

1 **Guidelines vs Mindlines: A qualitative investigation of how clinicians' beliefs influence**
2 **the application of rapid molecular diagnostics in intensive care**

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4 **Authors and affiliations:**

5 Sarah-Jane F. Stewart (SJS)^{*1}, Alyssa M. Pandolfo (AMP)^{*1**}, Yogini Jani (YJ)^{1,2}, Zoe
6 Moon¹, David Brealey (DB)³, Virve I. Enne (VIE)⁴, David M. Livermore (DML)⁵, Vanya
7 Gant (VG)⁶, Stephen J. Brett (SJB)⁷, Rob Horne (RH)^{1#}, and the INHALE WP4 Study
8 Group⁺

9 ¹ School of Pharmacy, University College London, London, UK

10 ² UCLH-UCL Centre for Medicines Optimisation Research and Education, University
11 College London Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust, London, UK

12 ³ Division of Critical Care, University College London Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust,
13 London, UK

14 ⁴ Division of Infection and Immunity, University College London Faculty of Medical
15 Sciences, London, UK

16 ⁵ Norwich Medical School, University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK

17 ⁶ Department of Medical Microbiology, University College London Hospitals NHS
18 Foundation Trust, London, UK

19 ⁷ Department of Surgery and Cancer, Imperial College London, London, UK

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21 *Joint first authors. SJS led on the manuscript writing of the manuscript and so is presented
22 first, AMP led on data collection and analysis.

23 #Corresponding author – correspondence to r.horne@ucl.ac.uk

24 **Now based at London School of Economics: a.pandolfo@lse.ac.uk

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ABSTRACT

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Rapid molecular diagnostic tests improve antibiotic stewardship (AMS) by facilitating earlier refinement of antimicrobial therapy. The INHALE trial tested the application of the BioFire FilmArray Pneumonia Panel (Pneumonia Panel) for antibiotic prescribing for hospital-acquired and ventilator-associated pneumonias (HAP/VAP) in UK intensive care units (ICUs). We report a behavioural study embedded within the INHALE trial examining clinicians' perceptions of using these tests. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 20 ICU clinicians after using the Pneumonia Panel to manage suspected HAP/VAP. Thematic analysis identified factors reinforcing perceptions of the necessity to modify antibiotic prescribing in accordance with test results, and doubts/concerns about doing so. While most acknowledged the importance of AMS, the test's impact on prescribing decisions was limited. Concerns about potential consequences of under-treatment to the patient and prescriber were often more salient than AMS, sometimes leading to 'just-in-case' antibiotic prescriptions. Test results indicating a broad-spectrum antibiotic was unnecessary often failed to influence clinicians to avoid an initial prescription or de-escalate antibiotics early as they considered their use to be necessary to protect the patient and themselves, 'erring on the side of caution'. Some clinicians described cases where antibiotics would be prescribed for a sick patient regardless of test results because in their opinion, it fits with the clinical picture – “treating the patient, not the result”. Our findings illustrate a tension between prescribing guidelines and clinicians' 'mindlines', characterised by previous experiences. This highlights the need for a 'technology plus' approach, recognizing the challenges clinicians face when applying technological solutions to patient care.

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53 **CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE LITERATURE**

- 54 • Rapid molecular diagnostic tests for pathogens and resistance genes may improve
55 antibiotic prescribing decisions and stewardship. However, clinicians' desire to
56 protect their patient with an antibiotic often overrides more distal concerns about
57 possible resistance selection, limiting the application of these tests in practice.
- 58 • Findings underscore the challenge of changing prescribing decisions based on
59 technical results, or guidelines, highlighting factors such as clinicians' previous
60 experience, and 'knowledge in practice, to be more proximal drivers of these
61 decisions.
- 62 • Implementation strategies for technological solutions to antimicrobial resistance must
63 be 'behaviourally intelligent', recognising the challenges facing clinicians when
64 making 'life or death' prescribing decisions.
- 65

66 **BACKGROUND**

67 Antibiotic prescribing is challenging and complex, particularly in intensive care units (ICU)
68 where diagnostic uncertainty coupled with high-stakes consequences is the norm. Antibiotics
69 can have undesirable effects such as adverse drug reactions and promotion of *Clostridium*
70 [*Clostridiodes*] *difficile* infection;(1) more generally the overuse of broad-spectrum
71 antibiotics drives selection of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) most notably in the patient's
72 gut flora.(2) On the other hand, initial empirical cover may be inadequate for patients
73 infected with unusually drug-resistant bacteria.(3)

74 There is increasing interest in the use of rapid molecular microbiology diagnostic
75 tests. These have potential to improve antimicrobial stewardship (AMS) by rapidly
76 identifying the type of infecting organism and specific agents to which it is likely to be
77 resistant. In principle, this should enable clinicians to avoid prescribing an unnecessary
78 broad-spectrum antibiotic or to stop one early if test results suggest that a narrower-spectrum
79 agent is adequate to combat the particular pathogen(s) found. The FilmArray(4) and
80 Unyvero(14) tests can detect multiple respiratory pathogens and antimicrobial resistance
81 genes directly from respiratory secretions, with results in 1-6 hrs compared with current,
82 culture-based, turnarounds of 48-72hrs.(7). Moreover, pathogens are found in a greater
83 proportion of samples than by conventional microbiology.(6,8)

84 One area where rapid molecular microbiology diagnostic tests are being evaluated is
85 in the treatment of patients with suspected hospital-acquired and ventilator-associated
86 pneumonias (HAP/VAPs) in intensive care units (ICUs). HAP/VAPs are common in these
87 units, necessitate urgent antimicrobial therapy (9)and have substantial mortality.(10,11)
88 Current best practice for suspected HAP/VAP patients is the initial prescribing of empiric
89 broad-spectrum antibiotics, covering all likely pathogens, with later refinement once
90 laboratory culture results become available, typically in 48 to 72 hours.(9) Although this

91 approach is well-established, it has considerable limitations. First, HAP/VAPs can be
92 challenging to diagnose without laboratory culture because ICU patients can exhibit signs
93 suggesting bacterial pneumonia even in its absence.(12,13) Further, as many as 70% of
94 patients with clinically diagnosed pneumonia have no pathogen grown in laboratory
95 cultures.(14) Because their pathogen(s) remain unspecified such patients cannot have their
96 treatment refined and often remain on broad-spectrum agents for prolonged periods.
97 Combined, these factors may result in greater use of broad-spectrum antibiotics than would
98 be necessary.(2) The application of molecular diagnostics in the treatment of HAP/VAP in
99 ICU settings is currently being investigated through randomised-control trials (RCTs). These
100 are investigating the utility of multiplex PCR tests such as the bioFire FilmArray Pneumonia
101 Panel (bioMérieux) (the 'Pneumonia Panel' test),(4) and Curetis Unyvero Hospitalized
102 Pneumonia cartridge.(5,6) One example in the UK is INHALE,(15) which is examining the
103 accuracy of these tests and their influence on AMS and clinical outcomes.

104 The future implementation and adoption these tests is likely to be substantially driven
105 by clinicians' perceptions,(2,16,17) but there is limited data available on how these
106 technologies may influence future prescribing behaviour. For this reason, a series of
107 behavioural studies were embedded within INHALE to explore clinicians' perspectives of
108 antibiotic prescribing for HAP/VAP and their perceptions of the role and potential of
109 molecular diagnostics. The first study was initiated before the trial and examined clinicians
110 attitudes to prescribing antibiotics for HAP/VAP, how they judged the necessity for broad-
111 spectrum antibiotics for individual patients, and how they balanced these necessities against
112 concerns about AMS.(2) A further pre-trial study explored clinicians' attitudes and
113 perceptions of applying rapid molecular microbiology tests for HAP/VAP.(16) Although
114 clinicians were concerned about AMR and perceived these tests to be of potential value in
115 supporting antimicrobial prescribing and stewardship, they had concerns about their

116 application in clinical practice, particularly regarding unfamiliarity with the tests' capabilities
117 and a lack of confidence in 'negative' results. These studies showed that the Necessity
118 Concerns Framework (NCF)(18) could be applied to understanding clinicians' perspectives
119 on antibiotic prescribing. They also identified potential barriers to the implementation of
120 molecular diagnostics in practice. Further, they informed the design of the present study,
121 which aimed to explore clinicians' perspectives and decision making when using Pneumonia
122 Panel tests as a prescribing decision-aid for intervention-arm HAP/VAP patients participating
123 in the INHALE RCT.(19)

124 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

125 This research is part of the INHALE research programme (ISRCTN16483855),(20) funded
126 by the National Institute for Health Research and investigating the utility of molecular
127 diagnostics to guide antimicrobial prescribing for ICU patients with suspected HAP/VAPs.
128 INHALE includes a RCT whereby HAP/VAP patients at 14 ICUs were randomised to i)
129 standard empirical antibiotics, adapted once routine microbiology results become available,
130 or ii) initial antibiotic therapy guided by a point-of-care (POC) rapid molecular diagnostic
131 (the FilmArray Pneumonia Plus Panel – the Pneumonia Panel test) (4), with this treatment
132 adapted once routine microbiology results become available.(19) Clinicians treating
133 intervention-arm patients could use a locally-approved prescribing algorithm that
134 recommended, but did not mandate, possible antibiotics appropriate to particular molecular
135 diagnostic results. The Pneumonia Panel uses multiplex polymerase-chain reactions (PCR) to
136 seek pathogens and their resistance genes (Supplementary Table 1). It was chosen for the
137 RCT following head-to-head evaluation with the Curetis Unyvero Hospitalised Pneumonia
138 Cartridge; this evaluation considered pathogen detection accuracy, speed, ease of use, and
139 reliability.(6)

140 Research Ethics Committee approval was obtained from the London - Brighton &
141 Sussex Research Ethics Committee (19/LO/0400) before data collection, and this manuscript
142 was written following Standards for Reporting Qualitative Research guidelines
143 (Supplementary Material S2).(21)

144 **Participants**

145 To be eligible for interview, clinicians had to be practicing in one of the 14 UK ICUs
146 participating in the INHALE RCT (Table 1). Further, participants needed to have experience
147 of using Pneumonia Panel results to guide an antibiotic decision for at least one INHALE
148 intervention arm patient. Participants were identified and recruited by AMP, VIE, DB, VG,
149 and the site's research nurses. Research nurses had a log of all clinicians who met the above
150 eligibility criteria, all of whom were then invited to participate via email. Interviews were
151 conducted when clinicians were not working.

152 All participants provided written informed consent and were included in the presented
153 analysis.

154 **Data collection**

155 Interviews were conducted by AMP between August 2020 and May 2021 via Microsoft
156 Teams. Interview durations ranged from 11 to 46 minutes. Semi-structured interviews were
157 conducted with clinicians to explore their perceptions of using the Pneumonia Panel test as a
158 prescribing decision-aid for INHALE intervention-arm HAP/VAP patients. Clinicians were
159 asked about a time when they had used Pneumonia Panel results to guide an antibiotic
160 decision and were asked about barriers and facilitators to incorporating test results into their
161 prescribing decision making. They were also asked about their experiences of using, and
162 perceptions about, the INHALE trial prescribing algorithm however that data is outside the
163 scope of the current research question and hence not reported here (Supplementary Material
164 S3 for interview guide).

165 Interviews were conducted and analysed concurrently to determine data saturation, which we
166 defined as three interviews eliciting no novel findings.(22) It should be noted that the study
167 period included the winter 2020/21 wave of the COVID-19 pandemic, largely driven by the
168 alpha variant.

169 **Data analysis**

170 Interviews were recorded, transcribed verbatim, and anonymised by AMP and YJ (consultant
171 pharmacist). For reflexivity,(23) our team has previously conducted qualitative and
172 quantitative research on ICU clinician antibiotic decision-making and attitudes towards rapid
173 diagnostics; however, we strove to remain neutral and data-driven during analyses.(2,16)

174 Braun and Clarke's recommendations for deductive thematic analysis were followed,
175 applying the Necessity Concerns Framework (NCF).(18,24) Our previous published
176 work(25,26) outlines how the NCF can be applied to clinicians perspectives surrounding their
177 antibiotic prescribing decision making, highlighting that when making decisions, clinicians
178 weigh up their perceptions of the necessity for antibiotics/rapid diagnostic test against their
179 concerns. This approach was carried forwards into the present analysis when applying the
180 NCF to the interview transcripts.

181 An interpretivist approach was applied to understand clinicians' beliefs about using
182 the Pneumonia Panel as a prescribing decision aid.(27) AMP first coded the transcripts in
183 NVivo (Version 12) at the semantic level, summarising content explicitly discussed by
184 multiple participants reflecting clinicians' beliefs about using the Pneumonia Panel test and
185 other contextual factors perceived to influence their use of the test.(28) When grouping
186 codes, a deductive approach was used, applying the NCF to construct two pre-conceived
187 themes reflecting beliefs about the importance (necessity) of, and doubts/concerns about,
188 applying the test: i) 'Factors reinforcing the necessity to modify antibiotic prescribing in
189 accordance with rapid molecular test results' (i.e., ICU clinicians' perceptions of the

190 importance of the molecular microbiology results in practice) and ii) 'Doubts about the
191 necessity to modify antibiotic prescribing in accordance with rapid molecular test results'
192 (i.e., ICU clinicians' concerns about the challenges associated with applying the test in
193 clinical practice).(29) Similar codes within each of the two themes were then grouped
194 together to form subthemes (e.g. a pattern of specific concerns about applying the Pneumonia
195 Panel). Following Braun and Clarke's recommendations, thematic maps were created to
196 organise, develop and visualise the analysis which evolved iteratively until a final thematic
197 map was created. Only data relevant to the clinicians' beliefs about the molecular diagnostic
198 tests are represented in the present analysis.

199 YJ provided support to AMP throughout the analytic process, by listening to
200 interview recordings, and reading transcripts to discern unclear communication. To ensure
201 analytic quality, the analysis was sense-checked at multiple stages with YJ, RH, SB and DB
202 and other INHALE collaborators. Interviews and data analysis were conducted concurrently
203 to determine data saturation, when no new themes, or subthemes were created from
204 additional interviews.

205 **RESULTS**

206 Participants comprised 20 clinicians working in 10 of the 14 English ICUs participating in
207 INHALE. Sixteen were consultants in intensive care medicine and four were consultant
208 clinical microbiologists (Table 1).

209 'Factors reinforcing the necessity to modify antibiotic prescribing in accordance with
210 test results' (4 sub-themes), are described first, followed by 'Doubts about the necessity to
211 modify antibiotic prescribing in accordance with rapid molecular test results' (9 sub-themes).
212 Sub-themes and supporting quotations for 'Factors reinforcing the necessity to modify
213 antibiotic prescribing in accordance with rapid molecular diagnostic test results' and 'Doubts

214 about the necessity to modify antibiotic prescribing in accordance with rapid molecular
215 diagnostic test results' themes are presented in Tables 2 and 3, respectively.

216

217 **1. Factors reinforcing the necessity to modify antibiotic prescribing in accordance**
218 **with rapid molecular test results**

219 ***1.1 Rapidity of results enabled earlier refinement of antimicrobial therapy***

220 Many clinicians described the standard care for a patient with suspected HAP/VAP to be the
221 'initial prescribing of broad-spectrum antibiotics, then refining therapy after circa 48-72
222 hours, once laboratory culture results were received'. The delayed availability of culture
223 results was described as problematic, and Pneumonia Panel test results were perceived to
224 enable pathogen-based antibiotic decisions to be made earlier (i.e., after a few hours
225 compared to days) (Table 2, Quote 1). Participants often described how Pneumonia Panel
226 results were used in combination with other available evidence (e.g., inflammatory markers
227 in blood tests) to make an earlier, better-informed prescribing decision (Table 2, Quote 2).

228 ***1.2 Results increase prescribing confidence under clinical uncertainty***

229 Many reported that antibiotic decision-making was most challenging under conditions of
230 clinical uncertainty – where confidence in a microbiological diagnosis was low (Table 2,
231 Quote 3). In uncertainty, clinicians were concerned about the possible consequences of
232 antibiotic under-treatment for the patient (e.g., an increased risk of mortality) and clinician
233 (e.g., distress and regret at losing the patient, and risk of litigation). Clinicians acknowledged
234 that broad-spectrum antibiotics were often prescribed and continued as a protective measure
235 'just-in-case' of infection requiring an antibiotic (Table 2, Quotes 3-5).

236 In some cases, Pneumonia Panel results increased clinicians' confidence in the
237 prescription, particularly when these results corroborated the patient's clinical picture and
238 other test results. One clinician likened having Pneumonia Panel results to a 'comfort blanket'

239 (Table 2, Quote 3). Some clinicians valued that Pneumonia Panel results as providing
 240 assurance of their empirical prescribing, which otherwise relied on what was acknowledged
 241 to be '*pure speculation*' (Table 2, Quote 4). Both positive and negative results were described
 242 as acting to 'reassure' prescribing decisions. Positive results supported clinicians' views that
 243 prescribing an antibiotic was likely to be beneficial, and negative results provided
 244 reassurance to withhold or stop antibiotics when the clinician previously was uncertain (Table
 245 2, Quotes 4-5).

246 ***1.3 Positive results were valuable in supporting antibiotic choice and stewardship***

247 Most clinicians believed that positive Pneumonia Panel results (i.e., detection of bacterial
 248 pathogens) would improve antibiotic choice and AMS. Positive results were often considered
 249 to '*confirm*' a HAP/VAP (Table 2, Quotes 6-7), and clinicians described using the specific
 250 results to choose appropriate antibiotic cover for the organism(s) detected and their resistance
 251 determinants (Table 2, Quote 8). Some clinicians considered Pneumonia Panel results as
 252 enabling an earlier narrow-spectrum antibiotic prescription and thus facilitating local AMS
 253 (Table 2, Quote 8).

254 ***1.4 Results aid differential diagnosis for patients with COVID-19***

255 This study was conducted during the winter 2020/21 wave of the COVID-19 pandemic and,
 256 in total, around one-third of the patients recruited to INHALE's RCT had underlying SARS-
 257 CoV-2 infection. Participants who treated adult critical-care patients with COVID-19
 258 reported difficulty in distinguishing between virus-induced inflammation and secondary
 259 bacterial infection. Adult patients with COVID-19 often had clinical presentations consistent
 260 with bacterial infection despite having none; moreover, some COVID-19 treatments (e.g.,
 261 tocilizumab) rendered certain inflammatory markers unreliable (Table 2, Quote 9).(30) Some
 262 clinicians described potentially conflicting treatments for inflammation (i.e., give
 263 immunosuppressives, principally steroids; reconsider antibiotics) and secondary bacterial

264 infections (i.e., give antibiotics; avoid immunosuppressives), but felt quick decision making
265 was essential because these patients could deteriorate quickly (Table 2, Quote 10).

266 During the first wave of the pandemic (Spring 2020, before the start of this study),
267 ICU patients with COVID-19 frequently received broad-spectrum antibiotics and some
268 clinicians questioned whether these were necessary (Table 2, Quote 11).

269 Most participants valued the availability and rapidity of Pneumonia Panel results'
270 during the pandemic and used the results to aid decisions around antibiotics and high-dose
271 steroids. They especially welcomed having positive results for refining inactive or
272 disproportionate therapy, whereas negative results bolstered their confidence for de-
273 escalating or stopping antibiotics and starting steroids (Table 2, Quotes 9, 11).

274

275 ***2. Doubts about the necessity to modify antibiotic prescribing in accordance with rapid*** 276 ***molecular test results***

277 ***2.1 'Treating the patient, not the result'***

278 Clinicians described cases when they were reluctant to apply rapid diagnostic results to their
279 antibiotic prescribing decisions. They described that they would still prescribe antibiotics,
280 despite a negative result if they reasonably suspected the patient had clinical indicators of
281 infection which may require antimicrobial treatment – prioritising the patient in front of them,
282 'treating the patient, not the result'. (Table 3, Quotes 1-4). Some clinicians also described
283 following their 'gut instinct' and the clinical presentation of the patient sometimes over and
284 above guideline recommendations (Table 3, Quote 4).

285 ***2.2 Negative results create dilemmas***

286 The value of negative Pneumonia Panel results (i.e., detecting no bacteria nor resistance
287 genes) was more nuanced. Some participants interpreted negative results as indicators that a
288 bacterial respiratory infection was unlikely (Table 3, Quotes 5-7) and de-escalated treatment

289 or stopped a broad-spectrum antibiotic in response. However, for some clinicians, negative
290 results created a dilemma when the 'clinical picture' appeared at odds with the machine
291 result. For example, negative results were sometimes interpreted as a sign that the source of
292 infection was elsewhere in the body (i.e., non-respiratory) if their patient was clinically
293 deteriorating (Table 3, Quotes 6-7).

294 ***2.3 Initial scepticism and unfamiliarity***

295 Many clinicians described an initial scepticism and unfamiliarity with the Pneumonia Panel
296 test which led to doubts and concerns about applying test results to their prescribing
297 decisions. Some described colleagues as being more averse to new ways of working, and
298 more resistant to change (e.g. the introduction of the Pneumonia Panel) (Table 3, Quotes 8-9).
299 Others described an unfamiliarity, whereby they felt they had not yet reasonably had enough
300 exposure or experience of using the machine to develop confidence in using it to guide their
301 prescribing (Table 3, Quotes 10-11).

302 ***2.4 Variable knowledge of the tests' inherent limitations***

303 Many clinicians discussed the inherent limitations of the Pneumonia Panel molecular
304 diagnostic test, including its inability to detect fungal infections, specific bacteria (e.g.,
305 *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia*), and certain resistance genes (e.g., AmpC genes). However,
306 these clinicians did not consider these constraints as necessarily prohibitive to the test's
307 clinical adoption; rather they recognised that all tests have limitations and valued being aware
308 of, and understanding, them (Table 3, Quote 12).

309 Clinicians reported some views that appeared to be based on misunderstandings of the
310 spectrum, performance and limitations of the Pneumonia Panel test. For example, some were
311 unsure of the Pneumonia Panel's targets (e.g., holding the misconception that it could detect
312 fungal infections) and consequently were concerned about insufficient therapy to cover such

313 target organisms (Table 3, Quote 13). Some also incorrectly believed that patients must be
314 'off antibiotics' before using the test (Table 3, Quote 14).

315 *2.5 Respiratory sample unavailability and of uncertain quality*

316 Some clinicians valued the Pneumonia Panel's ability to use sputum samples in COVID-19
317 patients, for whom they were less likely to perform bronchoalveolar lavages (BALs).
318 However, others described numerous situations where obtaining lower respiratory tract
319 samples was challenging, limiting the Pneumonia Panel's potential utility. For example, the
320 test could not be used for patients who were unable to produce the necessary minimum 200µl
321 of sample (Table 3, Quote 15). Clinicians also described operational factors that precluded
322 sampling. For example, research nurses' competing demands and difficulty reaching patients
323 in less-accessible locations inhibited sampling (Table 3, Quote 16). Further, during COVID-
324 19 surges, many units had non-ICU doctors treating patients in makeshift ICUs; these
325 physicians were sometimes unaware that the test was available.

326 Some clinicians highlighted doubts about the consistency and quality of the
327 respiratory samples and the impact of this on result reliability. In the same context, they
328 raised uncertainties about the quality of samples obtained and potential environmental
329 contamination of the device due to its location at the POC (Table 3, Quotes 17-18). Some
330 clinicians suspected that BAL-type samples would lead to more accurate results than sputum-
331 like samples due to less contamination from colonising bacteria from more proximal airways,
332 whereas others questioned the quality of BAL samples (Table 3, Quotes 19-20). Many
333 participants would value trial data demonstrating how different sample types affect the
334 molecular diagnostic test's accuracy.

335 *2.6 False positive results encouraging antibiotic overtreatment*

336 Clinicians suspected that the Pneumonia Panel test would detect colonising bacteria that were
337 not causing harm. They raised concerns that results reporting non-pathogenic bacteria would

338 encourage unnecessary broad-spectrum antimicrobial therapy, especially because molecular
339 diagnostic results were not filtered by microbiologists to remove likely colonisers (Table 3,
340 Quote 21).

341 The Pneumonia Panel test uses a semi-quantitative assay to indicate the approximate
342 numbers of each bacterial species found, with a range across 10^4 to $> 10^7$ copies/mL sample.
343 Some ICU consultants valued this semi-quantitative component as potentially predicting
344 whether detected organisms were likely pathogens; however, others were unsure how to
345 interpret these results (Table 3, Quotes 22-23).

346 ***2.7 False negative results, leading to antibiotic under-treatment***

347 Many clinicians were also worried that false negative results would lead to incorrectly
348 withholding or stopping antimicrobial therapy, and highlighted concerns about subsequent
349 patient-related and legal consequences (Table 3, Quotes 24-25). Some perceived false
350 negative results to be of greater concern than false positives, believing the consequences of
351 antibiotic under-treatment to be more severe (and potentially lethal) than those associated
352 with over-treatment (Table 3, Quote 26).

353 Some clinicians discussed strategies that they implemented to address their
354 uncertainty about negative results. For example, one clinician described repeating the test
355 with a BAL-type sample, others continued antibiotics, monitored the patient, and revisited
356 their decision after 48 hours (Table 3, Quotes 24, 26-27).

357 ***2.8 Concerns about how results influence existing antimicrobial stewardship (AMS)*** 358 ***structures and communications***

359 Several clinicians raised concerns about the integration of the device into routine practice.
360 Given concerns of antibiotic over-treatment following coloniser detection, many cautioned
361 that the test should only be used if an infection was reasonably suspected. They predicted that
362 routine use in the absence of reasonably suspected infection might result in over-treatment

363 and - due to limits on the number of samples that could be run concurrently - potentially limit
364 testing for deteriorating patients who potentially might benefit from earlier results (Table 3,
365 Quotes 28-29). Concerns were also raised about the communication of results within the
366 AMS team. Consultant intensivists primarily made antibiotic decisions after receiving
367 molecular test results and could contact clinical microbiologists for advice. However, results
368 occasionally became available out-of-hours and, unless the ICU consultant phoned for input,
369 microbiological input was not received until the following day. Some microbiologists
370 disagreed with antibiotics chosen based on after out-of-hours results and wanted earlier input
371 (Table 3, Quote 30).

372 Other clinicians interpreted this issue as indicating that communication could and
373 should be improved. Sites developed local methods for sharing results during the INHALE
374 RCT; these included email and WhatsApp as well as discussing them at microbiology ward
375 rounds, and/or writing them in patient notes and drug charts. These clinicians recommended
376 integrating Pneumonia Panel results into local patient record systems to facilitate rapid
377 multidisciplinary team access, also ensuring that results would be easily accessible when
378 revisiting past decisions (Table 3, Quotes 31-32).

379 ***2.9 Uncertainty about the evidence base for the molecular diagnostic's clinical usage***

380 Many participants wanted more familiarisation with the Pneumonia Panel test to bolster their
381 confidence in its capabilities and their interpretation of its results. Most wanted this
382 familiarisation to determine for themselves whether the test's benefits outweighed its
383 limitations (Table 3, Quote 33).

384 For some, familiarisation would require additional first-hand experience of the test,
385 either as part of the INHALE RCT or in routine usage. Some described that frequent usage
386 (e.g., during the COVID-19 surge) built confidence (Table 3, Quote 34). Clinicians felt
387 familiarisation with 'real-world' trial results would significantly affect their confidence in the

388 test. These doctors wanted to determine whether the machine's results are microbiologically
389 accurate and non-inferior to standard laboratory culture (Table 3, Quotes 35-36).

390 **DISCUSSION**

391 This is the first study to examine clinicians' perceptions of using a rapid molecular
392 microbiology diagnostic, specifically the Pneumonia Panel test, as an aid to their antibiotic
393 prescribing for HAP/VAP in ICU, in practice.

394 Our analysis identified a number of key attitudes that may have affected the use and impact
395 of rapid diagnostic tests – such as the Pneumonia Panel - in the ICUs participating in the
396 INHALE RCT, corroborating our previous work.(16,17) Most clinicians were convinced by
397 the importance of AMS and acknowledged that Pneumonia Panel test results could facilitate
398 the earlier refinement of antimicrobial therapy. However, the impact of rapid diagnostic test
399 results on individual prescribing decisions (e.g., to guide the initial antibiotic prescription or
400 to swiftly stop broad-spectrum antibiotics), was limited. Many described counterviews, which
401 meant clinicians often felt reluctant to apply test results to their antibiotic prescribing
402 decisions. For example, 'treating the patient, not the result' was described to be a key driver
403 of prescribing behaviour, whereby antibiotics would still be prescribed to a sick patient,
404 regardless of the Pneumonia Panel test result because it fits with the clinical picture. Further,
405 some also cited an initial scepticism and unfamiliarity with the test as factors influencing
406 their perceptions of and experience using the test in practice to guide their prescribing
407 decisions, describing their confidence in the test needing to be built up.

408 Consistent with previous research,(16,31–33) clinicians also described a range of
409 concerns that impeded the application of the test result on their prescribing practices. For
410 example, there were concerns about antibiotic under-treatment resulting from false negative
411 results (e.g., owing to a pathogen or resistance gene being missed), highlighting that this
412 would negatively affect patient care and expose clinicians to legal consequences. Conversely,

413 results detecting non-pathogenic colonising bacteria would encourage antibiotic over-usage.
414 Clinicians also discussed concerns surrounding the test's inherent limitations. Some had
415 misapprehensions and misconceptions about its capabilities. Additionally, clinicians were
416 uncertain about respiratory sample quality (e.g., BAL vs. sputum sampling) – an issue that
417 applies also for samples sent for routine laboratory culture.

418 Clinicians' doubts and concerns meant that recommendations, based on test results, to
419 avoid initial broad-spectrum antibiotic prescriptions or to swiftly curtail broad-spectrum
420 antibiotic treatment early often were not followed. Rather, perceptions that a broad-spectrum
421 antibiotic prescription was necessary to protect both patient and clinician from the adverse
422 consequences of a pathogen not being detected by the Pneumonia Panel, resulted in a broad-
423 spectrum prescription or continuation despite the test result, '*erring on the side of caution*'.
424 Our findings are consistent with previous research suggesting that despite perceiving AMS to
425 be important,(34,35) many clinicians are hesitant to use rapid diagnostics to influence their
426 prescribing decisions. For example, a recent randomised study examining POC tests for
427 suspected pneumonias in Denmark found these tests did not significantly affect prescriptions
428 of no, or narrow-spectrum antibiotics in the first 2 days of admission.(36) Further, a
429 retrospective observational study of patients presenting with viral respiratory infections (VRI)
430 in US Emergency Departments demonstrated that despite a diagnosis of VRI, 21% of patients
431 were still prescribed antibiotics.(32)

432 Data in this study were collected during varying stages of the COVID-19 pandemic.
433 Clinicians appreciated using these tests during the COVID-19 pandemic to rule in/out
434 bacterial co-infection and to support their decisions about prescribing (or not) antibiotics and
435 high-dose steroids. However, some clinicians also described difficulty obtaining respiratory
436 samples from patients with COVID-19, who often produced insufficient sputum. Although

437 these concerns were in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, they reflect wider potential
438 barriers to usage.

439 This study has limitations. Firstly, most participants were ICU consultants (80%), and
440 all four microbiologists interviewed were from teaching or specialist hospitals in London,
441 meaning that our sample may not be representative. Secondly, we did not evaluate the role of
442 prescriber concerns around the possibility of patients having occult non-pulmonary infections
443 (e.g., from central lines); research is needed to assess these aspects and how they may affect
444 prescribing for the 'pneumonia'. Lastly, although we recruited participants from a range of
445 English ICUs, clinicians' beliefs may differ in non-ICU wards, elsewhere in the UK, and in
446 other countries.

447 Our work also suggests possible avenues for further research in molecular diagnostics.
448 Firstly, more data are needed on the extent to which different sample types and quality affect
449 result accuracy and clinical outcomes. Secondly, research should focus on how to distinguish
450 pathogens from colonisers not only using molecular diagnostics but also by standard of care
451 culture methods, as this is a general issue for infections at non-sterile body sites such as the
452 respiratory tract.

453 This study highlights the complexities of clinical decision-making in ICUs. The
454 Pneumonia Panel results were valued in principle but in many cases the influence of result on
455 prescribing decision was limited. This was particularly salient when clinicians described a
456 conflict between the data produced by the machine and the complex clinical picture presented
457 by the patient. Our findings highlight that clinicians' reluctance to apply Pneumonia Panel
458 test results to an initial prescription and/or later de-escalation of antibiotics was often largely
459 driven by a range of factors beyond biomedical data and the guidelines of current evidence-
460 based medicine. Instead, clinicians' were influenced by their 'mindlines,' meaning –
461 “*collectively reinforced, internalised, tacit guidelines*” which are iterative and

462 flexible.(37,38) These 'mindlines' are characterised by interactions with patients and
 463 colleagues, and clinicians' 'knowledge in practice' and perceptions informed by training and
 464 the experiences of themselves and others (e.g., "I've been here before and been burnt by my
 465 decision not to prescribe antibiotics"). Our findings seem to seem illustrate a tension between
 466 guidelines and 'mindlines' with implications for how technological approaches to antibiotic
 467 stewardship might be applied in practice. Although this study explores clinicians' specific
 468 experiences and perceptions of using the Pneumonia Panel test, the principles and issues
 469 surrounding clinicians' perspectives are likely to be transferrable towards the implementation
 470 of many, if not most, new diagnostic technologies in medicine.

471 The impact of technological and guideline solutions to AMR may be limited if we fail
 472 to recognise the impact of clinical 'mindlines' on prescribing decisions. Our findings
 473 demonstrate that clinicians' beliefs and emotions are often key drivers of their antibiotic
 474 prescribing. Governed by the wish to save lives, doctors ultimately behave in more protective
 475 ways than may be objectively necessary. Therefore, the implementation of technological or
 476 guideline-based solutions to antimicrobial resistance needs to be behaviourally intelligent,
 477 understanding and connecting with the way in which clinicians think about the problem at
 478 hand and respond to it.

479 **Conclusion**

480 Although most clinicians saw potential for the Pneumonia Panel to support
 481 stewardship, the practice of using test results to avoid prescribing a broad-spectrum antibiotic
 482 or to stop one early was often overridden by clinicians' imperative to prescribe a broad-
 483 spectrum antibiotic 'just-in-case' as a mechanism to protect the patient, 'erring on the side of
 484 caution'. Clinicians described cases where antibiotics would be prescribed for a sick patient
 485 regardless of the Pneumonia Panel test result because in their opinion, that fits with the
 486 clinical picture, "*treating the patient, not the result*". The data in this study identify a tension

487 between evidence-based medicine and the art of medicine, acknowledging the human-to-
488 human nature of antibiotic prescribing in ICU. Specifically, our findings suggest clinicians'
489 'mindlines' – inclusive of their previous experiences and those of their colleagues,
490 'knowledge in practice' and, importantly, the patient in front of them – are key drivers of
491 their antibiotic prescribing, often over and above hospital prescribing guidelines and the
492 results of molecular diagnostics. The optimal implementation of the latter tests in practice
493 therefore requires a 'technology plus' approach, acknowledging the challenges clinicians face
494 when applying technological solutions to the care of individual patients.

495

496 **Abbreviations:**

497 AMR: Antimicrobial resistance; AMS: Antimicrobial stewardship; BALs: bronchoalveolar
498 lavages; ICU: Intensive care unit; NCF: Necessity Concerns Framework; RCT: Randomised-
499 control trial; UK: United Kingdom.

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501 **Table 1**
 502 *Hospital and participant characteristics*
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Hospital no.	Location in the United Kingdom	Hospital type	Clinician role
1 ^a	London	Teaching hospital	4 ICU ^b consultants 1 consultant clinical microbiologist
2	London	Teaching hospital	1 ICU consultant
3	Liverpool	Teaching hospital	2 ICU consultants
4	Hertfordshire	District general hospital	2 ICU consultants
5 ^c	Birmingham	Specialist paediatric hospital	2 ICU consultants
6	London	Teaching hospital	1 ICU consultant 2 consultant clinical microbiologists
7	Liverpool	Teaching hospital	1 ICU consultant
8	Stoke-on-Trent	Teaching hospital	1 ICU consultant
9	London	Private hospital	1 ICU consultant
10	London	Specialist paediatric hospital	1 ICU consultant ^d 1 consultant clinical microbiologist

504 ^a Patients from Hospital 1 comprised approximately a quarter of patients participating in the INHALE
 505 randomised-controlled trial; we therefore purposively over-sampled clinicians from this hospital to
 506 interview a similar proportion of clinicians.

507 ^b ICU, intensive care unit

508 ^c All clinicians from Hospital 5 and 10 treat paediatric patients; the remainder treat adults.

509 ^d During the COVID-19 pandemic, this consultant treated adult patients at Hospital 1.

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Table 2

Factors reinforcing the necessity to modify antibiotic prescribing in accordance with rapid molecular test results

Sub-theme	Quote number	Supporting quotations
Rapidly of results enabled earlier refinement of antimicrobial therapy	1	“One of the frustrations I have as an intensive care consultant is the turnaround times for most microbiological tests, which frequently lags behind my decision-making. [...] you've done what you would normally do for the first day or two and you see the patient not getting any better. And then you're thinking maybe there's something I'm missing. Maybe... And to send off another barrage of tests will take another three to four days to come back. You want a rapid [molecular diagnostic] result; you want that patient to get better quickly.” -P14, ICU consultant, Hospital 4
	2	“[Culture result] takes 48 hours, it's very easy to be lazy and just keep the antibiotics going for longer. Whereas this [molecular test], because it's immediately available, actually makes you think critically about your clinical decision-making just as the patient's come in.” -P11, ICU consultant, Hospital 5
Results increase prescribing confidence under clinical uncertainty	3	“You do a [molecular diagnostic] test when you're worried about something [i.e., infection]. And obviously [if] further tests show something that ties in with your clinical gestalt, as it were. You then can treat, and if it reassures, you know, it can be a rule in or rule out. And you know, and it might be a comfort blanket, you know. I don't want to treat, and the test shows me there's nothing to treat so therefore it reinforces my confidence level. [...] a huge number of people are treated inappropriately [with antibiotics]. But the problem is they're doing it just in case rather than, you know, having sound microbiological proof.” -P15, ICU consultant, Hospital 1
	4	“[Antibiotic decisions] are life or death decisions. And these decisions are probability decisions. And definitely you need to cover every single possibility because sometimes you might be wrong. And the margin for error in a patient who is on an acute critical illness, multi-organ failure is minimal. [...] [molecular diagnostics help] make a better decision, or better in terms of probability. Because anyway, a decision can be wrong even having all the probabilities because you will need to choose. And what may be chosen [may] not necessarily [be] the right decision sometimes. But at least you might be in a position to argue that your prescription or your behaviour in the way you prescribe it was based on signs and not just pure speculation or pure gut feeling.” -P6, ICU consultant, Hospital 9
	5	“[Molecular test] gives an extra piece of information in that puzzle, as it were, to help you decide should I, shouldn't I treat [...] It should not be used in isolation.” -P15, ICU consultant, Hospital 1
Positive results were valuable in supporting antibiotic choice and stewardship	6	“[Molecular diagnostic results are] useful to confirm infection, provide some guidance about antibiotics [...] [It detected] a gram-negative <i>enterobacteriaceae</i> , which may have had a CTX-M gene indicating it was an ESBL producer. And that would guide us towards an antibiotic active against that. So temocillin or ertapenem, rather than Tazocin or Augmentin. [...] Another example, I think, would be when there was a <i>Pseudomonas</i> detected. Where we haven't seen a <i>Pseudomonas</i> in that patient before, and so that would guide us towards including [an] antipseudomonal antibiotic in the treatment.” -P9, consultant microbiologist, Hospital 6
	7	“we would score someone for a VAP. Based on their chest X-ray changes, do they have increased amount of sputum, is their white cell count up, do they have a temperature? And do they then grow any organisms? So, if you put it into a point-scoring system and then if you know they're growing organisms from the BioFire, then you would treat [with antibiotics].” -P2, ICU consultant, Hospital 3
	8	“the [molecular test] result came back. It was getting <i>Proteus</i> in the... in the tracheal aspirate sample [...] [without molecular diagnostics] probably wouldn't have used ceftriaxone. I doubt we would have used... It may have been Tazocin but like some of my colleagues love Tazocin. But it would...

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	<p>probably it so... it might, but it may even have been meropenem based on the [microbiology] recommendation. So, the BioFire enabled a narrower spectrum antibiotic.” -P1, ICU consultant, Hospital 3</p>
<p>Results aid differential diagnosis for patients with COVID-19</p>	<p>9 “what was, you know, COVID-driven inflammatory blood resistant [white] count and what we could see whether there was an indication that this is a bacterial pneumonia. Because the chest X-rays were equally awful in patients who had bacterial pneumonia and who didn't. And in addition, it was complicated by the fact that patients then in the middle of the first wave and then in the second wave were given drugs that would affect inflammatory markers. [...] if the BioFire was negative, yes there might be a moderation of his... anti-infectives after 24/48 hours, but actually they [clinicians] were using it as an insight whether they would give this patient high dose steroids.” -P19, consultant microbiologist, Hospital 6</p>
	<p>10 “[a] COVID patient who deteriorates, we've probably got to make a decision within 24 or 48 hours. Is this rip roaring [i.e., serious] infection that needs to be treated and therefore don't suppress their immune system anymore? Or, on the other hand, is this immune system gone mad because of the COVID? In which case we suppress the immune system, which would be entirely the wrong thing to do if they've got [an] infection.” -P7, ICU consultant, Hospital 7</p>
	<p>11 “Patients [with COVID-19] would get a lot of empirical antibiotics. So that's probably a circumstance where having a negative BioFire might just provide more evidence that really there was no ongoing bacterial infection. And no benefit from the empirical antibiotics, so [it would] help with stopping and antibiotic stewardship there. Because most of the patients with COVID didn't have a bacterial infection. Certainly initially. And then over time they... they did get bacterial infections over time as they were in the intensive care unit for longer. And then the same, reverse would apply if we started empirical antibiotics and got a positive result on BioFire. That could help tailor antibiotic treatment sooner than the conventional cultures.” -P9, consultant microbiologist, Hospital 6</p>

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BAL, bronchoalveolar lavage; BioFire, BioFire FilmArray pneumonia panel; DNA, deoxyribonucleic acid; ESBL, Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamase; ICU, intensive care unit; Tazocin, piperacillin/tazobactam; VAP, ventilator-associated pneumonia

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Table 3

Doubts about the necessity to modify antibiotic prescribing in accordance with rapid molecular test results

Sub-theme	Quote number	Supporting quotations
Treating the patient not the result	1	“Um I would always treat the patient and not the result. So regardless of what type of sample analysis has been used, I would treat the patient, so if I felt the patient had clinical features of infection, I would treat them for infection unless I felt it was going to be harmful to do so.” – P8, ICU consultant, Hospital 7
	2	“If the patient’s super sick, I don’t care what the test says, I’m prescribing antibiotics because, you know, that fits with the clinical picture. If the patient is super well and... and the... and the test result doesn’t corroborate with all the other evidence that I’m triangulating, because no one test is perfect, I’m not going to prescribe antibiotics.” – P20, ICU consultant, Hospital 1
	3	“If the organism did not... was not detected, but there was a clinical suspicion for ventilator-associated pneumonia, we would carry on with the antibiotics anyway.” – P10, ICU consultant, Hospital 8
	4	“I have to say as a clinician I don’t follow guidelines very well. I tend to go by my gut instinct and by what I see by the patient’s physiology, by the bed space. And frequently, even if the guidelines suggest a different antibiotic, sometimes I change my... my plans. Not on the basis of either the BioFire or... or... It’s all in the whole kind of holistic view about what’s going on.” – P14, ICU Consultant, Hospital 4
Negative results create dilemmas	5	“a negative [molecular diagnostic] test, if it’s well performed, is trying to say to you we cannot identify any bacterial DNA. [...] we’ve got no evidence that there is some sort of... one of the common pathogens here, in that [sample]. And so that’s sort of saying to you: Look, you’ve got little evidence to support active infection.” -P4, ICU consultant, Hospital 1
	6	“[I’ve] chosen to stop them [antibiotics] as a result of the negative BioFire result. So, in a sense, saving two or three days or potentially more of an antibiotic. We do... and I’ve just seen that as an example in my own mind of good practice, you know, good antibiotic stewardship.” -P3, ICU consultant, Hospital 2
	7	“We refocused the antibiotics on sepsis rather than chest sepsis. So, the antibiotics were not stopped, but the BioFire... the results of the BioFire were negative...” -P11, ICU consultant, Hospital 5
Initial scepticism and unfamiliarity	8	“So that even if it’s an antibiotic we’re unfamiliar [with], we don’t routinely use like ceftriaxone for pneumonia, we only tend to use it for things like CNS infection [...] 'Cause usually it’s unfamiliarity. It’s the situation where [changes voice] “We don’t normally do this, so I don’t want to do it”, which is how a quite a few of my colleagues still practice. [...] I think initially there’s a degree of skepticism because again, the department, well most departments I suspect is slightly split between people who are interested in new things and people [who] are not really that bothered by new things. And I think it was a little bit split.” – P1, ICU consultant, Hospital 3
	9	“Most intensive care doctors come with a healthy streak of scepticism about a new machine. Is it really going to add something that’s going to change practice?” -P16, ICU consultant, Hospital 10
	10	“I haven’t used it [molecular diagnostics] enough [...] I really would need more involvement with it.” -P17, ICU consultant, Hospital 1

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	11	It's a matter of exposure. So if you have the machine and you use the machine, finally you are used to make decisions with that information. If that machine is available, but it's not integrated in their routine because you have few patients [that] makes you less confident of using information from the machine. I think it's a matter of exposure, is... is... is not a... the machine are such that is triggering your decision or your confidence with devices. If something is integrated that it's part of a pathway and you've got enough volume of patients to... to be exposed to... to that pathway decision, definitely you will have an opportunity to be more confident with the machine. So I think it's not the machine as such. It's how much this machine is using the context of making decisions." – <i>P6, ICU consultant, Hospital 9</i>
Variable knowledge of the tests' inherent limitations	12	"[Molecular diagnostic tests] can't distinguish between live or dead bacteria, but well, that's not a concern. That's like a feature of understanding how the tools you have available to help you, work. And like there isn't a perfect tool. So, it's just a piece of knowledge that yeah, you need to have while you're doing these things." - <i>P4, ICU consultant, Hospital 1</i>
	13	"I can't remember if <i>Stenotrophomonas</i> was on there [panel]. I think it... maybe it wasn't, I don't know. And we've had <i>Elizabethkingia</i> bacteria." - <i>P12, ICU consultant, Hospital 5</i>
	14	"[Patients] can't really be on antibiotics, you wouldn't use it [molecular diagnostic test] then." - <i>P17, ICU consultant, Hospital 1</i>
Respiratory sample unavailability and of uncertain quality	15	"the COVID patients, they were just dry [as] a bone. You could never get specimen once they'd been there [ICU] for 3-4 days. [...] You can't do the test if you haven't got sputum. So. And these patients are on a lot of oxygen, so you're not inclined to do bronchoalveolar lavages on them either." - <i>P13, ICU consultant, Hospital 4</i>
	16	"[In the COVID-19 surges] the ICU staff may not have been familiar with procedures in an ICU in general, let alone what a BioFire is. Particular locations meant that it was more difficult for the research nurses to have time to go and consent a patient and also pick up a sample in a, sort of, in a timely fashion [...] there was competing workload from other trials that were running, on the research nurses. So, when you combine all of those three, a quite common event would be that we would identify somebody on the ward round who would meet the criteria to be recruited, but they weren't. So, they would have a sample sent for MC&S [microbiology culture & sensitivity], but they didn't get a sample taken for BioFire." - <i>P19, consultant microbiologist, Hospital 6</i>
	17	"I don't know how good our quality control was for sampling. [...] nurse or research nurse or physio, whoever is collecting samples, [do] they apply anything like the same kind of quality control to 'That's proper sample, and that isn't?'" - <i>P16, ICU consultant, Hospital 10</i>
	18	"[The molecular diagnostic test is] on a desk top in intensive care or something like that. Where they're less used to handling sensitive PCR machines. And has the potential to be contaminated by bugs and flora." - <i>P18, consultant microbiologist, Hospital 10</i>
	19	"deep [BAL-like] sampling is a better... in a sense is closer to the 'truth', if you like, in inverted commas, about pneumonia. As opposed to proximal [sputum-like] sampling. And so of course, a lot of these patients had proximal sampling. And so, were we actually just dealing with colonisation?" - <i>P3, ICU consultant, Hospital 2</i>
	20	"it's easy to mess up a BAL so the test comes back negative." - <i>P20, ICU consultant, Hospital 1</i>
False positive results encouraging antibiotic overtreatment	21	"the temptation for the [ICU] clinician is to try and treat all of those organisms [detected by molecular diagnostics]. Which often mean[s] meropenem [...] [intensivists] will be less critical than I am of the results, or if they see a result they will say: 'Right, what do we give to treat it?' They won't think: 'Do we need to treat it?'" - <i>P5, consultant microbiologist, Hospital 1</i>
	22	"I need a quantitative assay as opposed to [a] qualitative assay. So, I'm happy to say that well that's <i>Klebsiella</i> in sputum. Fine. But is that <i>Klebsiella</i> , is it significant? And that level of significance is what I need." - <i>P14, ICU consultant, Hospital 4</i>

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	23	“where I struggle a bit is to understand what the quantitative piece [of molecular diagnostic results] means.” -P4, ICU consultant, Hospital 1
False negative results leading to antibiotic under-treatment	24	“if the BioFire is negative and you are still having [a] small possibility that the patient is having [an] infection. Very small possibility, but you might start treatment with antibiotics while you do other things that might not be related with the sepsis. Uhm, you might see that response over the next 24 hours, 48 hours [...] [if] the patient dies or have [sic] any complication related with an infection and you did not cover that because you restrained yourself, rightly or wrongly, at that particular time. You might see the situation as a potential litigation problem.” -P6, ICU consultant, Hospital 9
	25	“a false negative may give you the confidence to stop therapy when actually they're [patient] still unwell.” -P18, consultant microbiologist, Hospital 10
	26	“I don't mind false positives 'cause I'll just treat for a while. Um, that's not... not such a negative, but the false negative would be the thing I don't want to miss.” -P12, ICU consultant, Hospital 5
	27	“there have been a few situations where we've not believed a negative result. [...] And we've repeated it [molecular test]. And done it with deep [BAL-like] samples and there's been a... just because of the clinical situation. And we've re-calibrated the machine.” -P3, ICU consultant, Hospital 2
Concerns about how results influence existing AMS structures and communications	28	“if you just use it [molecular diagnostics] on everybody without making a decision beforehand of ‘Do I think they have an infection or not’, you're probably going to end up with a lot of people [getting antibiotics].” -P1, ICU consultant, Hospital 3
	29	“there's a limit on the number of the test you can run concurrently. I think that that limits... you know, it's not for all comers [into ICU] as it were. And I think if people start abusing it then you're gonna have patients that you need the results [for] and you're not gonna get [them].” -P13, ICU consultant, Hospital 4
	30	“[Molecular diagnostic] results come out at 8:00 o'clock [at] night. I don't know why that is particularly, but that's quite common. [...] Sometimes I'm notified and don't see it till the following morning. So, in the interim, you'll tend to find they [patients] get put on whatever they [intensivists] think is going to cover it [detected organism].” -P5, consultant microbiologist, Hospital 1
	31	“I wrote on the drug chart the result of the BioFire. So, right next to where the antibiotics are with the box on the day after to say ‘Let's review this’. So, I was giving a plan and clearly labelling it, but that doesn't mean that it got through to the microbiologists [...] if you could find a way to get that result onto our in-house system and flagged to the microbiologist paired up with the BAL sample, then I think that would be really useful.” -P12, ICU consultant, Hospital 5
	32	“one thing that we could have done would have been a way to, you know, scan or image the result and incorporate it into our clinical notes so that it would be apparent to other colleagues why a patient was de-escalated from a carbapenem to temocillin a week ago.” -P19, consultant microbiologist, Hospital 6
Uncertainty about the evidence base for molecular diagnostic test results' clinical usage	33	“[Molecular diagnostic tests] gotta really show an impact for it to be worth the hassle and the maintenance and the cost and the variability [...] It's gotta be clearly better for it to be adopted.” -P16, ICU consultant, Hospital 10
	34	“[Recruiting in COVID has] been good in that many of my colleagues because we were using off... just using it [molecular diagnostics] routinely, liked it, and gained confidence in it.” -P1, ICU consultant, Hospital 3
	35	“So the BioFire was negative for any of the common organisms. I guess the thing that influenced me is that I didn't stop the antibiotic at that time. I decided to continue them over the first 24 hours. For the reasons I've already sort of talked about that I haven't built the confidence in the test yet and I haven't seen the sort of large validated study yet.” -P12, ICU consultant. Hospital 5

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“Most clinicians would want to know how accurate is that [molecular diagnostic test] and is it inferior or non-inferior? And we would pour over the evidence for that in some detail.” -P7, *ICU consultant, Hospital 7*

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BAL, bronchoalveolar lavage; BioFire, BioFire FilmArray pneumonia panel; ICU, intensive care unit; PCR, polymerase chain reaction

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649

650 **DECLARATIONS**

651 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

652 This research received ethical approval from the London - Brighton & Sussex
653 Research Ethics Committee (19/LO/0400). All participants provided written informed
654 consent.

655 **Consent for publication**

656 Not applicable

657 **Availability of data and materials**

658 No data are available for this study due to compromising anonymity.

659 **Competing interests**

660 DB reports personal fees (lecture fees) from bioMérieux, outside the submitted work.

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670 UCB and personal consultancy with Amgen, Abbott, AstraZeneca and Novartis. He is
671 Founding Director of a UCL-Business company (Spoonful of Sugar Ltd) providing
672 consultancy on treatment engagement and patient support programmes to healthcare policy
673 makers, providers and pharmaceutical industry.

674 ZM has undertaken paid work for UCL-Business company Spoonful of Sugar Ltd.

675 SJB reports a consultancy payment to his university account from GSK for work
676 outside this area.

677 DML reports Adjutec, AstraZeneca, bioMérieux, Centauri, GenPax, GSK, Hikma,
678 Merck/MSD, Nordic, Paion, Pfizer, Shionogi, Sumitovant, Summit, Thermofisher,
679 Wockhardt and Zambon, He also reports shareholdings from GenPax, GSK, Merck, Oxford
680 Nanopore and PerkinElmer/Revvity, comprising less than 10% of portfolio value. He also has
681 nominated holdings in Arecor, Celadon Pharmaceuticals, Destiny Pharma, Eluceda Ltd.,
682 Genedrive, Poolbeg, Optibiotix, Probiotix Health, SkinBiotherapeutics, Trellus and Verici Dx
683 (all of which have research/products pertinent to medical and diagnostic innovation) through
684 Enterprise Investment Schemes but has no authority to trade these shares directly. All are
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686 VG reports receiving speaking honoraria from bioMérieux and support for conference
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696 **Authors' contributions**

697 This study was conceptualised and designed by AMP, RH, YJ, SJB, DB, VIE, DML,
698 and VG. The interview guide was written by AMP, SJB, and RH. All interviews were
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705 [†]Members of the INHALE WP4 Study Group (inhale.study@uea.ac.uk) are: Julie A.
706 Barber and Zaneeta Dhesi, University College London; Mark Peters and Nigel Klein, Great
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