

# Prescription patterns of antibiotics and associated factors among outpatients diagnosed with respiratory tract infections in Jinja City, Uganda, June 2022–May 2023

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## Research Article

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1 **Prescription patterns of antibiotics and associated factors among**  
2 **outpatients diagnosed with respiratory tract infections in Jinja City,**  
3 **Uganda, June 2022-May 2023**

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15

16 **ABSTRACT**

17 **Background:** Most respiratory tract infections (RTIs) are viral and do not require  
18 antibiotics, yet their inappropriate prescription is common in low-income settings  
19 due to factors like inadequate diagnostic facilities. This misuse contributes to  
20 antibiotic resistance. We determined antibiotic prescription patterns and  
21 associated factors among outpatients with RTIs in Jinja City, Uganda.

22 **Methods:** We conducted a cross-sectional study at 11 public health facilities in  
23 Jinja City, Eastern Uganda, from June 1, 2022, to May 31, 2023. We abstracted all  
24 patient records with a diagnosis of RTIs from the outpatient registers for the period

25 of June 1, 2022, to May 31, 2023. An interviewer-administered questionnaire  
26 capturing data on prescribing practices and factors influencing antibiotic  
27 prescription was administered to drug prescribers in the health facilities. We used  
28 modified Poisson regression analysis to identify factors associated with antibiotic  
29 prescription.

30 **Results:** Out of 1,669 patient records reviewed, the overall antibiotic prescription  
31 rate for respiratory tract infections (RTIs) was 79.8%. For specific RTIs, rates were  
32 71.4% for acute bronchitis, 93.3% for acute otitis media, and 74.4% for acute  
33 upper respiratory tract infections (URTIs). Factors significantly associated with  
34 antibiotic prescription included access to Uganda Clinical Guidelines [Adjusted  
35 prevalence ratio (aPR)=0.61, 95% CI=0.01-0.91] and Integrated Management of  
36 Childhood Illness guidelines [aPR=0.14, 95% CI=0.12-0.87, P=0.002], which  
37 reduced the likelihood of prescription. Prescribers without antibiotic training were  
38 more likely to prescribe antibiotics [aPR=3.55, 95% CI=1.92-3.98]. Patients with  
39 common cold [aPR=0.06, 95% CI=0.04-0.20] and cough [aPR=0.11, 95%  
40 CI=0.09-0.91] were less likely to receive antibiotics compared to those with  
41 pneumonia.

42 **Conclusion:** The study reveals a high rate of inappropriate antibiotic prescription  
43 for RTIs, highlighting significant challenges in adherence to treatment guidelines.  
44 This practice not only wastes national resources but also could contribute to the  
45 growing threat of antibiotic resistance. Targeted interventions, such as enforcing  
46 adherence to prescription guidelines, could improve prescription practices and  
47 reduce antibiotic misuse in this low-income setting.

48 **Keywords:** Respiratory tract infections, Antibiotic prescriptions, Drug resistance,  
49 Prescription drug misuse, Uganda

## 50 **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

51 Approximately 30-50% of the global antibiotics consumed are prescribed  
52 inappropriately[1-4]. The antibiotics prescribed for respiratory tract infections  
53 unnecessarily constitute 40-80% in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs),[5-  
54 7]. Studies in Uganda have also revealed a high prevalence of prescription of  
55 antibiotics for RTIs (40-80%) which indicates a high level of inappropriate  
56 prescription of antibiotics[8, 9].

57 According to Uganda clinical guidelines 2016, the causes of respiratory tract  
58 diseases are mostly viral and do not require antibiotics[10]. Inappropriate  
59 prescription of antibiotics is the main driver of antimicrobial resistance (AMR),[11].  
60 Antimicrobial resistance threatens infection control leading to longer hospital  
61 stays, need for more expensive medicines, death, financial challenges to those  
62 impacted and undermines the achievements in various areas of modern  
63 medicine[12, 13]. Bacterial AMR was responsible for 1.27 million death in 2019  
64 and this was predicted to rise to 10 million per year by 2050 [13].

65 Globally upper respiratory tract infections (URTIs) constituted 42.8% of all causes  
66 of global burden of disease in 2019 [14]. In Uganda RTIs accounted for 29.8% of  
67 Out-patient department attendance during the financial year 2019/2020 and were  
68 the second highest after malaria [15]. That makes RTIs important infections in the  
69 context of public health.

70 Both the World Health organization (WHO) and Uganda Ministry of Health (MoH)  
71 recognize the high burden of inappropriate use of antibiotics and its significant  
72 contribution to AMR. Surveillance of antibiotic use and research on patterns of  
73 antibiotic use forms part of the strategic objectives for the WHO's Global Action  
74 Plan on AMR and the Uganda's AMR National Action Plan 2018-2023[16, 17]. The  
75 high prevalence of antimicrobial resistance at Jinja Regional Referral Hospital,  
76 Uganda, as reported in a recent study[18], suggests the potential for inappropriate

77 antibiotic use in Jinja City. However, the specific patterns of antibiotic prescription  
78 and associated factors among patients with respiratory tract infections (RTIs) in  
79 Jinja City have not been studied. Given that RTIs are prevalent and account for a  
80 significant proportion of antibiotic consumption [14, 15, 19], this study aimed to  
81 determine the prescription patterns of antibiotics and associated factors among  
82 patients with RTIs in Jinja City, in order to inform strategies for the Ministry of  
83 Health and local leaders to promote appropriate antibiotic use.

## 84 **Methods**

### 85 **Study design, setting and study population**

86 This was a quantitative study in which patient data was collected retrospectively  
87 while prescribers were interviewed by a questionnaire in 11 public health facilities  
88 of purposively selected service levels. The facilities included Jinja Regional Referral  
89 hospital 01, Health centers IVs (n=4), and Health centers IIIs (n=06) in Jinja City,  
90 Uganda. Data were collected from June 1, 2022 to May 31, 2023. The public health  
91 system in Jinja City consists of 26 public health facilities, including Jinja Regional  
92 Referral Hospital, 13 Health Center IIs, 8 Health Center IIIs, and 4 Health Center  
93 IVs. The Uganda's health care system consists of a hierarchy health facility service  
94 levels starting with village health team (VHTs) at community village level as the  
95 lowest to the health center II at parish level, health center III at sub county level,  
96 health center IV at County level and general hospital at district level, Regional  
97 Referral Hospital (RRH) at regional level and National Referral Hospital (NRH) at  
98 national level as the highest. The volume, complexity of services and specialties  
99 increases across the hierarchy such that the lowest level refer patients to the next  
100 highest level. Uganda Clinical guidelines (UCG) and Integrated Management for  
101 Childhood Illnesses (IMCI) are the standard treatment guidelines used in Uganda.

102 **Inclusion and exclusion criteria**

103 We included outpatient records of individuals diagnosed with RTIs from public  
104 health facilities in Jinja City between June 1, 2022, and May 31, 2023. Exclusion  
105 criteria comprised records with missing entries for age, sex, and diagnosis.  
106 Additionally, we excluded records from Health Center IIs and those of RTI patients  
107 with other infectious comorbidities.

108 **Sample size and sampling procedure**

109 In order to determine the prevalence of antibiotic prescription, the  
110 appropriateness for prescription of antibiotic, and patient factors associated with  
111 antibiotic prescription, we targeted to retrospectively abstract 1790 patient  
112 records from the outpatient register. The reason was to have a sample size which  
113 was above 600 and that would allow having more than 100 records from each of  
114 the 11 public health facilities as recommended by WHO/INRDU for studies  
115 assessing the quality of prescribing, [20].

116 To cater for patient load at different levels of the facilities so as to avoid  
117 oversampling and under sampling at individual facilities, we calculated the sample  
118 size for each facility based on the average rate of out-patients with RTIs at the  
119 facility during the study period.

120 
$$\text{Facility sample size} = \frac{\text{total number of RTI out patients for the facility}}{\text{total number of RTI outpatients for all facilities in the study.}}$$
  
121 
$$\times \text{study sample size}$$

122 The total number of patients diagnosed with RTIs was obtained from the Health  
123 unit out-patient monthly HMIS 105 report. This report summarizes the total  
124 number of cases for each disease condition diagnosed at the health facility within  
125 a month. In order to establish health system factors that were associated with

126 antibiotic prescription we targeted to interview all prescribers available in the 11  
127 public health facilities.

128 We purposively selected public health facilities: one being Jinja Regional Referral  
129 Hospital premised on having the highest population of prescribers. The same  
130 method was used to select four health center IVs being the only ones in the Jinja  
131 City. Six out of eight health center IIIs in Jinja City were selected by simple random  
132 sampling. The prescribers were purposively sampled, on the premise of being  
133 persons who had prescribed antibiotics for more than 30 days during the study  
134 period.

135

136 At each health facility, patient records were selected from outpatient registers  
137 using systematic random sampling. The sampling interval (K) was calculated using  
138 the formula  $K = N/n$ , where K is the sampling interval, N is the total number of  
139 patient records available at a given health facility, and n is the facility sample size.

## 140 **Study variables**

141 The dependent variable in this study was the rate of antibiotic prescription for  
142 respiratory tract infections (RTIs). Additionally, we assessed the antibiotics  
143 prescribed based on the AWaRe grouping, which categorizes antibiotics into  
144 Access, Watch, and Reserve groups.

145 The independent variables in this study included patient-related factors, such as  
146 age and sex, as well as RTI-specific factors, such as the type of RTI, including acute  
147 bronchitis, acute otitis media, and acute upper respiratory tract infections (URTIs).  
148 The study also considered healthcare facility-related factors, such as the service  
149 level of the health facility and the availability of clinical guidelines. Furthermore,  
150 prescribers' training on antibiotic use was examined as a potential factor  
151 influencing antibiotic prescription practices.

## 152 **Data management and analysis**

153 The patient records and interview responses were collected into predesigned  
154 templates in Kobo collect software, downloaded as excel sheets. The responses  
155 in the excel sheet from the interview of prescribers were applied to patient's  
156 records excel sheet. This was done in such way that if more than 75% of the  
157 prescribers accepted that a certain health system factor applied to their facility,  
158 then it was applied on all its patients. For-example if 75% of the prescribers  
159 accepted that there was no access to UCG then every patient at that facility was  
160 assumed to be diagnosed when there was no access to UCG by the prescriber.  
161 The resultant excel sheet was exported into Stata software version 14.0  
162 (StataCorp, College Station, Texas, USA) for analysis.

163 To assess the appropriateness of antibiotic prescription for RTIs, we compared the  
164 prevalence of antibiotic prescription for individual and generalized RTIs against



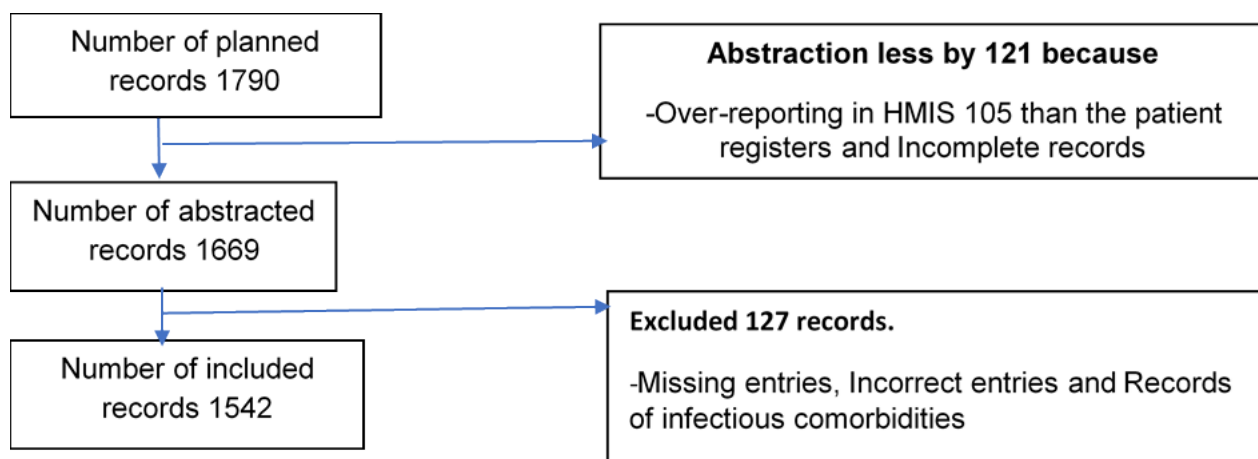
165 optimal values recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO) and  
166 Europe. For example, the optimal values for antibiotic prescription include less  
167 than 20% for acute tonsillitis, <20% for acute otitis media, less than 20% for acute  
168 upper respiratory tract infections (URTIs), <30% for acute bronchitis, and 90-100%  
169 for pneumonia [21]. Rates above the optimal values were to indicate inappropriate  
170 prescribing of antibiotics for RTIs. We calculated the index for percentage  
171 encounter with antibiotics by a method described by [22]. Index of antibiotic  
172 prescription = WHO/INRUD Optimal value of antibiotic prescription/Observed  
173 value.

174 The rate of appropriate prescribing = (observed indices/optimal indices) X 100 [22]  
175 the optimal indices for all WHO/INRUD prescribing indicators is 1. The rate of  
176 inappropriate prescription = 100- rate of appropriate prescribing.

177 The patient and institutional factors that can be used to predict antibiotic  
178 prescription were determined by modified Poisson regression analysis. A bivariate  
179 analysis was performed and the results for association between each individual  
180 variable with antibiotic prescribing were summarized into frequencies and crude  
181 prevalence ratio at a confidence interval of 95% and P-value. A multivariate  
182 analysis was then performed by including all the factors with p-value < 0.05,  
183 however all the sub-variables under type RTI diagnosis were included irrespective  
184 of their P-value at bivariate analysis. Any variables with a p value that is less than  
185 0.05 after adjustment was considered to be associated with antibiotic prescription  
186 among RTI out-patients in public health facilities in Jinja City.

## 187 **RESULTS**

188 There were 1669 patient records with a diagnosis of RTI reviewed from outpatient  
189 registers. We remained with 1542 after data cleaning (Fig 1)



190

191 **Fig.1. Flow chart showing included and excluded outpatient records, Jinja**  
 192 **City, Uganda, June 1, 2022 to May 31, 2023.**

193 Of the 1542 outpatients, 55.0% were female. The highest number of patients  
 194 (44.9%) were from health center IVs and 11.4% were from the Jinja Regional  
 195 Referral Hospital. No rapid point diagnostic test was used at all the facilities  
 196 (Table1).

197 **Table 1:** Socio-demographic characteristics of outpatients with respiratory tract  
 198 infections, Jinja City, Uganda, June 1, 2022 to May 31, 2023

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Frequencies (N= 1,542)</b>	<b>Percentages (%)</b>
<b>Health facility</b>		
HCIIIs	674	43.7
HCIVs	692	44.9
Referral Hospital	176	11.4
<b>Sex</b>		
Male	694	45.0
Female	848	55.0
<b>Age (years)</b>		
0-2	264	17.1

3-18	579	37.5
19-64	671	43.5
Over 65 (65+)	30	1.9

199

200 We interviewed 30 prescribers of whom 60.0% were male, 60.0% were clinicians  
 201 (clinical officers or medical officers), the rest being nurses. Only 10.0% of the  
 202 prescribers had a certificate in nursing (Table 2).

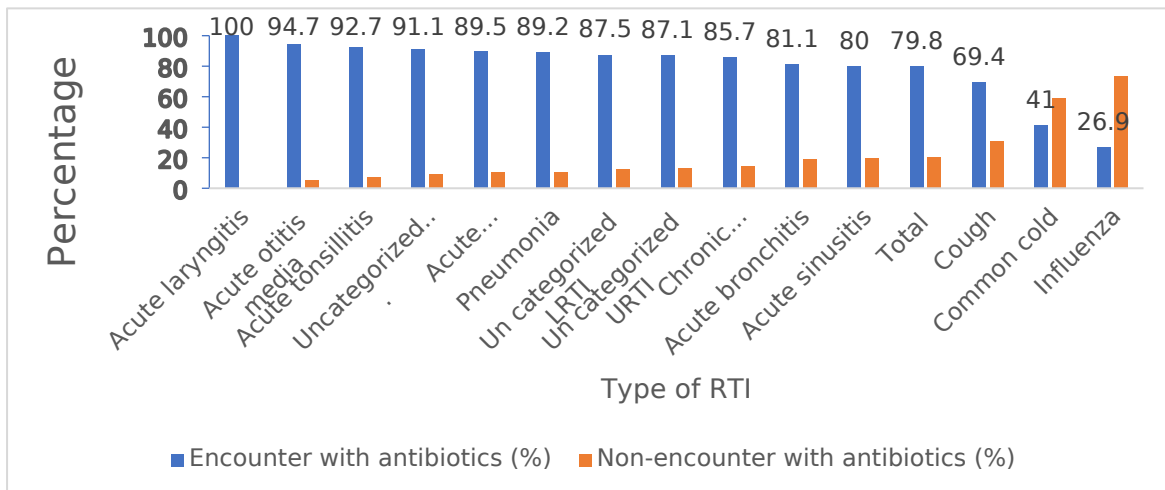
203 **Table 2.** Social-demographic characteristics of prescribers interviewed using a  
 204 questionnaire, n=30

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Frequencies (n=30)</b>	<b>Percentages (%)</b>
<b>Facility Service level</b>		
HCIII	13	43.33
HCIV	11	33.67
Referral Hospital	6	20.00
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	18	60
Female	12	40
<b>Professional Category</b>		
Medical Doctor	1	3.3
Clinical Officer (CO)	17	56.7
Nursing Officer (NO)	2	6.7
Assistant nursing officer (ANO)	7	23.3
Certificate nurse	3	10.0

205

206 **Prevalence of antibiotic prescription**

207 Out of 1,542 patients with respiratory tract infections (RTIs), 79.8% (1230)  
 208 received antibiotics. Among specific RTIs, the highest rates of antibiotic  
 209 prescription were observed for acute laryngitis (100%), acute otitis media (94.7%),  
 210 acute tonsillitis (92.7%), and uncategorized acute respiratory tract infections  
 211 (ARTIs) (91.1%) (Fig. 2).



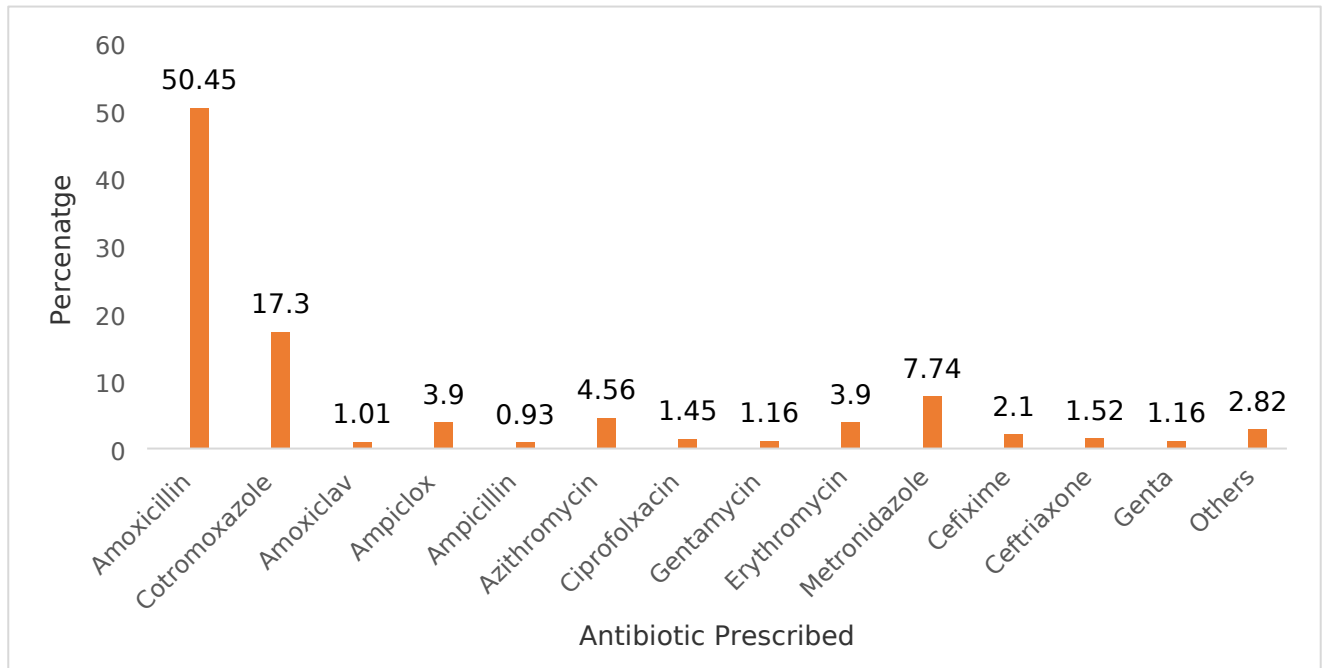
212

213 **Figure.2:** Prevalence of antibiotic prescription by specific RTIs, among outpatients  
 214 in Jinja City, Uganda, June 1, 2022 to May 31, 2023.

215 **Category of antibiotics prescribed for patients with RTIs**

216 A total of 1387 antibiotic prescriptions were recorded, with the majority (86.6%;  
 217 n=1,197) falling into the access group. Among the access group, amoxicillin  
 218 accounted for approximately half (50.45%) of all antibiotic prescriptions and was  
 219 the most commonly prescribed, followed by cotrimoxazole at 17.3%. The Watch  
 220 category comprised 186 (13.4%) of the prescriptions, with azithromycin at 4.56%,  
 221 erythromycin at 3.9%, ciprofloxacin at 1.45%, and cefixime at 2.1% being the most  
 222 prescribed antibiotics within this category. Notably, no antibiotics were prescribed  
 223 from the Reserve group (Fig.3).

224  
225



226

227 **Figure 3.** Antibiotics frequently prescribed to outpatients with respiratory tract  
228 infections, Jinja City, Uganda, June 1, 2022 to May 31, 2023; RTI; Genta:  
229 gentamycin

230 **Appropriateness of antibiotic prescription**

231 Based on the World Health Organization's (WHO) general optimal rate of antibiotic  
232 prescription for general infectious morbidities (<30%, Table 3), the 79.8%  
233 encounter with antibiotics in our study indicated inappropriate antibiotic use.  
234 Additionally, using an index score of 0.38 (Table 3), the level of inappropriate  
235 antibiotic prescription was calculated to be 62.0%.

236 **Table 3:** WHO/INRUD prescribing indicators and their index scores

Prescribing indicators	Observed value	WHO Standard	Index score	Optimal index score
Average drugs per encounter	2.8	≤3	1	1

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%encounter with antibiotics	79.8%	<30%	0.38	1
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237

238 Furthermore, when comparing the prescription rates of antibiotics for individual  
239 respiratory tract infections (RTIs) in selected age groups with European standard  
240 optimal rates of 20% for RTIs (Table 4), the following inappropriate prescribing  
241 rates were observed: Acute tonsillitis 99.3%, Acute otitis media 93.3%, Acute  
242 upper respiratory tract infections (URTIs) 74.36%. Considering the European  
243 standard optimal rates for RTIs patients eligible for antibiotics excluding  
244 pneumonia (90-100%) and bronchitis (30%, Table 4), the rate of inappropriate  
245 prescribing was calculated to be 74.9%.

246

247 **Table 4:** Extent of appropriate prescribing based on disease specific prescribing  
 248 quality indicators in Europe

Morbidity	Age group (years)	Antibiotics Prescribed		Acceptable range (%)	Appropriateness
		No n (%)	Yes n (%)		
Acute bronchitis	18-75	4 (28.7)	10 (71.4)	0-30	Inappropriate
Acute tonsillitis	>1	3 (7.5)	37 (99.3)	0-20	Inappropriate
Acute Otitis media	>2	1 (6.67)	14(93.3)	0-20	Inappropriate
Acute URTI	>1	189 (25.6)	548(74.36)	0-20	Inappropriate
Generalized RTI	NA	312 (20.2)	1231(79.8)	0-30	Inappropriate
Pneumonia	18-65	0 (00)	7(100)	90-100	Appropriate

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249

250 **Factors associated with antibiotic prescription**

251 At multivariable analysis, several factors were significantly associated with  
252 antibiotic prescription. Prescribers who had access to Uganda Clinical Guidelines  
253 [Adjusted Prevalence Ratio (aPR)=0.61, 95% CI=0.01-0.91, P<0.001] and  
254 Integrated Management of Childhood Illness [aPR=0.14, 95% CI=0.12-0.87,  
255 P=0.002] were less likely to prescribe antibiotics than those without access to a  
256 standard treatment guideline. Prescribers who had not received training on  
257 antibiotic use [aPR=3.55, 95% CI=1.92-3.98, p=0.01] were 3.55 times more likely  
258 to prescribe antibiotics than those who had received training. Additionally,  
259 patients with common cold [aPR=0.06, 95% CI=0.04-0.20, p=0.001] and cough  
260 [aPR=0.11, 95% CI=0.09-0.91, p=0.015] were less likely to be prescribed  
261 antibiotics compared to those with pneumonia (Table 5).



262 **Table 5:** Regression analysis of patient and health system factors associated with  
 263 antibiotic prescription, Jinja City, Uganda, June 1, 2022 to May 31, 2023

Variable	Antibiotic prescribed		cPR (95% CI)	P-value	aPR (95% CI)	aP-value
	Yes	No				
	1231(79.8)	312(20.2)				
<b>Age (years)</b>						
0-2	201(76.4)	62(23.6)				
3-18	468(80.8)	111(19.2)	1.41(0.11-5.85)	0.11		
19-64	538(80.2)	133(19.8)	1.34(0.12-1.94)	0.41		
65+	24(80.0)	6(20.0)	2.13(0.14-15.12)	0.76		
<b>Sex</b>						
Female	667(78.5)	183(21.5)				
Male	564(81.4)	129(18.6)	1.47(0.13-3.89)	0.27		
<b>Supervision of prescribing</b>						
No	815(78.8)	220(21.2)				

Yes	416(81.8)	92(18.2)	1.02(0.01-3.67)	0.45		
<b>Accessible</b>						
<b>Ref guide**</b>						
None	294(85.7)	49(14.3)				
IMCI	88(77.2)	26(22.8)	1.02(0.01-8.62)	0.71	<b>0.14(0.12-0.87)</b>	<b>0.02*</b>
UCG	849(78.2)	237(21.8)	<b>0.11(0.02-0.98)</b>	<b>0.01*</b>	<b>0.61(0.01-0.91)</b>	<b>0.01*</b>
<b>Training on antibiotic use**</b>						
Yes	130(73.9)	46(26.1)				
No	1101(80.5)	266(19.5)	<b>1.87(1.02-1.99)</b>	<b>0.03*</b>	<b>3.55(1.92-3.98)</b>	<b>0.01*</b>
<b>Health facility Level**</b>						
HCIII	569(84.4)	105(15.6)				
HCIV	532(76.8)	161(23.2)	<b>0.91(0.11-0.99)</b>	<b>0.01*</b>	0.71(0.19-3.16)	0.75
RRH	130(73.9)	46(26.1)	<b>0.43(0.15-0.91)</b>	<b>&lt;0.01*</b>	0.32(0.11-1.73)	0.33
<b>Re-attendance</b>						
No	1214(80.0)	303(20.0)				

Yes	15(65.2)	8(34.8)	0.21(0.76- 1.29)	0.07		
<b>RTI diagnosed</b>						
<b>**</b>						
Pneumonia	58(89.2)	7(10.8)				
Un-categorized ARTI	503(91.1)	49(8.9)	0.25(0.01- 1.27)	0.12	0.25(0.01-1.27)	0.12
Acute pharyngitis	51(89.5)	6(10.5)	0.31(0.26- 2.19)	0.10	0.31(0.26-2.19)	0.10
common cold	103(41.0)	148(58.9)	0.11(0.01- 0.29)	<b>0.03*</b>	0.11(0.01-0.29)	<b>0.03*</b>
acute tonsillitis	38(92.7)	3(7.3)	0.41(0.12- 3.13)	0.15	0.41(0.12-3.13)	0.15
Un-categorized URTI	351(87.1)	52(12.9)	0.18(0.11- 4.87)	0.45	0.18(0.11-4.87)	0.45
Acute bronchitis	30(81.1)	7(18.9)	0.33(0.27- 7.19)	0.76	0.33(0.27-7.19)	0.76
Acute laryngitis	6(66.5)	2(33.5)	0.67(0.19- 2.21)	0.18	0.67(0.19-2.21)	0.18
Acute sinusitis	4(80.0)	1(20.0)	0.12(0.11- 4.15)	0.91	0.12(0.11-4.15)	0.91
Chronic RTI	6(85.7)	1(14.3)	0.13(0.11- 1.25)	0.06	0.13(0.11-1.25)	0.06
Cough	34(69.4)	15(30.6)	0.13(0.11- 1.19)	0.06	0.13(0.11-1.19)	0.06
Influenza	7(26.9)	19(73.1)	<b>0.03(0.01- 0.39)</b>	<b>0.01*</b>	<b>0.03(0.01- 0.39)</b>	<b>0.01*</b>

Un-categorized	21(87.5)	3(12.5)	0.45(0.01-1.14)	0.45	0.45(0.01-1.14)	0.45
LRTI			1.14)			
Acute otitis media	18(94.7)	1(5.3)	6.17(0.08-12.12)	0.68	0.81(1.05-0.95)	<b>0.01*</b>

264 **\*statistically significant, P<0.05, cPR crude prevalence ratio, aPR adjusted**  
265 **prevalence ratio**

266 **\*\*variables exported to multivariate analysis model if P value was below 0.05**

## 267 **Discussion**

268 The study assessed antibiotic prescription patterns and associated factors among  
269 outpatients diagnosed with RTIs in Jinja City, Uganda. The overall rate of antibiotic  
270 prescription for RTIs was 79.8%, with specific rates for acute bronchitis at 71.4%,  
271 acute otitis media at 93.3%, and acute upper respiratory tract infections (URTIs)  
272 at 74.4%. The study also revealed a 62.0% rate of inappropriate antibiotic  
273 prescription. Factors significantly associated with antibiotic prescription included  
274 access to reference guidelines, prescriber training on antibiotic use, and the type  
275 of RTI.

276 This study found that a significant majority (79.8%) of outpatients seeking  
277 treatment for respiratory tract infections (RTIs) were prescribed antibiotics,  
278 indicating a high rate of antibiotic prescription for RTIs. This highlights the common  
279 practice of antibiotic use in managing RTIs. These findings are consistent with  
280 those from public health facilities in Mbarara City, Uganda, which reported an  
281 antibiotic encounter rate among RTI patients of 77.6% [8].

282 According to World Health Organization, most respiratory tract infections are viral  
283 and therefore minimal use of antibiotics is recommended [23]. WHO recommends  
284 maximum antibiotic prescription for RTIs at 20.0% to 26.8% [24]. In this we found  
285 that even RTIs which are largely considered to have a viral cause had very high

286 antibiotic prescription rates. These include acute otitis media 94.7%, Acute  
287 tonsillitis 92.7%, common cold 41.0%, uncategorised URTIs 87.1%, re-categorized  
288 and un-categorized URTIs 72.8%. The findings are similar to those of various  
289 studies in China where an average 83.7% with URTIs received antibiotics [25].  
290 Appropriate use of antibiotics for management of infections is one of the leading  
291 causes of antimicrobial resistance [26]. While most respiratory tract infections  
292 (RTIs) are viral, they can sometimes be associated with bacterial infections[10,  
293 27]. The high use of antibiotics for managing RTIs may be attributed to clinical  
294 diagnosis, which often leaves prescribers uncertain about whether the RTI is solely  
295 viral or also involves bacterial infection. To mitigate the risks of antibiotic  
296 resistance, it is crucial to enhance diagnostic methods. Implementing rapid point  
297 of care diagnostic tests for RTIs could help differentiate between viral and bacterial  
298 infections, enabling more targeted and appropriate use of antibiotics.

299 This study assessed the appropriateness of antibiotic prescriptions based on the  
300 rates for different RTI categories. The rates were as follows: acute bronchitis  
301 (71.4%), acute tonsillitis (99.3%), acute otitis media (93.33%), and acute upper  
302 respiratory tract infection (URTI) (74.36%). These rates exceeded the acceptable  
303 ranges of 0-30% for acute bronchitis and 0-20% for the other RTIs [21]. The rate  
304 of antibiotic prescription for acute URTIs was slightly higher than that reported in  
305 Mbarara City, Uganda at 68.7% [8], indicating an over-prescription of antibiotics  
306 for viral RTIs where they are not required. Comparison with international rates  
307 showed that Canada had lower rates for acute bronchitis (52.6%), acute sinusitis  
308 (48.4%), and otitis media (39.3%) [28]. In the United States, Fleming also reported  
309 a low rates noting that it was 84.7% for sinusitis and 21.2% for viral URTIs [29].  
310 The lower rates in Canada and the USA are attributed to interventions such as  
311 evidence-based antibiotic stewardship and patient and clinician education, which  
312 aim to reduce antibiotic prescriptions. Overuse of a antibiotics for viral infections

313 significantly contributes to antibiotic resistance [30]. Strengthening antibiotic  
314 stewardship programs targeting both healthcare providers and the public, could  
315 reduce antibiotic overuse in this setting and preserve the effectiveness of  
316 antibiotics for future generations.

317

318 In this study, prescribers without access to standard treatment guidelines were  
319 more likely to prescribe antibiotics for RTIs compared to those with access to UCG  
320 and IMCI. This highlights the importance of clinical guidelines in guiding  
321 prescription decisions. In settings where diagnosis is primarily symptom-based  
322 and guidelines are lacking, prescribers may error on the side of caution, leading  
323 to overprescription of antibiotics to avoid potential consequences of withholding  
324 or delaying treatment. This finding is consistent with literature emphasizing the  
325 role of clinical guidelines in promoting appropriate antibiotic use [30, 31]. However  
326 a study by Durkin in U.S.A showed that inappropriateness of antibiotic prescribing  
327 remained high despite national efforts to avail best practice guidelines to reduce  
328 antibiotic prescribing [32]. This suggests that guidelines alone may not be  
329 sufficient, and additional interventions such as regular trainings, support  
330 supervision, and stricter monitoring may be necessary to reduce inappropriate  
331 prescribing. Prescribers who are trained in antibiotic use are likely to have a better  
332 understanding of the risks and benefits associated with antibiotic prescriptions  
333 [33]. This finding is consistent with a study by [34], where prescribers believed  
334 that the quality of their prescriptions was influenced by the availability of regular  
335 educational activities, as well as stricter rules and monitoring of antibiotic  
336 prescribing. This finding underscores the importance of education and training in  
337 promoting judicious antibiotic use, aligning with the principles of antibiotic  
338 stewardship.

339 Patients with common cold and cough were less likely to receive antibiotics  
340 compared to those with pneumonia, indicating a higher likelihood of correct  
341 classification of viral infections (e.g., common cold and cough) versus bacterial  
342 infections (e.g., pneumonia). This observation suggests that the high rate of  
343 inappropriate antibiotic use in Jinja City was mainly due to other types of RTIs,  
344 excluding common cold and cough. In Canada common cold along with acute  
345 bronchitis, acute sinusitis and miscellaneous non-bacterial infections contributed  
346 to the highest percentage (80%) of unnecessary prescription of antibiotics for RTIs  
347 [28]. However, the actual rate (18%) was lower than the rate at which common  
348 cold patients were prescribed with antibiotics in Jinja City (41%). The difference  
349 can be explained the fact that Canada has more elaborate guideline for RTIs which  
350 reduce the chance for prescribing antibiotics for all RTIs.

#### 351 **Strengths and limitations of the study**

352 The study has some limitations; there was no opportunity to meet and re-assess  
353 the clinical condition of the patients to evaluate the prescriber's basis for  
354 withholding/delaying or prescribing antibiotics, as the study was retrospective and  
355 such information could not be obtained from the patient registers. Prospective  
356 studies that could yield such information were avoided due to the associated  
357 Hawthorne effect [35].

358 Additionally, it was not possible to link prescription records to individual  
359 prescribers since this was not provided for in the patient registers, hence the  
360 individual prescriber-related factors associated with the high rate of antibiotic  
361 prescription could not be quantitatively determined. Although the prescribers  
362 interviewed were generally linked to the records by having prescribed during the  
363 study period[31]. Most RTI diagnoses were uncategorized and instead generalized  
364 into acute RTIs, acute upper respiratory tract infections (URTI), and acute lower

365 respiratory tract infections (LRTI). Therefore, assessing the appropriateness of  
366 antibiotic prescription was based on a small proportion of patients with specific  
367 RTI diagnoses [25]. There was an explainable less significantly associated of otitis  
368 media with antibiotic prescription than pneumonia [APR=0.81, 95% CI=1.05-0.95,  
369 p=0.01], when Otitis media 94.7% received antibiotics, likely due to residual  
370 confounding effect from such unassessed factors.

371 The strengths of the study include a large sample size of 1542 patient records,  
372 well distributed over 11 facilities, exceeding the WHO recommended minimum of  
373 600 records. Additionally, the sample was spread over all months of the year to  
374 account for seasonal variation in RTI prevalence.

## 375 **CONCLUSIONS**

376 The study reveals a high rate of inappropriate antibiotic prescription for RTIs in  
377 Jinja City, Uganda, highlighting significant challenges in adherence to treatment  
378 guidelines. This not only undermines efforts to promote rational antibiotic use, a  
379 key strategy in combating antibiotic resistance, but also results in the wastage of  
380 resources allocated for RTI treatment. The high prescription rates were notably  
381 associated with facilities lacking access to standard treatment guidelines and  
382 lacking training programs on antibiotic use. Implementing targeted interventions,  
383 such as ensuring adherence to prescription guidelines, could enhance prescription  
384 practices and mitigate antibiotic misuse in this setting and similar low-income  
385 settings.

386

## 387 **List of abbreviations**

388 **ARTI** Acute respiratory tract infections

389 **AMR** Antimicrobial resistance



390 **INRUD** International Network of Rational Use of Drugs

391 **IMCI** Integrated Management of Childhood Illness

392 **LRTI** Lower Respiratory Tract Infection

393 **RTI** Respiratory Tract Infections

394 **UCG** Uganda Clinical Guidelines

395 **URTI** Upper Respiratory Tract Infection

396 **WHO** World Health Organization.

397 **Declarations:** Not applicable

398 **Ethical approval and consent to participate**

399 Approval to conduct this study was sought and approved by Mbarara University of  
400 Science and Technology Research and Ethics Committee (MUST-REC): reference  
401 number MUST- 2023-814. The study was also approved by National Council of  
402 Science and Technology under registration number. HS3499ES. Permission to  
403 conduct the study in public facilities Jinja City was thought from the City health  
404 officer of Jinja City and the Director of Jinja Regional Referral Hospital. We obtained  
405 informed consent from each prescriber who participated in the study. Patient  
406 name and other identifiers were concealed throughout the study.

407 **Consent for publication**

408 Not applicable

409 **Competing interests**

410 The authors declare no competing interest.

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## 416 **Author Contributions**

417 ZKI conceptualized and designed the study, collected the data and drafted the  
418 manuscript.

419 HM designed the software for data collection and did statistical analysis of the  
420 data.

421 ZKI, RM and JK contributed to the, analysis, interpretation of data and discussion  
422 of the results. ZIG drafted the manuscript while RM and JK critically reviewed and  
423 revised it.

424 All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

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## 428 **Availability of data and materials**

429 All the data supporting the conclusions of this study are available from the  
430 corresponding author upon reasonable request. Raw data will be available to  
431 interested parties upon request and approval by Mbarara University of Science  
432 and Technology Research and Ethics Committee (MUST-REC) and the National  
433 Council for Higher Education of Uganda.

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