

1 What drives antimicrobial prescribing for companion animals? A mixed-methods study of UK
2 veterinary clinics

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 Antimicrobial use in companion animals is a largely overlooked contributor to the complex
20 problem of antimicrobial resistance. Humans and companion animals share living spaces
21 and some classes of antimicrobials, including those categorised as Highest Priority Critically
22 Important Antimicrobials (HPCIA). Veterinary guidelines recommend that these agents are
23 not used as routine first line treatment and their frequent deployment could offer a surrogate
24 measure of 'inappropriate' antimicrobial use. Anthropological methods provide a
25 complementary means to understand how medicines use makes sense 'on-the-ground' and
26 situated in the broader social context.

27

28 This mixed-methods study sought to investigate antimicrobial use in companion animals
29 whilst considering the organisational context in which increasing numbers of veterinarians
30 work. Its aims were to i) to epidemiologically analyse the variation in the percentage of
31 antimicrobial events comprising of HPCIA in companion animal dogs attending UK clinics
32 belonging to large veterinary groups and, ii) to analyse how the organisational structure of
33 companion animal practice influences antimicrobial use, based on insight gained from
34 anthropological fieldwork.

35

36 A VetCompass™ dataset composed of 468,665 antimicrobial dispensing events in 240,998
37 dogs from June 2012 to June 2014 was analysed. A hierarchical model for HPCIA usage
38 was built using a backwards elimination approach with clinic and dog identity numbers
39 included as random effects, whilst veterinary group, age quartile, breed and clinic region
40 were included as fixed effects. The largest odds ratio of an antimicrobial event comprising of
41 a HPCIA by veterinary group was 7.34 (95% confidence interval 5.14 – 10.49), compared to
42 the lowest group ($p < 0.001$). Intraclass correlation was more strongly clustered at dog (0.710,
43 95% confidence interval 0.701 - 0.719) than clinic level (0.089, 95% confidence interval
44 0.076 - 0.104). This suggests that veterinarians working in the same clinic do not
45 automatically share ways of working with antimicrobials. Fieldwork revealed how the
46 structure of the companion animal veterinary sector was more fluid than that depicted in the
47 statistical model, and identified opportunities and challenges regarding altering antimicrobial
48 use. These findings were organised into the following themes: *“Highest priority what?”*; *“He’s
49 just not himself”*; *“Oh no – here comes the antibiotics police”*; *“We’re like ships that pass in
50 the night”*; and *“There’s not enough hours in the day”*.

51

52 This rigorous mixed-methods study demonstrates the importance of working across
53 disciplinary silos when tackling the complex problem of antimicrobial resistance. The findings

54 can help inform the design of sustainable stewardship schemes for the companion animal
55 veterinary sector.

56

57 **Keywords**

58 Antibiotic, Antimicrobial consumption, Treatment incidence, Companion animal, Social
59 sciences, Epidemiology

60

61 **Introduction**

62 Antimicrobial resistance is recognised as a key threat to global health and the global
63 economy (O'Neill, 2016). However, major initiatives seeking to tackle this complex problem
64 have largely overlooked antimicrobial use in companion animals (UK Government, 2013;
65 O'Neill, 2016). This is despite humans and companion animals sharing classes of
66 antimicrobials and living spaces, circumstances that could drive the development and spread
67 of antimicrobial resistance relevant to human health (Pomba et al., 2017). Therefore, it is
68 important to include companion animal veterinary care within antimicrobial stewardship
69 activities.

70

71 The term antimicrobial stewardship is used to describe a range of approaches and
72 interventions seeking to 'optimize' antimicrobial use (Dyar et al., 2017). It originated in
73 human healthcare but is now applied in broader One Health contexts. In companion animal
74 veterinary medicine, it has been interpreted as schemes to encourage the responsible use of
75 antimicrobials by decreasing prescription rates without increasing negative patient outcomes
76 (Allerton, 2018). The World Health Organisation (WHO) focuses stewardship efforts on
77 antimicrobials with the strongest evidence of transmission of resistant microbes or resistance
78 genes from animal sources to humans (World Health Organisation, 2019). These medicines,
79 designated by the WHO as Highest Priority Critically Important Antimicrobials (HPCIA),
80 include third and fourth generation cephalosporins, fluoroquinolones and macrolides, which

81 are all also available for use by companion animal veterinarians (National Office of Animal
82 Health, 2019).

83

84 Epidemiological programmes such as VetCompass™ (O'Neill, 2013) and Small Animal
85 Veterinary Surveillance Network (SAVSNET) (Radford et al., 2010) collate anonymised
86 electronic patient records (EPRs) from primary-care veterinary clinics and enable the
87 quantification of antimicrobial use in the wider companion animal population (Buckland et al.,
88 2016; Singleton et al., 2017). In the United Kingdom (UK), antimicrobials are routinely
89 prescribed for companion animals: over a two-year period, 25.2% of dogs and 20.6% of cats
90 attending a veterinary clinic were given at least one antimicrobial treatment, with HPCIA
91 accounting for around five percent of antimicrobial prescribing events in dogs (Buckland et
92 al., 2016). Unlike the livestock sector (O'Neill, 2016; Veterinary Medicines Directorate,
93 2019), there are no published target levels for appropriate antimicrobial use in companion
94 animals; however, professional bodies such as the British Veterinary Association (2015) and
95 the British Small Animal Veterinary Association (2018) advise that HPCIA should not be
96 routinely used as first line treatment. Variation in the use of HPCIA could act as a surrogate
97 measure for 'appropriate' antimicrobial use with a low proportion of HPCIA events amongst
98 antimicrobial events presumed to be following this advice. This could offer potential
99 opportunities to benchmark companion animal veterinary clinics in the future.

100

101 In addition to companion animal and veterinarian characteristics (Radford et al., 2011;
102 Hughes et al., 2012), veterinary organisational structure has been associated with
103 antimicrobial use. For example, the proportion of companion animals receiving antimicrobials
104 varies approximately twofold between UK practices (Radford et al., 2011). Singleton and
105 colleagues (2017) investigated longitudinal changes in HPCIA utilisation in veterinary
106 consultations via a model that included practice (a single veterinary business) and premises
107 (branches that form a practice) as random effects. They identified similar amount of variance

108 at practice (0.225) and premise level (0.175) but did not explore the impact of belonging to
109 different large veterinary groups. Across the UK companion animal veterinary sector, there
110 has been increasing corporatisation in recent years with approximately half of all UK
111 practices now belonging to large groups (Wedderburn, 2017). Understanding the context in
112 which a growing number of companion animal veterinarians work may provide insights into
113 where best to focus effective antimicrobial stewardship interventions. For example,
114 identifying the organisational level at which antimicrobial use is most tightly clustered could
115 indicate the most effective leverage point at which to intervene to change prescribing habits.

116

117 The social sciences are recognised to play a crucial role in understanding antimicrobial
118 utilisation (Chandler et al., 2016). Often cast as ‘irrational’ and ‘inappropriate’, the methods
119 and theories of anthropology offer a means by which to ask, “*what makes common sense*
120 *here, and why?*” in order to develop situated accounts of antimicrobial use (Denyer Willis
121 and Chandler, 2018). The cornerstone of anthropological methods is ethnography, involving
122 participant observation to study enacted practice – both conscious and subconscious. Such
123 an approach can provide additional insights to extend existing understandings of
124 antimicrobial use, especially in companion animals, which has mostly relied on surveys that
125 can only describe self-reported behaviour (Will, 2018). Ethnographic studies have been
126 promoted in One Health for their ability to explicate the messy complexities of everyday lives
127 whilst situating them in their broader political, economic, historical and social contexts (Wolf,
128 2015). This is crucial for a deeper understanding of the wider influences on antimicrobial
129 use, beyond the moment of prescribing. Furthermore, anthropological approaches can
130 address calls for the exploration of issues of power, professional identity and reputation with
131 respect to veterinary prescribing of antimicrobials that, to date, remain under-scrutinised
132 (Wood, 2016).

133

134 This mixed-methods study harnesses the complementary strengths of epidemiology and
135 anthropology. This enables the painting of a more complete picture of antimicrobial use in

136 companion animals, one that is, “*greater than the sum of the parts*” (O’Cathain et al., 2010).
137 The goal of this research is to help inform the design of antimicrobial stewardship efforts in
138 the companion animal veterinary sector. Therefore, the aims of this study are i) to
139 epidemiologically analyse the variation in the percentage of antimicrobial events comprising
140 of HPClAs in companion animal dogs attending clinics belonging to large veterinary groups
141 and, ii) to analyse how the organisational structure of companion animal veterinary medicine
142 influences antimicrobial use, based on insight gained from anthropological fieldwork.

143

144 **Materials and methods**

145 **Epidemiological study**

146 **Design**

147 A VetCompass™ dataset spanning June 2012 to June 2014 inclusive that had previously
148 been used to quantify UK antimicrobial use (Buckland et al., 2016) was analysed. Due to the
149 time constraints of this PhD project, the study population was limited to dogs, the most
150 common UK companion animal species (O’Neill, 2013). The percentage of antimicrobial
151 dispensing events comprising of HPClAs was selected as the outcome measure, given the
152 interest in these agents (Veterinary Medicines Directorate, 2019). In addition to the
153 previously applied inclusion and exclusion criteria (Buckland et al., 2016), only data from
154 corporate veterinary groups with over thirty clinics were retained (Fig. 1). Supplementary
155 material 1 describes the full study inclusion and exclusion criteria.

156

157 [Figure 1 - The flow of data through the VetCompass™ epidemiological study including the
158 hierarchical models]

159

160 **Data cleaning and processing**

161 Buckland et al.’s (2016) definition of an antimicrobial agent and application to the dataset
162 were re-used (Supplementary material 1). In brief, these were medicines that destroy or
163 inhibit the growth of bacterial microorganisms and authorised for systemic use. Additional

164 HPCIA coding based on the WHO's definition (2019) was added. As per Buckland et al.'s
165 approach, an antimicrobial event was defined as an independent record (line) in the
166 treatment data field of the EPR-derived dataset and, consequently, multiple events could
167 arise from a single consultation or across multiple visits.

168

169 The variable 'any HPCIA' was generated and coded as positive for all antimicrobial events
170 linked to a unique dog identity number if one or more of these events comprised of an
171 HPCIA. Dog age was calculated as the period between the birth date and the antimicrobial
172 dispensing date; ages <0 or >24 years were coded as missing. Age was grouped *a priori* into
173 quartiles to allow for non-linearity of effects and to facilitate interpretation. Dog sex was
174 coded as male, female or missing. The 20 most prevalent dog breeds in the dataset were
175 taken as categories, the remaining pure breeds were pooled together ('other purebreeds') as
176 were 'cross breeds'. The clinic postcode was used to derive its region in the UK.

177

178 **Descriptive and univariable analyses**

179 Counts and percentages were calculated for each categorical variable (dog sex, breed, clinic
180 region). Dog age was summarised for each quartile using median and interquartile range
181 (IQR) after reviewing its distribution. The Pearson chi-square test and the Mann Whitney U
182 test, as appropriate, checked for differences between the sample characteristics of each
183 veterinary group (Kirkwood and Sterne, 2003).

184

185 The total and average (mean, median) number of antimicrobial events and HPCIA events
186 per dog were calculated. From the total number of antimicrobials events, the continuous
187 outcome measure of the percentage of events compromising of HPCIA was calculated at
188 dog, clinic and veterinary group levels along with 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs). The
189 distribution of the percentage of HPCIA events at a clinic level was plotted graphically. The
190 composition of HPCIA events by veterinary group was investigated using percentages and
191 95% CIs.

192

193 **Hierarchical modelling**

194 A multilevel logistic regression model was built for the binary outcome of whether an
195 antimicrobial event comprised of a HPCIA (yes versus no) using complete cases
196 (antimicrobial events with full data on dog identification number, dog age, dog sex, dog
197 breed, clinic identification number, clinic region, veterinary group identification number) in the
198 dataset. This was with the aim of investigating the clustering of HPCIA use within dogs,
199 clinics and veterinary groups. Data at individual veterinarian level were not available. Dog
200 identity number and clinic identity number were added as random effects whilst veterinary
201 group was included as a fixed effect. Clinic and animal identities were included as random
202 effects due to the large number of individual identities at both levels and where the interest
203 was in adjusting for clustering at these levels rather evaluating individual animal or clinic
204 differences. A screening criterion of a univariable p-value <0.25 was applied when
205 considering the inclusion of additional fixed effects (dog age, sex, breed, clinic region)
206 (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2004).

207

208 Model development used a manual backwards stepwise elimination approach. Models
209 without dog identity number, clinic identity number or veterinary group were not considered
210 as this would have prevented the investigation of HPCIA use at these levels. Likelihood ratio
211 tests were used to compare the performance of the new, smaller model to the original. The
212 estimated coefficients of the remaining variables were compared to those from the full model
213 with all variables included to check there was no sizable change in their magnitude (Hosmer
214 and Lemeshow, 2004). Pair-wise interaction effects between age quartile and percentage of
215 HPCIA events in each veterinary group were evaluated. However limited computational
216 power prevented the inclusion of an interaction term in the hierarchical modelling.

217

218 Model performance was assessed using Receiver Operator Curve (ROC) statistics and
219 Hosmer Lemeshow residuals (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2004; Statalist, 2017). Odd Ratios

220 (ORs) and 95% CIs were calculated for each fixed effect variable. The intraclass correlation
221 coefficients (ICCs) at a dog and clinic level were calculated to assess the clustering of
222 HPCIA use, that is the correlation among observations within the same cluster (Dohoo et al.,
223 2003).

224

225 Due to the imbalanced structure of the dataset with most dogs having a single antimicrobial
226 event, the analyses were re-run i) in the same model using a dataset limited to dogs with
227 multiple antimicrobial events only (model 2) and ii) a model with a binary outcome of whether
228 a dog received any HPCIA (model 3) (Fig.1). The ICCs and performance of these models
229 were compared to the main model (model 1) to assess the robustness of the estimates
230 produced.

231

232 Data analyses were conducted in Stata 16 (StataCorp, Texas, USA) and statistical
233 significance was set at the 5% level. These analyses were covered by the VetCompass™
234 research ethics approval from the Royal Veterinary College's Ethics and Welfare Committee
235 (SR2018-1652).

236

237 **Anthropological study**

238 **Data collection**

239 Fieldwork was undertaken by the lead author (AT) over nine months in 2019 at three UK
240 companion animal clinic sites belonging to different large veterinary groups (two commercial
241 and one charitable). The extended nature of placements enabled the researcher to become
242 embedded in the clinic teams who became less conscious of being 'studied'. All aspects of
243 daily clinic life were observed including consultations, surgical procedures, administrative
244 and reception duties. The researcher's non-veterinary background facilitated a 'fresh pair of
245 eyes' (an 'etic' view) on taken-for-granted situations, illuminating the unwritten rules
246 surrounding companion animal veterinary work that become self-evident from an 'emic' view
247 (Russell Bernard, 1985). Within these observation periods, informal interviews were

248 undertaken with veterinarians, support staff and owners to clarify arising issues. Detailed
249 field notes describing relations, language, metaphors, and sense-making between those
250 actors at the interface of antimicrobial use were made with attention paid to both verbal and
251 non-verbal gestures. Additional written data sources included clinic and veterinary group
252 policies and media articles from the mainstream and veterinary press. Semi-structured
253 interviews were also conducted with veterinarians working at fieldwork clinics. These
254 followed a topic guide (Supplementary material 2) but with flexibility to follow up issues
255 raised by interviewees. The formal interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

256

257 **Data analyses**

258 The software NVivo 12 (QSR International Pty Ltd, USA) was used to organise the
259 qualitative data and facilitate thematic coding. Initial, low level codes situated in the data –
260 such as the activity being undertaken or topic being discussed - were developed into more
261 abstract themes (Ziebland and McPherson, 2006). Analysis involved comparing clinics to
262 draw out similarities and differences. Moving to a new physical space - and shifting between
263 emic (insider) and etic (outsider) perspectives - rendered visible the enacted 'common
264 sense' and supporting infrastructures (Chandler, 2019) in each location. Analyses were
265 conducted by the first author and interim findings were discussed amongst the
266 multidisciplinary research team.

267

268 The empirical fieldwork data was considered in response to - and building on - the existing
269 theoretical literature. Anthropologists emphasise that researchers always operate from a
270 particular theoretical position that informs the inflection of the research: It shapes the lines of
271 inquiry, what is tuned into in conversations, what captures the fieldworker's gaze during
272 observations and what is deemed noteworthy. The theoretical orientation informing this
273 study arises from the research in anthropology and science and technology studies,
274 influenced by the ontological turn in the social sciences, which moves from distinctions of
275 'nature' and 'culture' to understanding 'naturecultures' (Haraway, 2003). Anthropologists

276 strive to 'take seriously' their interlocutors and give voice to traditionally marginalised or
277 overlooked groups. As such, this study sought to move beyond blaming veterinarians for
278 being irrational users of antimicrobials and beyond blaming owners for demanding
279 antimicrobials. Instead this project wanted to understand antimicrobial prescribing as an
280 emergent and contingent practice that is enacted under particular economic, social and
281 material conditions (Reynolds Whyte et al., 2002). It was informed by sensory accounts of
282 multispecies encounters (for example Kirksey and Helmreich, 2010) and material semiotic
283 approaches that have previously been used to study care in veterinary work (Law, 2010).

284

285 All study participants gave informed consent. The anthropological study was approved by
286 the research ethics committee of London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine (16126).

287

288 **Results**

289 **Epidemiological study**

290 Descriptive results

291 The cleaned dataset contained 468,665 antimicrobial events across 240,998 dogs with
292 294,016 (62.7%) of these events arising from veterinary group C (Table 1). Of the total
293 antimicrobial events, 29,984 comprised of HPCIA (6.4%, 95% CI: 6.3; 6.5%): this
294 percentage differed between veterinary groups ranging from 4.9 % (95% CI: 4.8; 5.0) in
295 group B to 15.6% (95% CI: 15.2%; 16.1%) in group A ($p < 0.001$). However, the canine and
296 clinic characteristics of antimicrobial events also varied between veterinary groups
297 (Supplementary material 3), potentially confounding this univariable finding although this is
298 accounted for in subsequent multivariable analyses.

299

300 The types of HPCIA used varied between veterinary groups. The higher percentage of
301 HPCIA events in group A was largely composed of fluoroquinolone use which contributed
302 13.4% (95% CI: 12.9;13.8%) to the total antimicrobial events in this group; This compared to
303 4.5% (95% CI: 4.4; 4.7%) in group B and 4.2% (95% CI: 4.2; 4.3%) in group C. Group B –

304 which had the lowest percentage of HPCIA events - had six uses of third generation
305 cephalosporins (0.0% of antimicrobial events), suggesting they were not routinely stocked by
306 clinics in this group. The corresponding results in groups A and C were 2.1% (95% CI: 2.0;
307 2.3%) and 1.9% (95% CI: 1.9; 2.0%) respectively. Macrolide use was low across all groups
308 (n = 1,137 0.2% of antimicrobial events).

309

310 At a clinic level (n = 367), the median percentage of HPCIA events was 5.9 (IQR: 3.4 –
311 10.4%) with a range of 0.0% (10 clinics) to 69.9% (1 clinic). When plotted graphically, a
312 positively (right handed) skewed distribution with a long tail was revealed (Fig. 2). The
313 median number of antimicrobial events per dog was 2 (IQR: 1 - 4, range: 1 - 60), whilst the
314 median number of HPCIA events was 0 (IQR: 0 - 0, range: 0 - 60).

315

316 [Figure 2 - The distribution of the percentage of antimicrobial events comprising of highest
317 priority critically important antimicrobials by clinic (n = 367)]

318

319 **Hierarchical modelling results**

320 All variables met the univariable screening criterion for inclusion in the multivariable model
321 building stage. At this point dog sex was not statistically significant and, therefore, the
322 models comprised of clinic and dog as random effects, and corporate veterinary group, age
323 quartile, breed and clinic region as fixed effects.

324

325 Table 2 reports the main model (model 1) results: The OR of an antimicrobial event
326 comprising of a HPCIA was statistically significantly different between veterinary groups
327 ($p < 0.001$) whilst and was positively associated with increasing quartiles of age. The nine
328 breeds with the greatest OR of an HPCIA event were classified as 'small' (Kennel Club, no
329 date). Compared to the South East, the OR of an event comprising of a HPCIA in Scotland
330 was reduced (0.26, 95% CI: 0.14; 0.49) whilst the corresponding figure for an event at clinics

331 in the north west was 0.47 (95% CI: 0.30; 0.73). In other regions, there was no statistically
332 significantly difference.

333

334 The area under the ROC for the main model (model 1) was 0.983 (95% CI: 0.983; 0.984)
335 and the Hosmer-Lemeshow test was non-significant ($p=0.314$) suggesting an acceptable
336 model fit. When dog identity number was removed as a random effect from the main model
337 (model 1), the area under the ROC fell to 0.712 (95% CI: 0.709; 0.715, Hosmer-Lemeshow
338 p -value 0.231) suggesting that the information contained with dog identity number variable
339 makes a sizeable contribution to the model's performance.

340

341 Comparison of the ICCs in the main model (model 1) suggests HPCIA use is more strongly
342 clustered within a dog (0.710, 95% CI: 0.710; 0.719) than within a clinic (0.089, 95% CI:
343 0.076; 0.104). These estimates were broadly similar across the models 1 to 3
344 (Supplementary material 4). The removal of veterinary group identity number from the main
345 model (model 1) increased the clinic level ICC only slightly to 0.118 (95% CI: 0.102; 0.136).

346

347 **Anthropological study**

348 The statistical model presents a representation of the companion animal veterinary work in
349 which a dog attends a single veterinary clinic and that each clinic is a neatly bounded entity
350 under the umbrella of a corporate veterinary group. Time in the field revealed more fluid
351 structures which are described below. These are presented in an order to reflect the levels of
352 the statistical model.

353

354 ***“Highest priority what?”***

355 HPCIA – the quantitative outcome classification used in the statistical model - had little
356 meaning ‘on the ground’. For example, antimicrobials were organised in clinic based on their
357 formulation type (tablet, injectable) rather than other categorisations. They were referred to

358 by their brand names amongst staff, for instance there was awareness regarding the
359 pressure to restrict use of Convenia (Zoetis), a third-generation cephalosporin. When
360 outlining treatment plans to owners, it was unusual for veterinarians to present choices
361 between different antimicrobials or describe their HPCIA status. More typically a yes/no
362 option was proposed: ‘antibiotics’ were offered or, in some cases, suggestions were made
363 that they should be withheld – at least initially – due to concerns about antimicrobial
364 resistance. The reasoning behind the selection of the antimicrobial agent offered to pet
365 owners was rarely articulated by the veterinarians.

366

367 ***“He’s just not himself”***

368 Whether a dog received antimicrobials was shaped by a complex interplay of canine and
369 owner characteristics. Owners determined if - and when - their dog attended the veterinary
370 clinic and therefore could potentially access antimicrobials. Some owners presented at the
371 first sign of trouble whilst others had to make tricky decisions about when to seek help based
372 on limited financial and time resources. The epidemiological modelling did not investigate
373 this entanglement of biological and social factors.

374

375 Furthermore, these canine-owner knots also influenced prescribing decisions by
376 veterinarians who assessed whether owner characteristics, such as frailty, mobility or
377 financial hardship, may hamper antimicrobial administration or prevent return to the clinic in
378 case of problems. Frontline veterinarians had to balance the immediate welfare needs of the
379 animal in front of them with the less tangible risk of antimicrobial resistance. In such
380 circumstances, the use of long-acting, injectable agents such as Convenia (Zoetis) given
381 then and there ‘made sense’.

382

383 ***“Oh no – here comes the antibiotics police”***

384 Due to the anonymization of information available in VetCompass™, it was not possible to
385 quantitatively investigate variation in HPCIA use at an individual veterinarian level.

386 Observations revealed that this is important with several younger veterinarians taking on the
387 role of local antimicrobials champion. They advised and, in some cases, cajoled their co-
388 workers regarding more appropriate use. However, these champions revealed that they did
389 not feel able to challenge all of their colleagues, in part due to their relative positions in the
390 clinic hierarchy.

391

392 ***“We’re like ships that pass in the night”***

393 Modern ways of working challenge the notion of the veterinary clinic as a bounded unit with
394 a stable workforce and shared practices. Shortages of qualified staff presented ongoing
395 challenges in the fieldwork sites with rota gaps being filled by veterinarians from other clinics
396 or locum staff. In some cases, out-of-hours work was contracted out to separate businesses.
397 However, the flow of staff offered opportunities to share best practice between clinics.

398

399 Staffing patterns could pose issues in terms of continuity of care with pet owners no longer
400 having a ‘usual’ veterinarian. For example, veterinarians were sometimes placed in awkward
401 situations if pet owners had previously been seen by colleagues who had set a precedent by
402 prescribing antimicrobials in conflict with guidelines.

403

404 ***“There’s not enough hours in the day”***

405 Belonging to a large veterinary group presented the potential to share some of the workload
406 associated with antimicrobial stewardship. It was difficult for frontline veterinarians to
407 personally carve out time to undertake such activities because clinical and revenue
408 generating activities take priority under existing business models. At one fieldwork clinic, the
409 corporate headquarters distributed template stewardship materials for completion; however,
410 there was limited local capacity for this work in terms of time and personnel. In another
411 group, a single ‘top-down’, business-wide policy regarding ‘appropriate’ use was introduced
412 but there was muted buy-in at a clinic level. The level of clinic autonomy – for example

413 deciding which drugs to stock – varied between veterinary groups whose organisational
414 cultures differed.

415

416 **Discussion**

417 This study is the first to combine epidemiological and anthropological approaches to provide
418 insights into antimicrobial use in the companion animal veterinary sector to help inform the
419 design of sustainable stewardship interventions for this setting. Based on a large
420 VetCompass™ dataset, the study quantified the variation in the percentage of antimicrobial
421 events comprising of HPCIA between clinics and three different veterinary groups. It also
422 identified that relative HPCIA utilisation was more strongly clustered within dogs than within
423 clinics. The anthropological fieldwork highlighted how the organisational structure of the
424 companion animal veterinary sector was more fluid than that depicted in the statistical
425 model, identifying opportunities and challenges when seeking to intervene regarding
426 antimicrobial use. Table 3 provides a summary of the recommendations for antimicrobial
427 stewardship schemes in companion animal veterinary practice arising from this study.

428

429 The main hierarchical model suggests that the cost influences antimicrobial choice: the odds
430 of an antimicrobial event comprising of a relatively costly HPCIA were higher in low weight
431 breeds in which smaller – less expensive - doses are indicated. In the future, a minimum
432 price could be applied to a HPCIA dispensing event, deterring their use in smaller dog
433 breeds. Recognising that companion animal veterinarians make decisions based on more
434 than clinical factors alone is important when considering how to alter antimicrobial use.

435 Previous research has used clinical vignettes to assess ‘appropriate’ antimicrobial utilisation
436 (Barzelai et al., 2017; Hardefeldt et al., 2017; Van Cleven et al., 2018). However, such
437 methods overlook the day-to-day complexities faced by frontline veterinarians when making
438 choices about antimicrobial use. The model also revealed that the odds of an antimicrobial
439 event comprising of a HPCIA increased as dogs ages. This could be partially explained by

440 the contraindication for fluoroquinolones in young dogs (BSAVA, 2018) or by longitudinal
441 changes in the common conditions treatable using antimicrobials across a dog's life course.

442

443 The quantitative study estimated that the odds of an antimicrobial event comprising a HPCIA
444 was more tightly clustered at a dog level, perhaps reflecting their deployment in dogs with
445 ongoing conditions. Less clustering was calculated at a clinic level suggesting that
446 companion animal veterinarians working in the same clinic do not automatically share ways
447 of working with antimicrobials. It was considered unlikely that within-clinic specialisation by
448 veterinarians may have contributed to this limited within-clinic clustering, such that one
449 clinician may be more likely to deal with dermatological conditions, for example, whilst
450 another specialised in gastro-intestinal disorders. Within VetCompass the vast majority of
451 work is primary care veterinary medicine with little internal referral and, as such, individual
452 veterinarians are likely to treat the spectrum of conditions that present to a clinic. This limited
453 clustering was echoed by the fieldwork finding that the 'clinic' was not found to be the bounded,
454 stable unit modelled in epidemiological studies as well as by work by Singleton et al (2017,
455 supplementary material) where clinic premises explained little of the variance reported.

456

457 A limitation of this study is that the quantitative data was from 2012 to 2014 and it is unclear
458 to what extent these patterns of antimicrobial use persist. This study period was chosen due
459 to the presence of a pre-existing, cleaned VetCompass dataset that facilitated the
460 undertaking of this analysis. A UK-based SAVSNET study found the percentage of HPCIA
461 events increased slightly between 2014 and 2016 (Singleton et al., 2017). Meanwhile, in the
462 Netherlands, a statistically significant decrease in HPCIA use was measured between 2012
463 to 2014; however inter-clinic variation became more pronounced (Hopman et al., 2019a),
464 perhaps suggesting differential uptake of antimicrobial stewardship messaging around
465 HPCIA use. Subsequent to these quantitative data, the British Small Animal Veterinary
466 Association (2018) introduced its UK stewardship campaign which included developing clinic

467 level antimicrobial use policies. It will be interesting to assess whether the clinic level
468 clustering of HPCIA use has subsequently changed.

469

470 From the anonymised clinical data shared with VetCompass™, it was not possible to
471 quantify the clustering of HPCIA use at an individual veterinarian level or include the
472 influence of owner characteristics. Future studies could quantitatively investigate these
473 factors. However, time spent in clinic demonstrated that the decision to use an antimicrobial
474 arose from complex interactions including those between the consulting veterinarian and the
475 companion animal owner, highlighting the benefits of a mixed-methods approach. A previous
476 qualitative study reported that veterinarians feel under pressure from owners to prescribe
477 antimicrobials; however, owners reported that it was the veterinarians themselves who
478 encouraged their use (Smith et al., 2018). Social scientists, meanwhile, have argued that
479 focussing on who to blame overlooks the broader structural factors supporting the continued
480 use of antimicrobials (Chandler, 2019). Future research should further investigate the
481 entangled roles of these actors whilst considering the context in which they operate.

482

483 The percentage of antimicrobial dispensing events comprising of HPCIA's varied widely
484 between veterinary groups largely due to variation in fluoroquinolone use. At a clinic level, a
485 skewed distribution was observed. In the Dutch livestock sector, when defined daily
486 antimicrobial dose per animal was plotted by farm a similarly skewed pattern was noted (Bos
487 et al., 2015). The Netherlands Veterinary Medicines Authority used this as a basis to
488 benchmark establishments and require that any above the 75th percentile – an arbitrary
489 threshold – worked with their veterinarian to reduce their antimicrobial use. A similar
490 approach could be adopted in the companion animal veterinary sector to tackle the 'long tail'
491 of clinics using a higher proportion of HPCIA's. However, careful attention should be paid to
492 the selection of any future benchmarking metric: for example, a clinic may have a high
493 percentage of antimicrobial events comprising of HPCIA's despite a relatively small
494 denominator (total antimicrobial events), thus masking a limited frequency of HPCIA events.

495 Alternatively, veterinarians might be careful users of HPClAs but frequently prescribe other
496 antimicrobials. Future benchmarking could account for both absolute as well as relative
497 usage of antimicrobials overall as well as HPClAs.

498

499 On-the-ground, antimicrobial stewardship activities have to be fitted around existing, income
500 generating workloads. Large veterinary groups may be able to shoulder some of this
501 stewardship burden. However, the fieldwork indicates that careful reflection should be given
502 to considering how best to ensure 'buy-in' by frontline veterinarians. Furthermore, the
503 organisational culture of each veterinary group varied, suggesting an 'off-the-shelf' approach
504 might have limited impact. Whilst recent graduates may be willing to act as local champions
505 for appropriate antimicrobial use, consideration is required of how the hierarchies and
506 gender roles at play in veterinary work (Knights and Clarke, 2019) may help or hinder these
507 activities.

508

509 To date, there has been little published research evaluating the effectiveness of
510 interventions seeking to alter antimicrobial use in the companion animal veterinary sector
511 although several projects are underway. Two studies (Weese, 2006; Sarrazin et al., 2017)
512 focused on the introduction of prescribing guidelines; however, the interpretation of their
513 findings is hampered by methodological issues such as lack of contemporaneous control
514 groups or, in the case Sarrazin et al. (2017), the short follow-up period. Targeting the
515 behaviour of individuals - such as prescribers - is a popular stewardship approach but also
516 one which often has limited impact as it fails to address broader contextual issues supporting
517 the continued use of antimicrobials (Denyer Willis and Chandler, 2019). The current study
518 provides valuable insight into these contextual issues that, to date, have been largely
519 overlooked when seeking to optimise antimicrobial use in the companion animals.

520

521 A more recent trial (Hopman et al., 2019b) tested a multicomponent stewardship approach –
522 which include benchmarking activities, social pledges, veterinarian education and owner

523 information sheets. Total antimicrobial use was reduced by 15% although there was no
524 statistically significant reduction in HPCIA use. Clinics were reimbursed for their involvement
525 which required considerable veterinarian participation. If Hopman et al.'s intensive approach
526 were to be rolled out more widely, the current study suggests that financial reimbursement or
527 provision of veterinary staff to cover clinical duties could be crucial in supporting the
528 completion of stewardship activities. Outside of a research context, it is unclear which
529 commercial, professional, or governmental bodies would provide these.

530

531 To conclude, this rigorous mixed-methods study has provided fresh insights into
532 antimicrobial use in the companion animal veterinary sector. In doing so, it demonstrates the
533 strengths of working across traditional disciplinary silos to better understand and intervene in
534 this area. By using both quantitative and qualitative approaches, it has enabled a deeper
535 understanding of the organisational structure in which an increasing number of companion
536 animal work and how this can influence antimicrobial use. These findings will help inform the
537 design of sustainable stewardship interventions for this setting.

538

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544

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548

549 **Conflicts of interest statement**

550 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

551

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700
701

702 Table 1. The distribution of antimicrobial and HPCIA events by veterinary group in a
 703 VetCompass™ UK dataset from 2012 -2014. Distribution is reported in total and at a clinic
 704 level (No.: Number; HPCIA: Highest priority critical important antimicrobial; CI: confidence
 705 interval; IQR: interquartile range)

706

Vet. Group	No. dogs (%)	No. antimicrobial events (%)	No. HPCIA events (%)	Percentage of antimicrobial events comprising of HPCIAs (95% CI)	No. clinics (%)	Median clinic percentage of antimicrobial events comprising of HPCIAs (IQR)
A	12,565 (5.2)	25,909 (5.5)	4,044 (13.5)	15.6 (15.2;16.1)	90 (24.5)	13.8 (10.9;19.9)
B	83,754 (34.8)	148,740 (31.7)	7,280 (24.3)	4.9 (4.8;5.0)	117 (31.9)	3.7 (2.1;6.1)
C	144,679 (60.0)	294,016 (62.7)	18,660 (62.2)	6.3 (6.3;6.4)	160 (43.6)	5.3 (3.6;7.7)
Total	240,998 (100.0)	468,665 (100.0)	29,984 (100.0)	6.4 (6.3;6.5)	367 (100.0)	5.9 (3.4;10.4)

707

708

709 Table 2. The results of the main hierarchical model (model 1) investigating HPCIA events in
710 a VetCompass™ UK dataset of antimicrobial events from 2012 -2014 (n = 458,599) (No.:
711 Number; HPCIA: Highest priority critical important antimicrobial; CI: confidence interval)

Variable	No. (%)	Odds of HPCIA Exposure (95% CI)	p-value
Veterinary group	B	146,802 (32.0)	1.00
	A	25,417 (5.5)	7.34 (5.14;10.49)
	C	286,380 (62.4)	2.04 (1.56;2.70)
Age quartile	<1.5 years	113,060 (24.7)	1.00
	1.5 to <4.3 years	116,388 (25.4)	2.12 (1.97;2.29)
	4.3 to <8.2 years	113,029 (24.6)	2.95 (2.73;3.18)
	8.2 years and over	116,122 (25.3)	5.02 (4.64;5.43)
Breed	Crossbreed	94,069 (20.5)	1.00
	Staffordshire bull terrier	27,753 (6.1)	0.74 (0.65;0.84)
	Border collie	10,330 (2.3)	0.83 (0.68;1.01)
	Rottweiler	5,947 (1.3)	0.95 (0.74;1.23)
	Labrador retriever	35,097 (7.7)	0.96 (0.86;1.08)
	German shepherd dog	14,686 (3.2)	1.03 (0.87;1.22)
	Golden retriever	7,350 (1.6)	1.04 (0.84;1.30)
	Springer spaniel	7,708 (1.7)	1.22 (0.98;1.51)
	Jack Russell	22,303 (4.9)	1.28 (1.13;1.45)
	English springer spaniel	6,228 (1.4)	1.39 (1.11;1.74)
	Boxer	9,463 (2.1)	1.48 (1.22;1.79)
	All other pure breeds	107,008 (23.3)	1.55 (1.43;1.68)
	Border terrier	5,234 (1.1)	1.70 (1.34;2.15)
	Cavalier King Charles spaniel	11,941 (2.6)	1.85 (1.57;2.18)
	Cocker spaniel	19,289 (4.2)	1.98 (1.73;2.26)
	Bichon fries	7,611 (1.7)	2.09 (1.72;2.54)
	Lhasa apso	6,490 (1.4)	2.31 (1.89;2.84)
	West highland terrier	18,115 (4.0)	2.47 (2.17;2.81)
	Shih tzu	12,618 (2.8)	2.61 (2.24;3.03)
	Yorkshire terrier	14,634 (3.2)	2.83 (2.47;3.23)
Pug	5,849 (1.3)	3.12 (2.52;3.86)	
Chihuahua	8,836 (1.9)	3.31 (2.80;3.92)	
Clinic region	South East	78,224 (17.1)	1.00
	Scotland	18,765 (4.1)	0.26 (0.14;0.49)
	Northern Ireland	5,567 (1.2)	0.41 (0.17;1.01)
	North West	45,192 (9.9)	0.47 (0.30;0.73)
	North East	42,324 (9.2)	0.69 (0.41;1.14)
	West Midlands	46,924 (10.2)	0.71 (0.45;1.11)
	East Midlands	54,458 (11.9)	0.71 (0.45;1.11)
	Greater London	41,402 (9.0)	0.74 (0.49;1.11)
	East of England	65,092 (14.2)	0.80 (0.55;1.16)
	South West	45,011 (9.8)	0.88 (0.59;1.40)
	Channel Islands	926 (0.2)	0.98 (0.14;6.80)
	Wales	14,714 (3.2)	1.02 (0.53;1.96)

712

713 Table 3. Recommendations for antimicrobial stewardship schemes in companion animal
714 veterinary clinics

Tailor language to reflect target audiences.

Address the structural influences supporting antimicrobial use (for example their physical accessibility in clinic).

Provide tools to support vet-owner discussions regarding antimicrobials.

Make stewardship activities inclusive to all staff including those working part-time, as locums or hour-of-hours.

Support antimicrobial champions by strengthening the evidence base regarding clinical outcomes when adhering to prescribing guidelines.

Incorporate mandatory antimicrobial stewardship training in CPD requirements.

Encourage benchmarking by the provision of accessible benchmarking tools and services such as SAVSNET-AMR (Radford et al., 2017).

715

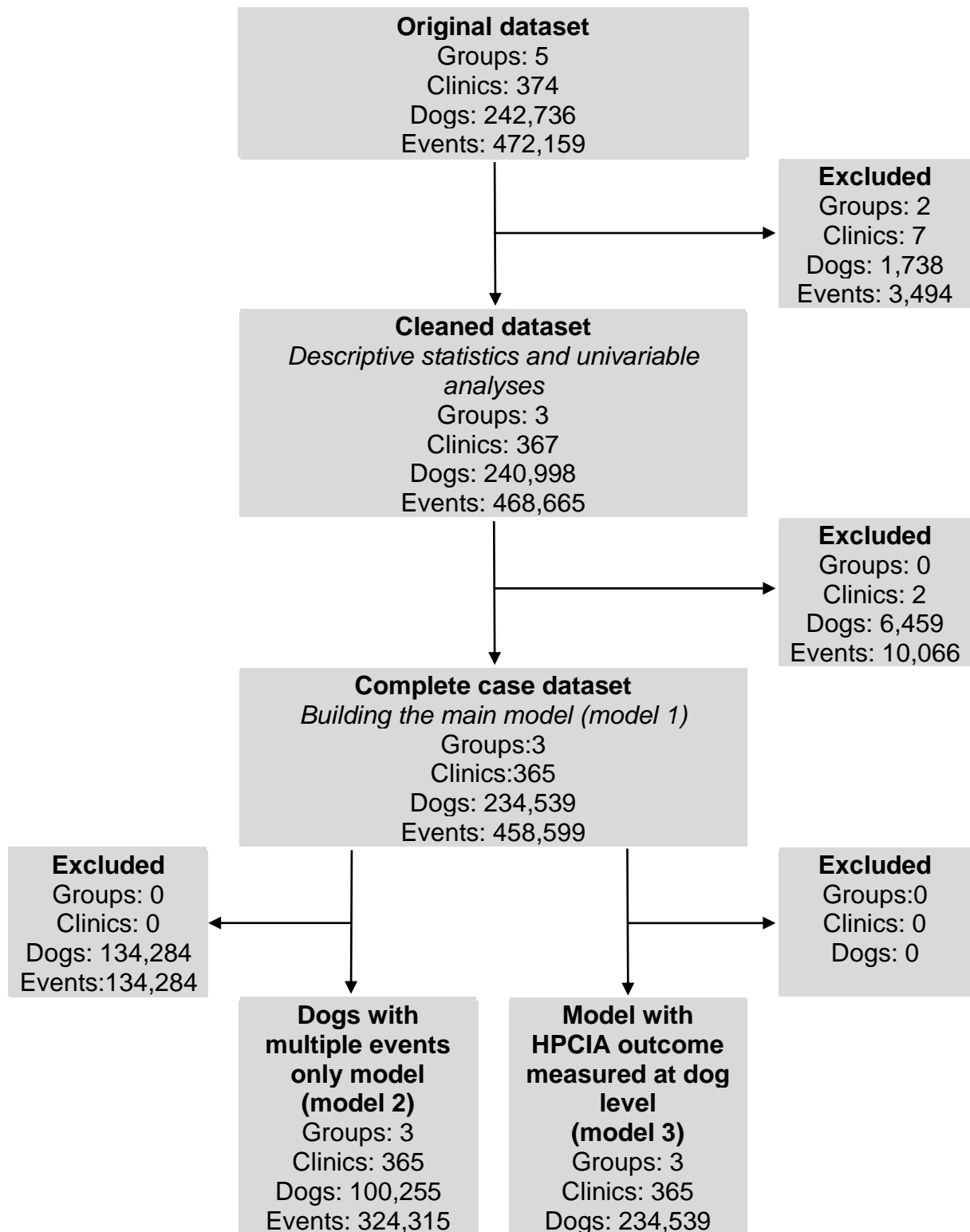


Figure 1 - The flow of data through the VetCompass™ epidemiological study including the hierarchical models

Figure 2. The distribution of the percentage of antimicrobial events comprising of highest priority critically important antimicrobials by clinic (n = 367)

