The Core Elements of Antibiotic Stewardship for Nursing Homes

APPENDIX A: Policy and Practice Actions to Improve Antibiotic Use

National Center for Emerging and Zoonotic Infectious Diseases
Division of Healthcare Quality Promotion
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This document contains more detailed explanations of policy and practice actions which can be taken by nursing homes as part of their antibiotic stewardship activities.

Antibiotic prescribing and use policies

Documentation of dose, duration, and indication. Specify the dose (including route), duration (i.e., start date, end date, and planned days of therapy), and indication, which includes both rationale (i.e., prophylaxis vs. therapeutic) and treatment site (i.e., urinary tract, respiratory tract), for every course of antibiotics. This bundle of antibiotic prescribing elements should be documented for both nursing home-initiated antibiotic courses as well as courses continued in the nursing home which were initiated by a transferring facility or emergency department. Documenting and making this information accessible (e.g., verifying indication and planned duration is documented on transfer paperwork) helps ensure that antibiotics can be modified as needed based on additional laboratory and clinical data and/or discontinued in a timely manner.¹
Establish best practices for use of microbiology testing. Inappropriate use of microbiology tests in nursing homes may drive unnecessary antibiotic treatment. For example, submitting urine cultures or \textit{C. difficile} stool tests to demonstrate “test of cure” following clinical resolution after an appropriate treatment course may uncover asymptomatic colonization and drive additional unnecessary antibiotic exposure. Review the current protocols and laboratory testing practices to ensure that laboratory tests are used correctly in your facility (e.g., your facility should not require one or more negative \textit{C. difficile} stool studies following completion of therapy for \textit{C. difficile} infection). Identifying and reducing inappropriate use of laboratory testing may be a high-yield effort for improving antibiotic use and reducing other management costs.

Develop facility-specific treatment recommendations. Facility-specific treatment recommendations, based on national guidelines and local susceptibilities can optimize antibiotic selection and duration, particularly for common indications for antibiotic use like pneumonia, urinary tract infection, and skin and soft tissue infections.

Review the antibiotic agents available in the facility including an inventory of drugs accessible during off hours (e.g., emergency kit or overnight box) to ensure availability is not a barrier to use of preferred agents.

Broad interventions to improve antibiotic use

Develop and implement algorithms for the assessment of residents suspected of having an infection using evidence-based guidance.

Utilize a communication tool for residents suspected of having an infection. Since attending physicians, nurse practitioners and/or physician assistants are not always available on-site in nursing homes, a significant amount of management of nursing home residents is mediated via phone interactions. Clinical providers must rely on the assessment and information conveyed to them by the front-line nursing staff to make diagnostic and treatment decisions. Barriers to effective telephone interactions between physicians and nurses, such as inadequate preparation or feeling rushed on the phone,
likely impact the quality of information exchange. Implementing structured communication tools to guide nursing-physician interactions (e.g., situation, background, assessment, recommendation, or SBAR protocol) may improve the quality of communication and the subsequent management process when an infection is suspected. Communication tools used to facilitate information when a resident is suspected of having an infection should include key pieces of the clinical history including new symptoms and complaints, physical exam findings (e.g., vital signs, pulse oximetry, localizing pain, etc.) and other relevant information (e.g., previous antibiotic exposure, previous culture and susceptibility results, current medications, and medication allergy history). Forms used for this information exchange could not only include information about the resident from nursing staff, but also options for how the off-site provider may want to manage the resident based on the information provided (e.g., hydrate and monitor, send further diagnostic tests, initiate treatment). In addition, any tools or forms utilized to improve communication should become part of the resident’s medical record to improve documentation of decision making.

Develop and disseminate a facility-specific report of antibiotic susceptibility to clinical providers. Nursing homes should work with consultant laboratories to create a facility-specific summary of antibiotic susceptibility patterns from the organisms commonly isolated in microbiology cultures. One example of a susceptibility summary is called an antibiogram. Antibiograms are tables developed by the microbiology laboratory showing the percent susceptibility for a panel of common bacteria tested against a panel of common antibiotics. Nursing home laboratories may have to tailor the antibiogram based on the facility’s diagnostic testing practices. For example, a nursing home antibiogram may only include organisms causing urinary tract infection if urine cultures are the most frequent test sent to the laboratory. Antibiograms may be updated every 12 to 24 months, based on the number of cultures submitted by a facility. Summaries of susceptibility patterns should be disseminated to frontline nursing staff, clinical providers and consultant pharmacists as an educational tool and to guide management decisions.

Perform antibiotic “time outs.” Antibiotics are often started empirically in nursing home residents when the resident has a change in
physical or mental status while diagnostic information is being obtained. However, providers often do not revisit the selection of the antibiotic after more clinical and laboratory data (including culture results) become available.\textsuperscript{11,12} An antibiotic “time out” is a formal process designed to prompt a reassessment of the ongoing need for and choice of an antibiotic once more data is available including: the clinical response, additional diagnostic information, and alternate explanations for the status change which prompted the antibiotic start. Nursing homes should have a process in place for a review of antibiotics by the clinical team two to three days after antibiotics are initiated to answer these key questions:

- Does this resident have a bacterial infection that will respond to antibiotics?
- If so, is the resident on the most appropriate antibiotic(s), dose, and route of administration?
- Can the spectrum of the antibiotic be narrowed or the duration of therapy shortened (i.e., de-escalation)?
- Would the resident benefit from additional infectious disease/antibiotic expertise to ensure optimal treatment of the suspected or confirmed infection?

**Reduce prolonged antibiotic treatment courses for common infections.** A large study of antibiotic prescribing practices in nursing homes demonstrated that over 50% of antibiotic treatment courses extended beyond a week with no correlation with resident characteristics or type of infection being treated.\textsuperscript{13} Given the growing body of evidence that short courses of antibiotics are effective for common infections,\textsuperscript{14–16} interventions designed to decrease antibiotic duration among nursing home residents may reduce the complications and adverse events associated with antibiotic exposure.

**Pharmacy interventions to improve antibiotic use**

**Review of antibiotic prescriptions** as part of the drug regimen review (F-tag 428) for new medications is an existing practice for the
The prevalence of ASB, bacteriuria without localizing signs or symptoms of infection, ranges from 25% to 50% in non-catheterized nursing home residents and up to 100% among those with long-term urinary catheters. Antibiotic use for treatment of ASB in nursing home residents does not confer any long-term benefits in preventing symptomatic urinary tract infections (UTI) or improving mortality, and may actually increase the incidence of adverse drug events and result in subsequent infections with antibiotic-resistant pathogens. The unreliable clinical assessment for infections in nursing home residents coupled with the diagnostic uncertainties in differentiating ASB from infection contributes greatly to inappropriate antibiotic use and its related complications. Suspected UTIs account for 30% to 60% of antibiotic prescriptions in nursing homes. Implementing a set of diagnostic testing and management algorithms to help providers differentiate ASB from symptomatic UTI has been shown to reduce inappropriate antibiotic use for ASB.
Reduce antibiotic prophylaxis for prevention of UTI. Surveys of antibiotic use have shown that UTI prophylaxis accounts for a significant proportion of antibiotic prescriptions. Very few studies support antibiotic use for UTI prophylaxis, especially in older adults, and many studies have shown this antibiotic exposure increases risk of side effects and resistant organisms. Therefore, efforts to educate providers on the potential harm of antibiotics for UTI prophylaxis could reduce unnecessary antibiotic exposure and improve resident outcomes.

Optimize management of nursing home-associated pneumonia. Limited access to high-quality diagnostic testing makes the differentiation of viral and bacterial causes of lower respiratory tract infections very difficult in nursing home residents. Implementation of algorithms for diagnosis and management of nursing home-associated pneumonia may be valuable in helping guide decision-making about use of antibiotics and need for hospital transfer.

Optimize use of superficial cultures for management of chronic wounds. Although obtaining specimens for wound culture can help guide antimicrobial treatment, reliance on superficial swab cultures alone may drive inappropriate or unnecessary antibiotic use. Superficial wound swabs cannot differentiate bacterial colonization from infection and there may be a lack of correlation between organisms identified by superficial swab cultures compared with deep tissue cultures. Reviewing the indications for obtaining cultures in residents with chronic wounds (e.g., presence of purulent drainage) and assessing the type of specimen submitted for culture (e.g., superficial swab vs. tissue specimen from debrided wound base) may identify opportunities for improving antibiotic use in residents with chronic wounds.
References


