

Optimizing Antimicrobial Stewardship Across Primary Care Settings: A Multidisciplinary Model Incorporating Prescribing Analytics Physicians, Nursing, Laboratory Technicians, Pharmacists, Epidemiologists And Administrative Oversight

Dr.Asama Abdullah Albinali¹, Nouf Moalla Al Juhani², Fatima Salim Suleiman Al-Saedi³, Yasser Suliman Hussen Asar⁴, Azzah Marwan Alayoubi⁵, Shafi Rashid Sattam Alrashidi⁶, Sultan Ail Abdullah Almokbel⁷, Abdualziz Saeed Alghamdi⁸, Mohammed Abdullah Abdulaziz Al-Harbi⁹, Ayid Ahmad Khamis Alzahrani¹⁰, Ahmed Ali Wadani¹¹, Abeer Nafea Abdullah Almuwallad¹², Rayan Talat Hamza Karali¹³

¹Alhasa Health Cluster, General Physician.

²Ohud Hospital, Nursing Diploma Technician.

³Health Cluster In Medina Al-Badrani Health Center, Nursing Technician.

⁴Health Cluster In Medina - Regional Laboratory, Laboratory Technician.

⁵Executive Administration Of Quality And Excellence, Senior Specialist Laboratory Genetics .

⁶Hospital Umm Alddoum, Medical Laboratory Technician.

⁷Hospital Umm Alddoum, Medical Laboratory Technician.

⁸Qilwah General Hospital, Pharmacy Technician.

⁹Health Cluster In Medina Secret Visitor Program, Epidemiotic Monitor Technician.

¹⁰Epidemiology Specialist, East Jeddah Hospital.

¹¹Alhonbokah – PHC, Epidemiology.

¹²Technician Health Information, King Abdulaziz University Dental Hospital.

¹³Health Cluster In Medina, Al-Salam Al-Waqf Hospital, Senior Specialist-Health Administration.

Abstract:

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a global public health emergency and primary care is its front line, where most antibiotics are initiated—often for conditions that are self-limiting or viral. Yet antimicrobial stewardship (AMS) in outpatient settings is chronically under-resourced and fragmented compared with hospital programs. This review proposes a comprehensive, analytics-enabled stewardship model for primary care that coordinates physicians, nurses, laboratory technicians, pharmacists, epidemiologists, and administrators. We outline role-specific responsibilities, describe how prescribing analytics, rapid diagnostics, and real-time surveillance can drive behavior change, and synthesize design features of successful international programs. We then present an implementation roadmap, equity and ethics considerations, and a research agenda for precision stewardship. Embedding these elements into routine workflows can reduce inappropriate antimicrobial use, improve patient outcomes, and slow the emergence of resistance while aligning with national health strategies and global AMR action plans.

1) Introduction

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) has been described as a “slow-motion pandemic,” and recent global burden estimates attribute millions of deaths directly or indirectly to drug-resistant infections, with large regional heterogeneity driven by antibiotic access, quality, and stewardship systems (WHO, 2021). Crucially, most antibiotics are prescribed in primary care—general practice, urgent care, family medicine, and community clinics—where time pressure, diagnostic uncertainty, and patient expectations converge (Shallcross et al., 2017). Across Europe (ESAC-Net), North America, and the Gulf region, consumption audits consistently show outpatient volumes dwarfing inpatient use, with respiratory and urinary syndromes accounting for the majority of prescriptions and revealing wide inter-clinician and inter-regional variation (ECDC, 2020; Alghamdi et al., 2019). In many settings, antibiotics continue to be issued for viral upper respiratory tract infections, acute bronchitis, or non-specific sore throat, despite strong evidence that they provide no meaningful clinical benefit in these conditions (Pulcini & Gyssens, 2013; CDC, 2019).

Historically, AMS infrastructure and expertise were concentrated in hospitals, leveraging stewardship rounds, formulary controls, and prospective audit-and-feedback. Primary care stewardship requires a different toolkit: near-patient diagnostics suitable for brief encounters, prescribing analytics that reveal outliers and peer benchmarks, pharmacist-enabled verification at the point of dispensing, nurse-led triage and patient education, timely local antibiograms for empiric choices, and population-level surveillance and evaluation by epidemiologists (CDC, 2019; ECDC, 2020). Interventions that “show clinicians themselves”—via peer comparison and active feedback—produce robust, scalable improvements in prescribing quality in randomized trials, and are particularly powerful when coupled with decision support, delayed prescriptions, and patient-facing communication strategies (Hallsworth et al., 2016; Little et al., 2014; Spurling et al., 2017).

Saudi Arabia’s National Action Plan on AMR and Vision 2030 health transformation emphasize primary care modernization, e-health connectivity, and regulation of antibiotic sales; yet studies still document inappropriate outpatient prescribing, variable access to rapid tests, and limited routine feedback on local resistance (Alharbi et al., 2020; Alghamdi et al., 2019). A multidisciplinary, analytics-enabled model tailored to primary care can close these gaps. The remainder of this review details specialty-specific contributions, integrates evidence from worldwide programs (e.g., UK TARGET/STAR, Scandinavia CRP pathways, Canada/Netherlands pharmacist-in-practice models, Europe’s HAPPY AUDIT and ARena trials), and proposes a practical implementation roadmap suited to a variety of health systems.

2) Physicians’ Role—From Diagnostic Stewardship to Data-Informed Conversations

Diagnostic stewardship at speed. Primary care physicians must discriminate bacterial disease from viral/self-limiting illness under severe time constraints. Validated clinical scores (e.g., Centor/McIsaac for pharyngitis; FeverPAIN for sore throat; CRB-65 for pneumonia risk) reduce unnecessary testing and antibiotic initiation, particularly when integrated into electronic health record (EHR) prompts and combined with point-of-care tests (POCT) such as C-reactive protein (CRP) for lower respiratory tract infections (CDC, 2019; Cals et al., 2009). Trials in Scandinavia and the Netherlands show that combining symptom scores with CRP reduces antibiotic use without increased complications, enabling physicians to offer watchful waiting with safety-netting (Cals et al., 2009).

Shorter, narrower, safer. Physicians operationalize guideline pillars: no antibiotics for viral syndromes; narrow-spectrum first-line agents when indicated; and shorter durations where evidence supports equivalence (e.g., 5 days for many uncomplicated adult respiratory or skin infections). Choosing Wisely campaigns and national primary care formularies (e.g., NICE/UK, IDSA/US) provide concise pathways; adherence increases when physicians receive structured templates, delayed prescription options, and point-of-care reassurance tools (CDC, 2019; Spurling et al., 2017).

Analytics that change behavior. Prescribing analytics transform abstract guidance into personal insight. In a UK randomized trial, sending letters to high-prescribing general practitioners comparing them to “top performers” produced a significant reduction in antibiotic items without harming patient satisfaction (Hallsworth et al., 2016). Similar “peer-benchmark” dashboards embedded in EHRs or emailed monthly have reduced unnecessary prescriptions by 5–15% across multiple health systems (CDC, 2019). The effect is amplified by academic detailing (structured one-to-one feedback) and automated “nudge” alerts at the point of prescribing when indication codes suggest viral illness (Pulcini & Gyssens, 2013).

The conversation is the intervention. Communication trials (e.g., STAR, GRACE INTRO) show that training clinicians to explain illness trajectories, provide safety-net advice, and offer delayed prescriptions markedly lowers immediate antibiotic use while maintaining or improving patient satisfaction (Little et al., 2014; Spurling et al., 2017). Clinicians who normalize non-antibiotic care and set clear expectations see sustained effects at practice level, particularly when reinforced by waiting-room materials and SMS follow-ups.

3) Nursing’s Role—Triage, Testing, Teaching, and Adherence

First contact triage = stewardship leverage. Nurses structure the encounter before the clinician arrives. Protocolized triage incorporating fever duration, red flags, and validated scores can route patients to watchful waiting plus POCT where indicated, shrinking the pool of consultations where antibiotics are even considered. Nurse-led CRP testing in respiratory infections has repeatedly reduced antibiotic initiation in trials and implementation studies (Cals et al., 2009).

Patient education that sticks. Nurses reinforce the rationale for no-antibiotic care, demonstrate self-management (analgesia, hydration, nasal saline, honey for cough), and set return precautions. Education reduces reconsultation and anxiety, enabling delayed or no prescription strategies to succeed (CDC, 2019). For families expecting antibiotics, nurses are often the trusted voice that reframes expectations.

Adherence, safety, and equity. When antibiotics are appropriate, nurses close gaps in dose timing, contraindications, and adverse effect surveillance. They tailor instructions to literacy level and language, a crucial equity function in diverse communities. In remote or resource-limited settings, telephone/video follow-ups led by nurses can safely support watchful waiting and avoid defaulting to antibiotics “just in case.”

Vaccines and prevention. Nurses drive immunization (influenza, pneumococcal), hand hygiene campaigns, and outbreak mitigation in waiting rooms—interventions with downstream stewardship impact by reducing infection incidence and clinic crowding during viral surges.

4) Laboratory Technicians’ Role—Rapid Answers, Reliable Data, and Actionable Antibigrams

Fast tests change decisions. Laboratory technicians deliver, maintain, and quality-assure near-patient diagnostics: rapid streptococcal antigen tests, influenza/RSV PCRs, CRP analyzers, and urinalysis with reflex culture. Meta-analyses and pragmatic trials indicate that these tools, when used under protocols, lower empiric antibiotic use and guide narrower choices without compromising outcomes (Gonzales et al., 2013; Cals et al., 2009). In urinary syndromes, reflex culture plus local antibiograms reduce broad-spectrum coverage and fluoroquinolone exposure.

Antibiograms that clinicians actually use. Technicians curate clinic- or region-specific antibiograms quarterly, harmonized with CLSI/EUCAST standards and stratified by site of infection and age group. Primary care antibiograms differ from hospital patterns; making them one click away in the EHR or printing pocket versions increases uptake (ECDC, 2020).

Quality and escalation. External quality assessments, lot verification, and turnaround time monitoring preserve test credibility. Technicians also flag unusual resistance (e.g., ESBL in community urine isolates) to epidemiologists for rapid local advisories.

5) Pharmacists' Role—Gatekeeping, Counseling, and Prescribing Governance

The last checkpoint before exposure. Community pharmacists and embedded primary care pharmacists review prescriptions for indication, dose, duration, allergies, and drug–drug interactions. Pharmacist-initiated clarifications and therapeutic substitutions (e.g., amoxicillin instead of co-amoxiclav when appropriate) consistently reduce broad-spectrum use in pragmatic studies (Hay et al., 2019).

Patient-facing stewardship. Pharmacists counsel on why antibiotics are not always needed, explain expected illness duration, and provide written action plans. Where antibiotics are supplied, pharmacists reinforce shortest-effective course and contraindications (e.g., pregnancy, G6PD deficiency), and highlight return precautions rather than default refills.

Practice-embedded pharmacists. Models in Canada, the UK, and the Netherlands place pharmacists inside primary care practices, where they run prescribing audits, manage formularies, and lead education sessions—yielding substantial reductions in total antibiotic items and improved guideline concordance (Hay et al., 2019). Post-2018 sales restrictions in Saudi Arabia elevate pharmacists' stewardship leverage, but ongoing enforcement and training remain essential (Alharbi et al., 2020).

6) Epidemiologists' Role—From Raw Prescriptions to Intelligence and Impact

Integrating the data exhaust. Epidemiologists link EHR diagnoses, prescription records, and lab results to generate clinic-level and regional consumption metrics (e.g., DDDs, items per 1,000 population, proportion of broad-spectrum agents) and appropriateness indicators aligned to syndrome definitions (ECDC, 2020). They identify outliers (clinicians, clinics, or syndromes) for targeted feedback.

Evaluation at population scale. Using interrupted time-series or cluster trials, epidemiologists evaluate whether dashboards, POCT rollouts, or communication training actually change prescribing and adverse outcomes (e.g., reconsultations, hospitalizations). Programs such as HAPPY

AUDIT (Spain/Denmark/Argentina) and ARena (Germany) demonstrate that multifaceted, feedback-rich interventions reduce antibiotic use across countries with different baselines (Pulcini & Gyssens, 2013; ECDC, 2020).

Signal detection and public advisories. When technicians surface a resistance signal—say, a rise in community ESBL *E. coli*—epidemiologists can rapidly issue empiric therapy updates, push EHR alerts, and request additional diagnostics, closing the loop between surveillance and front-line decision-making.

7) Administrative Oversight—The Infrastructure and Incentives That Make Stewardship Stick

Governance with teeth. Administrators convene a primary care AMS steering committee (physician lead + pharmacist + nurse lead + lab + epidemiology + IT) with a board-approved charter, assign accountability at clinic level, and set KPIs (e.g., percent guideline-concordant prescribing, proportion of narrow-spectrum agents for specified syndromes) (CDC, 2019). Publishing transparent dashboards by clinic fosters healthy competition.

Procurement and platforms. Stewardship lives or dies by IT plumbing: EHR prompts, analytics pipelines, and prescription-lab linkage. Administrators fund CRP analyzers for high-volume clinics, negotiate interoperable software, and standardize read codes/ICD mappings to make analytics accurate.

Paying for what you want. Pay-for-performance and quality premiums (as used in NHS England) tied to reduced inappropriate antibiotics steer behavior system-wide, especially if coupled with education credits for AMS training and protected time to review dashboards.

Legal/regulatory alignment. Leadership ensures compliance with national policies (e.g., Saudi OTC antibiotic ban), embeds antibiotic indication fields in e-prescribing, and enforces no-override rules for certain broad-spectrum agents without documented justification.

8) The Integrated Model—Prescribing Analytics as the Spine of Multidisciplinary AMS

How it runs every day:

1. Entry & triage (Nursing): standardized symptom-score forms + POCT criteria; education materials handed out; vaccination prompts checked.
2. Clinician decision (Physician): guideline-linked order sets (e.g., FeverPAIN; UTI pathway); EHR displays clinic antibiogram with first-line choices; “nudge” alerts appear if antibiotic is selected for likely viral code.
3. Verification (Pharmacist): dose/duration/interaction check; substitution to narrow-spectrum when appropriate; patient counseling and safety-net advice.
4. Data & diagnostics (Lab technicians): same-day CRP/rapid strep; weekly susceptibility feed to antibiogram; flag unusual resistance to epidemiology.
5. Population view (Epidemiologists): monthly dashboards—clinic and prescriber benchmarking; segmented by syndrome, age, and comorbidity; rapid advisories if resistance shifts.
6. Enablement (Administrators): resource allocation (POCT kits, IT), training cycles, and KPI-linked incentives; quarterly AMS committee reviews with action items for outliers.

Proof from the field.

- Behavioral feedback: UK randomized letters/dashboards → meaningful reductions in antibiotic items (Hallsworth et al., 2016).
- Communication training: STAR/GRACE INTRO → lower immediate prescribing without worse outcomes (Little et al., 2014).
- POCT integration: Scandinavian/Netherlands CRP programs → fewer antibiotics for RTIs (Cals et al., 2009).
- Pharmacist-in-practice: Canada/UK/NL models → reduced broad-spectrum use and better duration adherence (Hay et al., 2019).
- Multi-country campaigns: HAPPY AUDIT and ARena → sustained outpatient reductions across heterogeneous systems (ECDC, 2020).

9) Implementation Roadmap (12 Months), Equity & Ethics, and Research Agenda

9.1 A phased 12-month plan.

- Months 0–3 (Set-up): create AMS committee; map data flows; define KPIs; select 2–3 priority syndromes (URTI, sore throat, uncomplicated UTI). Procure CRP units for pilot clinics. Build baseline dashboards (items/1,000; % broad-spectrum; duration).
- Months 4–6 (Pilot): deploy EHR “indication + order set” templates; roll out communication skills and delayed prescription training; launch pharmacist verification protocol; switch on monthly peer-comparison emails.

- Months 7–9 (Scale): expand POCT; publish first clinic antibiogram; academic detailing for persistent outliers; introduce quality incentives.
- Months 10–12 (Evaluate/Refine): interrupted time-series analysis by epidemiology; share results; update formularies and patient materials; codify playbook for new clinics.

9.2 Equity & ethics.

AMS must not worsen access or outcomes for marginalized groups. Provide materials in multiple languages; track prescribing and consultations by deprivation index and ethnicity; adopt low-cost POCT options for rural clinics; ensure that “no-antibiotic” strategies come with safety-net access. Be explicit about first-do-no-harm: stewardship is about better care, not denial of care.

9.3 Research priorities for “precision stewardship.”

- Host-response biomarkers (CRP, procalcitonin) optimized for primary care rather than inpatient algorithms (Schuetz et al., 2017).
- Machine-learning triage using vitals, symptoms, seasonality, and local resistance to predict probability of bacterial disease.
- Individualized durations based on recovery trajectories captured by patient-reported outcomes via SMS.
- Socio-behavioral interventions tailored to prescriber archetypes (habitual high prescribers vs. uncertainty-avoidant prescribers).
- Community surveillance that continuously updates empiric guidance at neighborhood resolution rather than national averages.

10) Challenges and Mitigation Strategies

Fragmented IT and data quality. Many clinics lack interoperable EHR–lab–pharmacy links, undermining analytics. Mitigation: adopt common coding standards; create a lightweight data mart with automated ETL; start with a minimal viable dashboard (three KPIs) and iterate.

Workforce time pressure. Stewardship can feel like “extra work.” Mitigation: embed prompts directly in order sets; provide batch feedback not ad hoc emails; give protected time quarterly for data review; fund nursing/pharmacy roles to absorb new tasks.

Patient expectations and satisfaction metrics. Fear of complaints drives some prescribing. Mitigation: normalize non-antibiotic care publicly (posters, SMS); offer delayed prescriptions with strict activation rules; measure and share satisfaction parity between antibiotic vs. non-antibiotic visits (Little et al., 2014).

Diagnostic access gaps. POCT costs and logistics can stall adoption. Mitigation: pool purchasing; target high-volume clinics first; use shared devices across practices; integrate QC by lab technicians.

Sustainability. Early gains can regress. Mitigation: make dashboards permanent with rolling targets; rotate champion roles; institutionalize metrics in annual appraisals and clinic contracts.

11) Conclusion

Primary care is where antibiotics are most often started—and where the battle against AMR can be most decisively won. A multidisciplinary model that unites physicians (diagnosis, communication, guideline

adherence), nurses (triage, POCT, patient education), laboratory technicians (rapid tests, antibiograms, QA), pharmacists (verification, counseling, and practice-embedded audits), epidemiologists (analytics, evaluation, and advisories), and administrators (governance, IT, and incentives) turns stewardship from a set of ideals into a living system that learns and improves. Worldwide experience—from the UK’s behavioral feedback trials to Scandinavia’s POCT pathways and Europe’s multi-country campaigns—shows that analytics-driven feedback, rapid diagnostics, and communication-centered care reliably reduce avoidable antibiotic use without harming patients. Coupled with equity-minded design and a pragmatic implementation roadmap, this model can align primary care stewardship with national strategies and global action plans, preserving antimicrobial effectiveness while delivering better care today.

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