants with relevant characteristics
298 (including country of work, years of practice, type of workplace, subspecialty, etc), response rates per
299 research network, availability of rapid POCTs, use of diagnostic tests in the clinical scenario, proportion
300 of participants who agree/disagree with reasons to use tests, and future characteristics (including
301 purposes of new tests, time to get results).

302 Multiple logistic regression analyses will be performed to identify determinants of CRP POCT
303 availability, and CRP POCT use in the clinical scenario for each level of care (primary care and hospital
304 care). Expected explanatory variables are presented in table 4. Univariable analysis of the explanatory
305 variable against the outcomes of interest will be performed initially to develop the model.
306 Multicollinearity will be assessed to drop one of the pair of correlated variables. Data from
307 questionnaires with missing independent variables or the outcome variables will not be used in the
308 model. Given that all the hypothesised explanatory variables were identified through a review of the
309 literature, they will all be included in the model *a priori* (except those that are highly correlated).,
310 All analyses will be performed with Stata 16.[®]

311 **Patient and Public Involvement**

312 Patients and the public were not involved in the development of this protocol.

313 **ETHICS AND DISSEMINATION**

314 Participating to the survey does not carry any substantial risk. Paediatricians may feel that the research
315 team is making judgements or evaluating the provision of care. To mitigate against this, it was clearly
316 explained during the consent process that the aim of the study was not to assess the quality of care
317 but to describe and understand the use of POCTs in the participants' workplaces. The inconvenience
318 for participants of taking time away from work might be a minimal source of discomfort as the survey
319 completion takes only about 10 minutes. All participants provided electronic written informed
320 consent. Ethical approval was obtained from the LSHTM Ethics Committee (Ref: 15977).

321 The results of the survey will be presented at European conferences of paediatrics (ESPID and EAP)
322 and submitted for publication in peer-reviewed medical journals. The results will also be presented at

323 the final meeting of the PERFORM consortium, which gathers stakeholders in the field of the
324 management of acute childhood infections from across Europe. The datasets generated during the
325 current study will not publicly available but will be available from the corresponding author on
326 reasonable request.

327 **DISCUSSION**

328 This study will contribute to understanding the reasons for the variability in the adoption of rapid
329 POCTs, the use of which is recommended internationally to improve the use of antibiotics and medical
330 resources in general. The findings from this study will be useful for clinicians, health services and the
331 industry currently developing or implementing rapid POCTs, particularly for the clinical management
332 of febrile children. The identification of countries where rapid POCTs have been adopted will also
333 inform the development of additional in-depth studies in those countries to learn more about the
334 contexts, actors, and processes which led to the successful implementation of rapid POCTs in clinical
335 practice.

336 **Strengths**

337 This is a survey of paediatricians from across Europe. We used several pan-European research
338 networks and national professional associations of general, infectious diseases, and emergency
339 medicine paediatricians working at primary care and hospital levels to reach out to a broad range of
340 paediatricians in 24 countries. In our analytical approach we will use available data to attempt to
341 estimate how representative our sample is of paediatricians in those countries, and we will also be
342 specifically exploring the contribution of health system factors in influencing the availability of
343 diagnostic tests.

344 The survey materials were developed through a robust process including the involvement of experts
345 from 10 European countries, two pilot pre-studies, the translation of the questionnaires into 10
346 languages, and the use of a software which allowed several quality assurance checks, such as
347 mandatory questions, adaptative questions, consistency and completeness checks, and the
348 prevention of automated multiple entries.

349 **Limitations**

350 The main limitation is the non-probabilistic nature of the sampling approach, which implies that there
351 may have been selection bias. Obtaining comprehensive sampling frames from each country to select
352 participants randomly would have required a much greater level of engagement with local health
353 authorities, which was not possible.

354 Response rates may be low, given the online nature of the survey,⁴³ and there is a risk of response
355 fatigue, given the number of questions, which may have led to non-response bias and loss of statistical
356 power. Other risks of bias common in surveys, including social desirability, hypothesis guessing, and
357 cultural bias,⁴⁴ are also possible.

358 We used one specific clinical scenario to explore the use of rapid POCTs, which implies that the findings
359 of the study will not necessarily be generalisable to other clinical scenarios.

360 Finally, GPs are also an important provider of healthcare to children in some countries. We did not
361 approach GPs, because this would have required substantial additional resources.

362 **Word count: 3,974**

363 **REFERENCES**

- 364 1. Hay AD, Heron J, Ness A. The prevalence of symptoms and consultations in pre-school children in
365 the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children (ALSPAC): a prospective cohort study. *Family
366 practice*. 2005;22(4):367-74.
- 367 2. Sands R, Shanmugavadivel D, Stephenson T, Wood D. Medical problems presenting to paediatric
368 emergency departments: 10 years on. *Emergency medicine journal : EMJ*. 2012 May;29(5):379-82
- 369 3. Alpern ER, Stanley RM, Gorelick MH, Donaldson A, Knight S, Teach SJ, et al. Epidemiology of a
370 pediatric emergency medicine research network: the PECARN Core Data Project. *Pediatric
371 emergency care*. 2006 Oct;22(10):689-99
- 372 4. Liu L, Oza S, Hogan D, Chu Y, Perin J, Zhu J, et al. Global, regional, and national causes of under-5
373 mortality in 2000-15: an updated systematic analysis with implications for the Sustainable
374 Development Goals. *The Lancet*. 2016;388(10063):3027-35.

- 375 5. Van den Bruel A, Haj-Hassan T, Thompson M, Buntinx F, Mant D. Diagnostic value of clinical
376 features at presentation to identify serious infection in children in developed countries: a
377 systematic review. *Lancet* (London, England). 2010;375(9717):834-45.
- 378 6. De S, Williams GJ, Hayen A, Macaskill P, McCaskill M, Isaacs D, et al. Accuracy of the "traffic light"
379 clinical decision rule for serious bacterial infections in young children with fever: a retrospective
380 cohort study. *BMJ* (Clinical research ed). 2013;346:f866
- 381 7. Nijman RG, Vergouwe Y, Thompson M, van Veen M, van Meurs AHJ, van der Lei J, et al. Clinical
382 prediction model to aid emergency doctors managing febrile children at risk of serious bacterial
383 infections: diagnostic study. *BMJ : British Medical Journal*. 2013;346.
- 384 8. Lucas PJ, Cabral C, Hay AD, Horwood J. A systematic review of parent and clinician views and
385 perceptions that influence prescribing decisions in relation to acute childhood infections in
386 primary care. *Scandinavian journal of primary health care*. 2015;33(1):11-20.
- 387 9. Leigh S, Grant A, Murray N, Faragher B, Desai H, Dolan S, et al. The cost of diagnostic uncertainty:
388 a prospective economic analysis of febrile children attending an NHS emergency department. *BMC*
389 *medicine*. 2019;17(1):48.
- 390 10. European Centre for Disease Control, European Food Safety A, European Medicines A.
391 ECDC/EFSA/EMA second joint report on the integrated analysis of the consumption of
392 antimicrobial agents and occurrence of antimicrobial resistance in bacteria from humans and
393 food-producing animals. *EFSA Journal*. 2017;15(7):e04872-n/a.
- 394 11. WHO. World Health Organization. Global action plan on antimicrobial resistance 2015. Available
395 from <http://www.who.int/antimicrobial-resistance/global-action-plan/en>. Accessed 20/12/17.
- 396 12. Larsson A, Greig-Pylypczuk R, Huisman A. The state of point-of-care testing: a European
397 perspective. *Upsala journal of medical sciences*. 2015;120(1):1-10.
- 398 13. Stewart EH, Davis B, Clemans-Taylor BL, Littenberg B, Estrada CA, Centor RM. Rapid antigen group
399 A streptococcus test to diagnose pharyngitis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *PloS one*.
400 2014;9(11):e111727.

- 401 14. Wilson ML. Malaria rapid diagnostic tests. *Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of*
402 *the Infectious Diseases Society of America*. 2012 Jun;54(11):1637-41
- 403 15. Kapasi AJ, Dittrich S, Gonzalez IJ, Rodwell TC. Host Biomarkers for Distinguishing Bacterial from
404 Non-Bacterial Causes of Acute Febrile Illness: A Comprehensive Review. *PloS one*.
405 2016;11(8):e0160278
- 406 16. Van den Bruel A, Thompson MJ, Haj-Hassan T, Stevens R, Moll H, Lakhanpaul M, et al. Diagnostic
407 value of laboratory tests in identifying serious infections in febrile children: systematic review.
408 *BMJ (Clinical research ed)*. 2011;342:d3082.
- 409 17. Mambatta AK, Jayarajan J, Rashme VL, Harini S, Menon S, Kuppusamy J. Reliability of dipstick assay
410 in predicting urinary tract infection. *Journal of family medicine and primary care*. 2015;4(2):265-
411 8.
- 412 18. Horvath AR, Lord SJ, StJohn A, Sandberg S, Cobbaert CM, Lorenz S, et al. From biomarkers to
413 medical tests: the changing landscape of test evaluation. *Clinica chimica acta; international journal*
414 *of clinical chemistry*. 2014;427:49-57.
- 415 19. Burchett HE, Leurent B, Baiden F, Baltzell K, Bjorkman A, Bruxvoort K, et al. Improving prescribing
416 practices with rapid diagnostic tests (RDTs): synthesis of 10 studies to explore reasons for variation
417 in malaria RDT uptake and adherence. *BMJ Open*. 2017;7(3):e012973
- 418 20. Pulcini C, Pauvif L, Paraponaris A, Verger P, Ventelou B. Perceptions and attitudes of French
419 general practitioners towards rapid antigen diagnostic tests in acute pharyngitis using a
420 randomized case vignette study. *Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy*. 2012;67(6):1540-6.
- 421 21. Engstrom S, Molstad S, Lindstrom K, Nilsson G, Borgquist L. Excessive use of rapid tests in
422 respiratory tract infections in Swedish primary health care. *Scandinavian Journal of Infectious*
423 *Diseases*. 2004;36(3):213-8.
- 424 22. Andre M, Vernby A, Odenholt I, Lundborg CS, Axelsson I, Eriksson M, et al. Diagnosis-prescribing
425 surveys in 2000, 2002 and 2005 in Swedish general practice: consultations, diagnosis, diagnostics
426 and treatment choices. *Scand J Infect Dis*. 2008;40(8):648-54.

- 427 23. Lindstrom J, Nordeman L, Hagstrom B. What a difference a CRP makes. A prospective
428 observational study on how point-of-care C-reactive protein testing influences antibiotic
429 prescription for respiratory tract infections in Swedish primary health care. *Scandinavian journal*
430 *of primary health care*. 2015;33(4):275-82.
- 431 24. Neumark T, Brudin L, Molstad S. Use of rapid diagnostic tests and choice of antibiotics in
432 respiratory tract infections in primary healthcare--a 6-y follow-up study. *Scandinavian Journal of*
433 *Infectious Diseases*. 2010;42(2):90-6.
- 434 25. Tyrstrup M, Beckman A, Molstad S, Engstrom S, Lannering C, Melander E, et al. Reduction in
435 antibiotic prescribing for respiratory tract infections in Swedish primary care- a retrospective
436 study of electronic patient records. *BMC infectious diseases*. 2016;16(1):709.
- 437 26. Haldrup S, Thomsen RW, Bro F, Skov R, Bjerrum L, Sogaard M. Microbiological point of care testing
438 before antibiotic prescribing in primary care: considerable variations between practices. *BMC*
439 *family practice*. 2017;18(1):9.
- 440 27. Howick J, Cals JW, Jones C, Price CP, Pluddemann A, Heneghan C, et al. Current and future use of
441 point-of-care tests in primary care: an international survey in Australia, Belgium, The Netherlands,
442 the UK and the USA. *BMJ Open*. 2014;4(8):e005611.
- 443 28. Hadjipanayis A, Grossman Z, Del Torso S, van Esso D, Dornbusch HJ, Mazur A, et al. Current primary
444 care management of children aged 1-36 months with urinary tract infections in Europe: large scale
445 survey of paediatric practice. *Archives of disease in childhood*. 2015;100(4):341-7.
- 446 29. Schols AM, Stevens F, Zeijen CG, Dinant GJ, van Vugt C, Cals JW. Access to diagnostic tests during
447 GP out-of-hours care: A cross-sectional study of all GP out-of-hours services in the Netherlands.
448 *The European journal of general practice*. 2016;22(3):176-81.
- 449 30. PERFORM. Personalised Risk assessment in febrile illness to optimise Real-life Management across
450 the European Union. Available from <http://www.perform2020.org>. Accessed 03/12/19.
- 451 31. del Torso S, van Esso D, Gerber A, Drabik A, Hadjipanayis A, Nicholson A, et al. European Academy
452 of Paediatrics Research in Ambulatory Setting network (EAPRASnet): a multi-national general

- 453 paediatric research network for better child health. Child: care, health and development.
454 2010;36(3):385-91.
- 455 32. ESPID. European Society for Paediatric Infectious Diseases. Available from <https://www.espid.org/>
456 . Accessed 03/12/19.
- 457 33. REPEM. Research in European Paediatric Emergency Medicine. Available from: <http://repem.net/>
458 .Accessed 03/12/19.
- 459 34. OECD. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. Health at a glance. Europe
460 2016. State of health in the EU cycle. Available from [http://www.oecd.org/health/health-at-a-](http://www.oecd.org/health/health-at-a-glance-europe-23056088.htm)
461 [glance-europe-23056088.htm](http://www.oecd.org/health/health-at-a-glance-europe-23056088.htm) . Accessed 03/12/19.
- 462 35. WHO. World Health Organization. Available from: <https://www.who.int/countries/en/> . Accessed
463 03/12/19.
- 464 36. McGillivray DL, Roberts-Brauer R, Kramer MS. Diagnostic test ordering in the evaluation of febrile
465 children. Physician and environmental factors. American journal of diseases of children (1960).
466 1993;147(8):870-4.
- 467 37. Eurostat 2019. Available from
468 https://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=hlth_rs_phys&lang=en
469 Accessed 03/12/19.
- 470 38. ECPCP. European Confederation of Primary Care Paediatricians 2018. Available from:
471 <https://www.ecpcp.eu> . Accessed 10/10/19
- 472 39. Grossman Z, Del Torso S, van Esso D, Ehrich JH, Altorjai P, Mazur A, et al. Use of electronic health
473 records by child primary healthcare providers in Europe. Child: care, health and development.
474 2016;42(6):928-33.
- 475 40. Hadjipanayis A, Grossman Z, Del Torso S, van Esso D, Dornbusch HJ, Mazur A, et al. Current primary
476 care management of children aged 1-36 months with urinary tract infections in Europe: large scale
477 survey of paediatric practice. Archives of disease in childhood. 2015;100(4):341-7.
- 478 41. Bielicki JA, Barker CIS, van der Velden AW, Sharland M, van Esso D, Hadjipanayis A, et al. Antibiotic
479 preferences for childhood pneumonia vary by physician type and European region. ERJ Open
480 Research. 2016;2(2):00001-2016.
- 481 42. European Social Survey. Weighting European Social Surveys Data. Available from:
482 https://www.europeansocialsurvey.org/docs/methodology/ESS_weighting_data_1.pdf .
483 Accessed 05/12/19.
- 484 43. Leece P, Bhandari M, Sprague S, Swiontkowski MF, Schemitsch EH, Tornetta P, et al. Internet
485 Versus Mailed Questionnaires: A Randomized Comparison (2). 2004;6(3):e30.
- 486 44. Choi BCK, Pak AWP. A catalog of biases in questionnaires. Prev Chronic Dis. 2005;2(1):A13-A.

487

488 **AUTHORS STATEMENT**

489 Juan Emmanuel Dewez (JED) and Shunmay Yeung (SY) conceived the study. JED and SY developed the
490 initial study materials. David Bath (DB), Stefano del Torso (SdT), Marieke Emonts (ME), Zachi Grossman
491 (ZG), Adamos Hadjipanayis (AH), Emma Lim (EL), Ruud G Nijman (RGN), Diego van Ezzo (DvE)
492 contributed to the refinement of the study materials and developed the data collection plan. JED, Lucy
493 Pembrey (LP), SY estimated sample sizes. JED, DB, Alec Miners (AM), RGN, LP, and SY developed the
494 data analysis plan. ME and EL conducted the first pilot. JED supervised the second pilot. JED and DvE
495 supervised data collection. SdT, ME, ZG, AH, EL, RGN, DvE, SY supported data collection. JED drafted
496 this manuscript which was reviewed and edited by all co-authors.

497 All authors have approved the submitted version and have agreed both to be personally accountable
498 for the author's own contributions and to ensure that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of
499 any part of the work, even ones in which the author was not personally involved, are appropriately
500 investigated, resolved, and the resolution documented in the literature.

501 **FUNDING**

502 JED, DB, ME, EL, AM and SY are supported by PERFORM, a consortium funded by the European
503 Union's Horizon 2020 programme, under grant agreement No. 668303. RGN was supported by NIHR
504 Academic clinical fellowship (CF- 2015-21-016) and lectureship (CL-2018-21-007) award programme.
505 The funding bodies did not take part in the design of the study and data collection, and will not take
506 part in the data analysis and interpretation of results. The funding bodies did not take part in the
507 writing of the manuscript.

508 **CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

509 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

510 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

511 We would like to thank the members of the PERFORM consortium and EAPRASnet who provided
512 feedback on the study materials and helped with the translation of materials.

513 **ADDITIONAL FILES**

514 Additional file 1:

515 List of organisations that disseminated the survey

516 Additional file 2:

517 Questionnaire

518 **DATA STATEMENT**

519 The datasets generated and/or analysed during the current study will not publicly available but will be
520 available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

521 **TABLES**

Table 1. Sample sizes to estimate the main outcomes (current availability of CRP POCT, and use of CRP POCT in a clinical scenario) with 90% confidence, a margin of error below 10%, and an expected proportion of the outcomes of 50%

Country	Total population of primary care paediatricians ^{37,38*}	Sample size of primary care paediatricians	Total population of hospital paediatricians ^{37,38*}	Sample size of hospital paediatricians
Austria	585	61	774	62
Belgium	782	65	781	65
Bulgaria	NA	NA	1,475	65
Croatia	281	55	583	61
Cyprus	180	49	68	34
Finland	73	35	623	61
France	1,453	65	6,622	67
Germany	5,991	67	7,924	67
Greece	2,128	65	2,130	65
Hungary	939	63	1,432	65
Israel	501	60	1,699	65
Italy	6,000	67	11,354	67
Latvia	10	9	238	53
Lithuania	40	25	676	61
Malta	NA	NA	81	37
Netherlands	NA	NA	1,751	65
Norway	NA	NA	875	63
Poland	5,040	67	9,905	67
Portugal	NA	NA	2,085	66
Slovenia	252	53	396	58
Spain	4,800	67	7,589	67
Switzerland	978	63	839	63
Ukraine	3,321	66	6,236	67
United Kingdom	NA	NA	10,464	67
TOTAL	17,514	1,002	76,600	1,478

NA: not applicable

*Except for Spain and Poland, where figures were not available and provided by local partners

Table 2. Expected number of participants and health expenditure per capita categories

Country	Health expenditure per capita per year category (Euros) ^{34,35}	Half of primary care paediatricians' sample size	Half of hospital paediatricians' sample size	
Bulgaria	≤2,800	NA	32	
Croatia		27	30	
Cyprus		24	17	
Greece		32	32	
Hungary		31	32	
Israel		30	32	
Latvia		4	36	
Lithuania		12	30	
Malta		NA	18	
Poland		33	33	
Slovenia		26	29	
Ukraine		33	33	
Sub total			252	322
Austria		>2,800	30	31
Belgium	32		32	
Finland	17		30	
France	32		33	
Germany	33		33	
Italy	33		33	
Netherlands	NA		32	
Norway	NA		31	
Portugal	NA		33	
Spain	33		33	
Switzerland	31		31	
United Kingdom	NA		33	
Subtotal			241	385
TOTAL			493	707

NA: not applicable

Table 3. Expected number of participants and years of clinical experience

Years of clinical experience	Half of primary care paediatricians' sample size (all countries)	Half of hospital paediatricians' sample size (all countries)
Any experience	493	707
<10 years of practice (20% of any experience)³⁷	99	141
>10 years of practice (80% of any experience)³⁷	394	566

522

523

524

Table 4. Explanatory variables for the logistic regression analyses

A priori explanatory variables of CRP POCT availability in primary care practices
1. Country reimbursement mechanisms for diagnostics
2. Country level of health expenditure per capita
3. Main type of healthcare worker in charge of providing primary care to children (e.g. Paediatrician or general practitioner)
4. Sector of activity (public or private)
5. Distance between workplace and the nearest external laboratory
6. Type of practice (solo or group practice)
7. Main type of healthcare worker in charge of taking bloods in children (e.g. doctor or nurse)
8. Turnaround time to get results of blood tests such as C-reactive protein or full blood count
A priori explanatory variables of CRP POCT availability in hospitals
1. Country reimbursement mechanisms for diagnostics
2. Country level of health expenditure per capita
3. Type of hospital (e.g. paediatric or general hospital)
4. Level of care (secondary or tertiary level of care)
5. Sector of activity (public or private)
6. Main type of healthcare worker in charge of taking bloods in children (e.g. phlebotomist, lab technician, doctor or nurse)
7. Turnaround time to get results of blood tests such as C-reactive protein or full blood count
A priori explanatory variables for determinants of CRP POCT use by primary care paediatricians
1. Years of practice since graduation from medical school
2. Sector of activity (public or private)
3. Distance between workplace and the nearest external laboratory
4. Type of practice (solo or group practice)
5. Main type of healthcare worker in charge of taking bloods in children (e.g. doctor or nurse)
6. Turnaround time to get results of blood tests such as C-reactive protein or full blood count
7. Duration of consultations in busiest weeks of the year
8. Current availability of CRP POCT
9. Participant's perceived prevalence of bacterial infection in the clinical scenario
A priori explanatory variables for determinants of CRP POCT use by hospital paediatricians
1. Subspecialisation or special interest of doctors
2. Type of hospital (e.g. paediatric or general hospital)
3. Level of care (secondary or tertiary level of care)
4. Hospital department where participant mainly work
5. Years of practice since graduation from medical school
6. Sector of activity (public or private)
7. Main type of healthcare worker in charge of taking bloods in children (e.g. phlebotomist, lab technician, doctor or nurse)
8. Turnaround time to get results of blood tests such as C-reactive protein or full blood count
9. Duration of consultations in busiest weeks of the year

10. Participant's perceived prevalence of bacterial infection in the clinical scenario

526