

Principles of Appropriate Antibiotic Use for Acute Pharyngitis in Adults: Background

Richelle J. Cooper, MD, MSHS; Jerome R. Hoffman, MA, MD; John G. Bartlett, MD; Richard E. Besser, MD; Ralph Gonzales, MD, MSPH; John M. Hickner, MD, MSc; and Merle A. Sande, MD*

The following principles of appropriate antibiotic use for adults with acute pharyngitis apply to immunocompetent adults without complicated comorbid conditions, such as chronic lung or heart disease, and history of rheumatic fever. They do not apply during known outbreaks of group A streptococcus.

1. *Group A β -hemolytic streptococcus (GABHS) is the causal agent in approximately 10% of adult cases of pharyngitis. The large majority of adults with acute pharyngitis have a self-limited illness, for which supportive care only is needed.*

2. *Antibiotic treatment of adult pharyngitis benefits only those patients with GABHS infection. All patients with pharyngitis should be offered appropriate doses of analgesics and antipyretics, as well as other supportive care.*

3. *Limit antibiotic prescriptions to patients who are most likely to have GABHS infection. Clinically screen all adult patients with pharyngitis for the presence of the four Centor criteria: history of fever, tonsillar exudates, no cough, and tender anterior cervical lymphadenopathy (lymphadenitis). Do not test or treat patients with none or only one of these criteria, since these patients are unlikely to have GABHS infection. For patients with two or more criteria the following strategies are appropriate:*

a) Test patients with two, three, or four criteria by using a rapid antigen test, and limit antibiotic therapy to patients with positive test results; b) test patients with two or three criteria by using a rapid antigen test, and limit antibiotic therapy to patients with positive test results or patients with four criteria; or c) do not use any diagnostic tests, and limit antibiotic therapy to patients with three or four criteria.

4. *Throat cultures are not recommended for the routine primary evaluation of adults with pharyngitis or for confirmation of negative results on rapid antigen tests when the test sensitivity exceeds 80%. Throat cultures may be indicated as part of investigations of outbreaks of GABHS disease, for monitoring the development and spread of antibiotic resistance, or when such pathogens as gonococcus are being considered.*

5. *The preferred antibiotic for treatment of acute GABHS pharyngitis is penicillin, or erythromycin in a penicillin-allergic patient.*

Ann Intern Med. 2001;134:509-517.

www.annals.org

For author affiliations and current addresses, see end of text.

1.0 BACKGROUND

Sore throat is one of the most common chief complaints of adults treated in an outpatient setting. Although its differential diagnosis is large and includes many other causes that are important to recognize (Table), the vast majority of immunocompetent adults presenting with sore throat have acute infectious pharyngitis. Most of the widespread antibiotic use in such patients is based on an effort to treat bacterial (particularly streptococcal) pharyngitis. Recognition and specific treatment of some of these other sore throat entities are important but are beyond the scope of this paper, which addresses the treatment of nongonococcal, nondiphtherial acute pharyngitis in healthy adults.

1.1 Acute pharyngitis accounts for 1% to 2% of all visits to outpatient departments, physician offices, and emergency departments (1). A wide range of infectious agents, most commonly viruses, cause acute pharyngitis. Approximately 5% to 15% of cases in adults are caused by group A β -hemolytic streptococcus (GABHS) (2–7). In some patients, it can be important to identify an infectious cause other than GABHS (for example, gonococcal pharyngitis, Epstein–Barr virus, and acute HIV infection), but in the vast majority of cases, acute pharyngitis in an otherwise healthy adult is self-limited and rarely produces significant sequelae.

1.2 Antibiotics are prescribed to a substantial majority (approximately 75%) of adult patients with acute

*After the primary authors (Drs. Cooper and Hoffman), authors are listed in alphabetical order.

In addition to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, the principles outlined in this document have been endorsed by the American Academy of Family Physicians and the American College of Physicians–American Society of Internal Medicine.

Annals of Internal Medicine encourages readers to copy and distribute this paper, providing such distribution is not for profit. Commercial distribution is not permitted without the express permission of the publisher.

Table. Differential Diagnosis of Sore Throat in the Immunocompetent Adult

Epiglottitis
Ludwig angina
Retropharyngeal abscess
Peritonsillar abscess
Thyroiditis
Gastroesophageal reflux
Oropharyngeal or laryngeal tumor
Pharyngitis (infectious, traumatic)

pharyngitis (8). Physicians report that they prescribe unwarranted antibiotics because they believe that patients expect them, that patients will reconsult if antibiotics are not prescribed, that patients will be unsatisfied without a prescription, and that it is quicker to write a prescription than to explain why a prescription is not indicated (9–11). However, physicians are not very good at predicting which patients expect antibiotics (11, 12), and patient satisfaction depends less on whether an antibiotic is prescribed, or even whether preconsultation expectations are met, than on whether the physician shows concern and provides reassurance (9, 11–15). Delaying antibiotic prescriptions does not increase the chance that patients will return in the next few days for reconsultation. Prescribing antibiotics “medicalizes” the illness, and one study found increased likelihood that patients would return for the next similar illness (13, 15, 16). The inappropriate use of antibiotics can have significant negative consequences both to individual patients and to public health.

GOALS

This paper examines the available evidence regarding the diagnosis and treatment of acute GABHS pharyngitis in adult patients. It makes recommendations that balance concerns about the potential consequences of untreated GABHS and the goal of decreasing inappropriate antibiotic prescriptions. It discusses pharyngitis in adults (patients ≥ 18 years of age), a population in which GABHS accounts for only approximately 5% to 15% of cases (2–7) and in which such complications as acute rheumatic fever are much less common. These guidelines do not apply to patients with a history of rheumatic fever, valvular heart disease, immunosuppression, or recurrent or chronic pharyngitis (symptoms > 7 days), or to patients whose sore throats have a cause other than acute infectious pharyngitis. They are not

intended to apply during a known epidemic of acute rheumatic fever or streptococcal pharyngitis or in non-industrialized countries in which the endemic rate of acute rheumatic fever is much higher than in the United States. Clinicians should always consider the epidemiologic circumstances when applying these recommendations in practice. Furthermore, these principles are not intended to comment on or contradict previous practice guidelines from other organizations (17, 18), which are primarily directed at sore throat evaluation in children.

2.0 METHODS

We conducted a systematic review of the literature from 1950 to 2000 for these evidence-based management principles. We identified all randomized, controlled trials or meta-analyses of randomized, controlled trials that contained clear definitions of criteria for inclusion, diagnosis, and outcomes, as well as studies evaluating diagnostic strategies for GABHS pharyngitis. We searched MEDLINE and the Cochrane Library, and we also searched the references of the inception articles to identify other studies. Our search strategy sought English-language articles and used the keywords *sore throat*, *group A streptococcus*, *pharyngitis*, *tonsillitis*, *streptococcal pharyngitis*, *throat culture*, and *strep*. Many of the identified articles had easily recognizable methodologic flaws (for example, use of convenience samples, exclusion of patients without a throat culture or those without a positive throat culture, and lack of an appropriate or clearly identified criterion standard), and we considered these limitations when evaluating the evidence and making our recommendations. Furthermore, the efficacy reported in the clinical trials may have been affected in part by repeated clinic visits, repeated cultures, and checks of patient adherence to pill ingestion, all of which would result in overestimation of the effect size of treatment. We did not mathematically summarize the various trials because of the variable quality of the cited evidence.

3.0 EVIDENCE FOR ANTIBIOTIC TREATMENT OF PHARYNGITIS CAUSED BY GABHS

Pharyngitis caused by GABHS is predominantly a disease of children 5 to 15 years of age. It has a prevalence of approximately 30% in pediatric pharyngitis but only 5% to 15% in adult pharyngitis in nonepidemic condi-

tions (2–7, 19, 20). Physicians may consider prescribing antibiotics for streptococcal pharyngitis to prevent rheumatic fever, prevent acute glomerulonephritis, prevent suppurative complications, decrease contagion, and relieve symptoms.

3.1 Acute Rheumatic Fever

Early randomized trials demonstrated that penicillin treatment of streptococcal pharyngitis is effective in preventing acute rheumatic fever (21–23) (relative risk, 0.28 [24]). This translated into a number needed to treat for benefit (NNT_B) of approximately 63 to prevent one case of acute rheumatic fever in the samples studied. These early trials were usually performed in populations with a much higher incidence of acute rheumatic fever in both the treated and control groups than is present today. The reported incidence per population was approximately 60 times greater in 1965 than in 1994 (the last year for which the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention reported statistics); therefore, the NNT_B today is undoubtedly much higher, in the range of approximately 3000 to 4000 (25–27).

Carditis is the most serious complication associated with acute rheumatic fever. In recent outbreaks of acute rheumatic fever, carditis was seen in 50% to 91% of pediatric cases (28–31). These data probably reflect diagnosis of subclinical cases by echocardiography. Carditis occurred in approximately one third of adult cases of acute rheumatic fever (32, 33). The most important consequence of carditis, permanent valvular dysfunction, is most common after clinically severe carditis (28). Given that acute rheumatic fever is rare in adults, that carditis is not a common feature of adult cases of acute rheumatic fever, and that most cases of carditis in adults are mild or asymptomatic, the likelihood of permanent cardiac dysfunction seems to be very small. Thus, the NNT_B to prevent a single case of clinically significant carditis is substantially greater than the NNT_B to prevent a single case of acute rheumatic fever.

During the 1980s, several outbreaks of acute rheumatic fever occurred, causing concern about reemergence of the disease (29–32, 34, 35). It is important to consider local epidemics. Physicians should be prepared to revise their treatment approaches if evidence suggests an outbreak.

3.2 Acute Glomerulonephritis

Although poststreptococcal acute glomerulonephritis occurs, it is extremely rare, even in the absence of antibiotic treatment (36–41). Furthermore, no evidence shows that antibiotic therapy for pharyngitis decreases the incidence of this complication (36–41).

3.3 Peritonsillar Abscess

The incidence of suppurative complications, regardless of treatment with antibiotics, is also low (42–45). A review of randomized trials from the 1950s and 1960s indicates that antibiotics decrease the incidence of peritonsillar abscess (“quinsy”) complicating streptococcal pharyngitis (24), with a best estimate for NNT_B of 27. Modern clinical trials (44, 45) provide some evidence that targeting antibiotics to a subset of patients with higher clinical likelihood of GABHS may prevent peritonsillar abscess. However, in another recent review of GABHS pharyngitis in practice, Little and Williamson (46) reported that the risk for peritonsillar abscess was not reduced because many patients did not present for care until after the complication had developed (46). A recent retrospective study of more than 30 000 patients confirms these findings (47). Among patients who developed suppurative complications, 31 of 71 (44%) had them at first presentation (47). Of the other 56% who presented with pharyngitis before subsequent development of peritonsillar abscess, only approximately 25% showed GABHS on culture or rapid antigen test, and most (67%) had been treated with antibiotics that effectively eradicated GABHS.

3.4 Prevention of Spread of Disease

Streptococcal infection often occurs in epidemics, and contagion is a problem in areas of overcrowding or close contact. Although treatment must continue for 10 days, 24 hours of antibiotic therapy greatly reduces the recovery of GABHS from pharyngeal cultures (41, 48–50). While antibiotics are recommended as a means of reducing spread in schools and other closed settings (20), the impact of treatment on disease spread in non-institutionalized adult populations is unknown. Nevertheless, for clinical decision making, it is reasonable to consider whether an adult is living in close quarters with others, especially small children.

3.5 Relief of Symptoms

Relief of suffering is an appropriate concern of both physicians and patients. Antibiotic therapy instituted within 2 to 3 days of symptom onset hastens symptomatic improvement by 1 to 2 days in patients whose throat cultures ultimately grow GABHS or in populations that have a high likelihood of GABHS pharyngitis identified clinically; however, antibiotics do not have this effect in patients with a negative culture (37, 43–45, 49–52). Few studies have examined the effect of antibiotic treatment on other clinical indicators, such as return to work or to normal activity.

One recent trial among unselected patients with acute pharyngitis found that symptom duration was strongly related to patient satisfaction (13). Satisfaction, in turn, was far more closely related to whether the physician addressed the patient's concerns than to use of antibiotics (15). This further supports limiting antibiotics to the patients most likely to benefit and reemphasizes the importance of the quality of the physician–patient interaction.

TREATING PHARYNGITIS CAUSED BY GABHS:

SUMMARY

Antibiotic treatment of GABHS pharyngitis decreases the risk for an extremely rare disease (acute rheumatic fever), decreases the risk for a rare complication (peritonsillar abscess), and decreases duration of some symptoms by 1 to 2 days. Symptomatic improvement seems to depend on whether treatment begins within 48 hours of symptom onset. Because acute rheumatic fever is rare in the United States, patients who decline antibiotic treatment are very unlikely to have measurable adverse consequences. Therefore, it is most appropriate to limit antibiotic therapy to the few adults with a high likelihood of GABHS pharyngitis who are likely to benefit; the epidemiologic circumstances of the patient should also be considered. For example, it may be appropriate to test for and treat GABHS pharyngitis in health care or child care workers, teachers, and parents of young children. Group A β -hemolytic streptococcus is more likely to spread in environments frequented by these patients, and those at risk for exposure may be at greater risk for complications of GABHS infection.

4.0 DIAGNOSING GABHS

The diagnostic accuracy of any test (including a clinical examination) reflects both its sensitivity and specificity. Investigators typically attempt to define the variables of tests to attain high accuracy. At the same time, however, clinicians generally value sensitivity (and the ability to rule out disease) more than specificity. This type of strategy, which minimizes false-negative results at the expense of increased false-positive results, can be appropriate when the consequences of failure to diagnose disease are substantial, and thus the primary goal is to miss the least number of cases.

For a population in which the prevalence of disease is low, a small change in specificity has a far greater effect on overall accuracy than even large changes in sensitivity, because the number of cases is small and the number of patients without disease is large. For example, when the prevalence of disease is 10%, as it is for GABHS in adult pharyngitis, a strategy that evenly sacrifices 1% in specificity to gain 1% in sensitivity would increase the number of false-positive results by nine times as much as it would decrease the number of false-negative results. Pharyngitis caused by GABHS is not highly prevalent in adults, is not life-threatening, rarely has serious sequelae, and is often overtreated in current practice. Therefore, it seems appropriate to design a diagnostic strategy that sacrifices a small degree of sensitivity and allows substantial gains in specificity.

4.1 Diagnosis of GABHS remains a subject of controversy, partly because the best standard for diagnosis has not been definitively established. In addition, tests for significant increases in antistreptolysin titers and use of throat swab cultures cannot provide “real-time” results—that is, results that are available when a decision regarding antibiotics must be made. Because only patients with pharyngitis resulting from GABHS (and a few other rare bacterial causes) benefit from antibiotic therapy, the goal of the diagnostic evaluation is to predict which patients are highly likely to have GABHS pharyngitis.

Recovery of GABHS from throat cultures is reported in many clinical trials and may be the best available predictor of treatment response. Yet the physician should also be aware that results of throat swab cultures vary according to technique, the site in which the sample is obtained and plated (53–55), the culture medium

(56–58), the conditions in which the culture is incubated (53, 56, 58–60), and whether results are checked at 24 or 48 hours (53, 56). Throat swab cultures also fail to distinguish acute infection from the carrier state (37–39, 50, 61, 62). Although we no longer recommend throat swab cultures for routine use, they may be indicated to help investigate outbreaks of GABHS disease and to monitor the development and spread of antibiotic resistance.

4.2 There are several reasonable approaches to the diagnosis of GABHS in an otherwise healthy adult, such as use of rapid antigen testing as an adjunct to clinical screening or use of clinical criteria alone. Either of these strategies is associated with reasonable diagnostic accuracy (approximate sensitivity $\geq 70\%$, specificity $\geq 70\%$) and allows treatment decisions to be made early in the course of illness, when patients can receive symptomatic therapy. In a low-prevalence population, the additional increase in sensitivity obtained by performing throat culture in patients with negative results on rapid antigen tests translates into a small absolute gain in identified GABHS cases. To detect one additional case of GABHS infection, approximately 30 throat cultures would need to be performed on persons with negative results on rapid antigen tests who had at least two clinical signs suggestive of GABHS infection. These data assume that the prevalence of GABHS is 10%, that the sensitivity of the rapid antigen test is 70%, and that 70% of adults have pharyngitis with at least two clinical signs suggestive of GABHS. Furthermore, culture results are not available at the time of the index visit, and a delayed decision about use of antibiotics eliminates the primary benefit of antibiotic therapy in adults, namely symptom relief.

4.2.1 Clinical Prediction

Several clinical findings have some discriminative value in distinguishing GABHS from other causes of acute pharyngitis. The ability of experienced physicians to predict positive throat cultures is moderate, with estimated sensitivity ranging from 55% to 74% and estimated specificity ranging from 58% to 76% (39, 63–65). In an attempt to improve clinical sensitivity and specificity, investigators have developed and tested clinical decision rules based on various constellations of historical and physical signs and symptoms (6, 63, 64, 66,

67). Depending on threshold or cutoff scores, these rules in academic and community practices have a sensitivity of 64% to 83% and a specificity of 67% to 91% for predicting positive throat cultures (6, 7, 45, 64, 68). Although some prediction rules that have nine or more variables with differential weighting may be slightly more accurate than rules containing four or five elements, they are much less practical to remember and use.

The most reliable predictors of GABHS pharyngitis are the Centor criteria (63). These include tonsillar exudates, tender anterior cervical lymphadenopathy or lymphadenitis, absence of cough, and history of fever. The positive and negative predictive values will vary depending on the prevalence of GABHS in the population. However, several studies of adults with pharyngitis indicate that the presence of three or four of these criteria has a positive predictive value of 40% to 60%, and the absence of three or four criteria has a negative predictive value of approximately 80%. Compared with throat culture, the sensitivity and specificity of three or four clinical criteria for identifying GABHS pharyngitis are 75% and 75% (45, 63, 68).

Although clinical screening alone would leave some patients with GABHS untreated and result in overtreatment for other patients, most patients with GABHS would be treated and excess antibiotic use would substantially decrease (69). National estimates suggest that antibiotics are prescribed for approximately three quarters of adults with pharyngitis in the United States (8). A recent study reported that clinical screening could decrease overall antibiotic prescriptions to adults with pharyngitis by 81.5%, thereby decreasing inappropriate antibiotic use by almost 88% (7).

4.2.2 Rapid Antigen Tests

Rapid antigen tests for GABHS, when compared with the “criterion standard” of throat culture, have reported sensitivities of 65% to 91% and specificities of 62% to 97%, depending on the type of test and the practice setting (57, 68, 70–72). These tests can be done during the office visit and allow real-time treatment decisions. The potential advantage of the rapid antigen tests compared with clinical models is that they have approximately the same sensitivity and greater specificity for predicting results of throat culture. The disadvantage is that many patients must be tested to reduce antibiotic

use more than clinical criteria alone. Although rapid antigen testing would further decrease antibiotic prescribing, it would “medicalize” pharyngitis because patients would need to see a physician for the test to be performed.

Limited evidence suggests that rapid antigen tests could be effectively added to clinical criteria in a Bayesian manner, to increase specificity, although this is unlikely to be the case (68). If it is assumed that there is no association between the two prediction methods (although this is unlikely to be the case), performing a rapid antigen test only in patients with an intermediate clinical probability of GABHS (with two or three of the four clinical variables) and withholding antibiotics from those with negative test results would decrease antibiotic use, compared with a clinical decision alone, at the cost of potentially undertreating an additional small group of patients with GABHS. Assuming a rapid antigen test with 80% sensitivity and 90% specificity and a GABHS prevalence of 10%, an antibiotic prescription rate of approximately 10.6% and a testing rate of 70% would be expected if a rapid antigen test was applied to all adults with two or more Centor criteria. This strategy would correctly treat approximately 6 to 7 of 10 patients with GABHS pharyngitis. If adults with four Centor criteria were treated with antibiotics empirically, and only those with two or three Centor criteria were tested, an antibiotic prescription rate of 25% and a testing rate of 55% would be expected. This strategy would correctly treat approximately 7 to 8 of 10 patients with GABHS pharyngitis. In comparison, using similar assumptions, the estimated antibiotic prescription rate would be 33% if patients with three or four criteria were empirically treated.

5.0 PRINCIPLES

We recommend the following strategies to select patients for antibiotic therapy. These strategies achieve the goal of treating a substantial proportion of true-positive patients while limiting unnecessary antibiotic use. For these strategies, projected antibiotic prescription rates for adults with sore throats in a low-prevalence practice setting are between 10.6% and 33%, much lower than current rates, which exceed 65%. Prospective studies should be conducted to compare these strategies in terms of relevant patient outcomes and cost. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention strongly recom-

mend that rapid antigen testing remain a reimbursable diagnostic test. The empirical strategy and a test-and-treat strategy, both based on clinical criteria, should provide the clinician with some flexibility to tailor evaluation and treatment strategies to individual patients and practice settings.

Principle 1. Clinically screen all adult patients with pharyngitis for the presence of the four Centor criteria: history of fever, tonsillar exudates, no cough, and tender anterior cervical lymphadenopathy (lymphadenitis) [A]. (Letters in square brackets are evidence ratings. See the background document in this issue [pp 479-486] for explanation. Levels of evidence for treatment strategies reflect efficacy of treatment among selected groups of patients; none of the strategies discussed in this paper have been evaluated prospectively to determine the impact of the selection strategy on adverse outcomes.)

Principle 2. Do not test or treat patients with none or only one of these criteria. These patients are unlikely to have GABHS infections [A].

Principle 3. For patients with two or more criteria, the following strategies are appropriate: a) Test patients with two, three, or four criteria by using a rapid antigen test, and limit antibiotic therapy to patients with positive test results [D]; b) test patients with two or three criteria by using a rapid antigen test, and limit antibiotic therapy to patients with a positive test result or patients with four criteria [D]; or c) do not use any diagnostic tests, and limit antibiotic therapy to patients with three or four criteria [B].

Principle 4. Do not perform throat cultures for the routine primary evaluation of adults with pharyngitis or for confirmation of negative rapid antigen tests when the test sensitivity exceeds 80% [A]. Throat cultures may be indicated as part of investigations of outbreaks of GABHS disease, for monitoring the development and spread of antibiotic resistance, or when such pathogens as gonococcus are being considered [A].

Principle 5. Administer appropriate analgesics, antipyretics, and supportive care to all patients with pharyngitis [A].

6.0 PREFERRED CHOICE OF ANTIBIOTICS

To be precise, all of the evidence showing that treatment of streptococcal pharyngitis prevents acute rheumatic fever was derived from studies involving administration of intramuscular penicillin (21–23). However, other routes of administration are assumed to be equally

efficacious. The appropriate antibiotic for presumed GABHS should be one with a narrow spectrum of action that includes GABHS. Penicillin is therefore the first choice for patients selected for antibiotic therapy. No evidence indicates GABHS resistance to or tolerance of penicillin (73–76). If patients are allergic to penicillin, erythromycin is the preferred alternative in countries where erythromycin-resistant GABHS is uncommon, such as the United States (73). If patients are unable to tolerate erythromycin, a variety of treatment regimens have been proven effective in eradicating GABHS. These regimens have been well summarized in other documents (18, 77) and are beyond the scope of this paper. Issues regarding duration of therapy have been reviewed by others (18) and will not be commented on here. Patients with suspected GABHS pharyngitis should receive 1) a single dose of intramuscular penicillin (1.2 MU for adults) or 2) standard penicillin VK, 500 mg orally twice or three times daily for 10 days.

7.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the indiscriminate use of antibiotic therapy for adults with pharyngitis is not endorsed. A diagnostic and therapeutic rationale that limits antibiotic therapy to patients most likely to benefit must consider the low prevalence of GABHS pharyngitis in adults, the magnitude of the benefits, and the risks for allergic reaction to therapy and excessive prescribing of antibiotics.

From University of California, Los Angeles, Los Angeles, California; Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, Georgia; University of Colorado Health Sciences Center, Denver, Colorado; Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan; and University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah.

Acknowledgments: External review has included feedback from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; the Clinical Efficacy Assessment Subcommittee; and representatives of the American Academy of Family Practitioners, the American College of Emergency Physicians, and the Infectious Diseases Society of America. Feedback was also provided by Paul Little, MD, an expert in pharyngitis treatment, as well as full-time practicing physicians.

Role of the Funding Sources: The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention provided partial support for the development of the principles and required final approval of all manuscripts submitted for publication. Dr. Cooper is supported in part by a National Research Service Award (F32 HS00134-01) from the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality.

Requests for Single Reprints: Richard E. Besser, MD, Respiratory Diseases Branch (C-23), Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 1600 Clifton Road NE, Atlanta, GA 30333; e-mail, rbesser0@cdc.gov.

Current Author Addresses: Drs. Cooper and Hoffman: University of California, Los Angeles, Emergency Medicine Center, 924 Westwood Boulevard, Suite 300, Los Angeles, CA 90024.

Dr. Bartlett: Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, 1830 East Monument Street, Suite 463A, Baltimore, MD 21287-0003.

Dr. Besser: Respiratory Diseases Branch (C-23), Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 1600 Clifton Road NE, Atlanta, GA 30333.

Dr. Gonzales: Division of General Internal Medicine, Campus Box B-180, University of Colorado Health Sciences Center, 4200 East Ninth Avenue, Denver, CO 80262.

Dr. Hickner: B111 Clinical Center, Michigan State University Department of Family Practice, East Lansing, MI 48824.

Dr. Sande: Department of Medicine (4C104), University of Utah, 50 North Medical Drive, Salt Lake City, UT 84132.

References

- Schappert SM. Ambulatory care visits to physician's offices, hospital outpatient departments, and emergency departments: United States, 1996. Hyattsville, MD: National Center for Health Statistics; 1998.
- Gwaltney JM, Bisno AL. Pharyngitis. In: Mandell GL, Bennett JE, Dolin R, eds. *Mandell, Douglas and Bennett's Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases*. 5th ed. Philadelphia: Churchill Livingstone; 2000:656-61.
- Huovinen P, Lahtonen R, Ziegler T, Meurman O, Hakkarainen K, Miettinen A, et al. Pharyngitis in adults: the presence and coexistence of viruses and bacterial organisms. *Ann Intern Med*. 1989;110:612-6. [PMID: 0002494921]
- Komaroff AL, Pass TM, Aronson MD, Ervin CT, Cretin S, Winickoff RN, et al. The prediction of streptococcal pharyngitis in adults. *J Gen Intern Med*. 1986;1:1-7. [PMID: 0003534166]
- Poses RM, Cebul RD, Collins M, Fager SS. The accuracy of experienced physicians' probability estimates for patients with sore throats. Implications for decision making. *JAMA*. 1985;254:925-9. [PMID: 0003894705]
- McIsaac WJ, White D, Tannenbaum D, Low DE. A clinical score to reduce unnecessary antibiotic use in patients with sore throat. *CMAJ*. 1998;158:75-83. [PMID: 0009475915]
- McIsaac WJ, Goel V, To T, Low DE. The validity of a sore throat score in family practice. *CMAJ*. 2000;163:811-5. [PMID: 0011033707]
- Gonzales R, Steiner JF, Sande MA. Antibiotic prescribing for adults with colds, upper respiratory tract infections, and bronchitis by ambulatory care physicians. *JAMA*. 1997;278:901-4. [PMID: 0009302241]
- Butler CC, Rollnick S, Pill R, Maggs-Rapport F, Stott N. Understanding the culture of prescribing: qualitative study of general practitioners' and patients' perceptions of antibiotics for sore throats. *BMJ*. 1998;317:637-42. [PMID: 0009727992]
- Macfarlane J, Holmes W, Macfarlane R, Britten N. Influence of patients' expectations on antibiotic management of acute lower respiratory tract illness in general practice: questionnaire study. *BMJ*. 1997;315:1211-4. [PMID: 0009393228]
- Hamm RM, Hicks RJ, Bembem DA. Antibiotics and respiratory infections: are patients more satisfied when expectations are met? *J Fam Pract*. 1996;43:56-62. [PMID: 0008691181]
- Mangione-Smith R, McGlynn EA, Elliott MN, Krogstad P, Brook RH. The relationship between perceived parental expectations and pediatrician antimicrobial prescribing behavior. *Pediatrics*. 1999;103:711-8. [PMID: 0010103291]

13. Little P, Williamson I, Warner G, Gould C, Gantley M, Kinmonth AL. Open randomised trial of prescribing strategies in managing sore throat. *BMJ*. 1997;314:722-7. [PMID: 0009116551]
14. Sanchez-Menegay C, Hudes ES, Cummings SR. Patient expectations and satisfaction with medical care for upper respiratory infections. *J Gen Intern Med*. 1992;7:432-4. [PMID: 0001506950]
15. Little P, Gould C, Williamson I, Warner G, Gantley M, Kinmonth AL. Clinical and psychosocial predictors of illness duration from randomised controlled trial of prescribing strategies for sore throat. *BMJ*. 1999;319:736-7. [PMID: 0010487997]
16. Little P, Gould C, Williamson I, Warner G, Gantley M, Kinmonth AL. Reattendance and complications in a randomised trial of prescribing strategies for sore throat: the medicalising effect of prescribing antibiotics. *BMJ*. 1997;315:350-2. [PMID: 0009270458]
17. Dajani A, Taubert K, Ferrieri P, Peter G, Shulman S. Treatment of acute streptococcal pharyngitis and prevention of rheumatic fever: a statement for health professionals. Committee on Rheumatic Fever, Endocarditis, and Kawasaki Disease of the Council on Cardiovascular Disease in the Young, the American Heart Association. *Pediatrics*. 1995;96:758-64. [PMID: 0007567345]
18. Bisno AL, Gerber MA, Gwaltney JM Jr, Kaplan EL, Schwartz RH. Diagnosis and management of group A streptococcal pharyngitis: a practice guideline. Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1997;25:574-83. [PMID: 0009314443]
19. Putto A. Febrile exudative tonsillitis: viral or streptococcal? *Pediatrics*. 1987;80:6-12. [PMID: 0003601520]
20. Group A streptococcal infections. American Academy of Pediatrics. In: Pickering LK, ed. 2000 Red Book: Report of the Committee on Infectious Diseases. 25th ed. Elk Grove Village, IL: American Academy of Pediatrics; 2000:553.
21. Denny FW, Wannamaker LW, Brink WR, Rammelkamp CH, Custer EA. Prevention of rheumatic fever. Treatment of the preceding streptococcal infection. *JAMA*. 1950;143:151-3.
22. Wannamaker LW, Rammelkamp CH, Denny FW, Brink WR, Houser HB, Hahn EO, et al. Prophylaxis of acute rheumatic fever by treatment of the preceding streptococcal infection with various amounts of depot penicillin. *Am J Med*. 1951;10:673-95.
23. Catanzaro FJ, Stetson CA, Morris AJ, Chamovitz R, Rammelkamp CH, Stolzer BL, et al. The role of the streptococcus in the pathogenesis of rheumatic fever. *Am J Med*. 1954;17:749-56.
24. Del Mar CB, Glasziou PP, Spinks AB. Antibiotics for sore throat (Cochrane Review). In: The Cochrane Library, Issue 3, 1999. Oxford: Update Software; 1999.
25. Summary of notifiable diseases, United States, 1993. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 1994;42:1-73. [PMID: 0009247368]
26. Summary of notifiable diseases, United States, 1998. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 1999;47:1-92. [PMID: 0010682828]
27. National Population Estimates 1900 to 1999. Available at: www.census.gov. Accessed 1 May 2000.
28. Veasy LG, Tani LY, Hill HR. Persistence of acute rheumatic fever in the intermountain area of the United States. *J Pediatr*. 1994;124:9-16. [PMID: 0007802743]
29. Wald ER, Dashefsky B, Feidt C, Chiponis D, Byers C. Acute rheumatic fever in western Pennsylvania and the tristate area. *Pediatrics*. 1987;80:371-4. [PMID: 0003627888]
30. Hosier DM, Craenen JM, Teske DW, Wheller JJ. Resurgence of acute rheumatic fever. *Am J Dis Child*. 1987;141:730-3. [PMID: 0003591761]
31. Veasy LG, Wiedmeier SE, Orsmond GS, Ruttenberg HD, Boucek MM, Roth SJ, et al. Resurgence of acute rheumatic fever in the intermountain area of the United States. *N Engl J Med*. 1987;316:421-7. [PMID: 0003807984]
32. Wallace MR, Garst PD, Papadimos TJ, Oldfield EC 3rd. The return of acute rheumatic fever in young adults. *JAMA*. 1989;262:2557-61. [PMID: 0002681847]
33. Feuer J, Spiera H. Acute rheumatic fever in adults: a resurgence in the Hasidic Jewish community. *J Rheumatol*. 1997;24:337-340. [PMID: 0009034994]
34. Acute rheumatic fever at a Navy training center—San Diego, California. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 1988;37:101-4. [PMID: 0003123910]
35. Acute rheumatic fever among army trainees—Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri, 1987-1988. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 1998;37:519-22. [PMID: 0003136309]
36. Chamovitz R, Catanzaro FJ, Stetson CA, Rammelkamp CH. Prevention of rheumatic fever by treatment of previous streptococcal infections. *N Engl J Med*. 1954;251:466-71.
37. Brumfitt W, Slater JD. Treatment of acute sore throat with penicillin. A controlled trial in young soldiers. *Lancet*. 1957;1:8-11.
38. Bennike T, Brøchner-Mortensen K, Kjær E, Skadhauge K, Trolle E. Penicillin therapy in acute tonsillitis, phlegmonous tonsillitis and ulcerative tonsillitis. *Acta Medica Scand*. 1951;139:253-73.
39. Siegel AC, Johnson EE, Stollerman GH. Controlled studies of streptococcal pharyngitis in a pediatric population. *N Engl J Med*. 1961;265:559-66.
40. Goslings WR, Valkenburg HA, Bots AW, Lorrier JC. Attack rates of streptococcal pharyngitis, rheumatic fever and glomerulonephritis in the general population. *N Engl J Med*. 1963;268:687-94.
41. Brink WR, Rammelkamp CH, Denny FW, Wannamaker LW. Effect of penicillin and aureomycin on the natural course of streptococcal tonsillitis and pharyngitis. *Am J Med*. 1951;10:300-8.
42. Landsman JB, Grist NR, Black R, McFarlane D, Blair W. "Sore throat" in general practice. *BMJ*. 1951;1:326-9.
43. Howe RW, Millar MR, Coast J, Whitfield M, Peters TJ, Brookes S. A randomized controlled trial of antibiotics on symptom resolution in patients presenting to their general practitioner with a sore throat. *Br J Gen Pract*. 1997;47:280-4. [PMID: 0009219402]
44. Dagnelie CF, van der Graaf Y, De Melker RA. Do patients with sore throat benefit from penicillin? A randomized double-blind placebo-controlled clinical trial with penicillin V in general practice. *Br J Gen Pract*. 1996;46:589-93. [PMID: 0008945796]
45. Zwart S, Sachs AP, Ruijs GJ, Gubbels JW, Hoes AW, de Melker RA. Penicillin for acute sore throat: randomised double blind trial of seven days versus three days treatment or placebo in adults. *BMJ*. 2000;320:150-4. [PMID: 0010634735]
46. Little P, Williamson I. Sore throat management in general practice. *Fam Pract*. 1996;13:317-21. [PMID: 0008671142]
47. Webb KH, Needham CA, Kurtz SR. Use of a high-sensitivity rapid strep test without culture confirmation of negative results: 2 years' experience. *J Fam Pract*. 2000;49:34-8. [PMID: 0010678338]
48. Denny FW, Wannamaker LW, Hahn EO. Comparative effects of penicillin, aureomycin and terramycin on streptococcal tonsillitis and pharyngitis. *Pediatrics*. 1953;11:7-14.
49. Randolph MF, Gerber MA, DeMeo KK, Wright L. Effect of antibiotic therapy on the clinical course of streptococcal pharyngitis. *J Pediatr*. 1985;106:870-5. [PMID: 0003923180]
50. Krober MS, Bass JW, Michels GN. Streptococcal pharyngitis. Placebo-controlled double-blind evaluation of clinical response to penicillin therapy. *JAMA*. 1985;253:1271-4. [PMID: 0003918190]
51. Middleton DB, D'Amico F, Merenstein JH. Standardized symptomatic treatment versus penicillin as initial therapy for streptococcal pharyngitis. *J Pediatr*. 1988;113:1089-94. [PMID: 0003057159]
52. De Meyere M, Mervielde Y, Verschraegen G, Bogaert M. Effect of penicillin on the clinical course of streptococcal pharyngitis in general practice. *Eur*

- J Clin Pharmacol. 1992;43:581-5. [PMID: 0001493837]
53. **Kellogg JA, Manzella JP.** Detection of group A streptococci in the laboratory or physician's office. Culture vs antibody methods. JAMA. 1986;255:2638-42. [PMID: 0003517397]
54. **Brien JH, Bass JW.** Streptococcal pharyngitis: optimal site for throat culture. J Pediatr. 1985;106:781-3. [PMID: 0003889250]
55. **Brook I, Yocum P, Shah K.** Surface vs core-tonsillar aerobic and anaerobic flora in recurrent tonsillitis. JAMA. 1980;244:1696-8. [PMID: 0007411827]
56. **Kellogg JA.** Suitability of throat culture procedures for detection of group A streptococci and as reference standards for evaluation of streptococcal antigen detection kits. J Clin Microbiol. 1990;28:165-9. [PMID: 0002179252]
57. **Gerber MA, Tanz RR, Kabat W, Dennis E, Bell GL, Kaplan EL, et al.** Optical immunoassay test for group A beta-hemolytic streptococcal pharyngitis. An office-based, multicenter investigation. JAMA. 1997;277:899-903. [PMID: 0009062328]
58. **Graham L Jr, Meier FA, Centor RM, Garner BK, Dalton HP.** Effect of medium and cultivation conditions on comparisons between latex agglutination and culture detection of group A streptococci. J Clin Microbiol. 1986;24:644-6. [PMID: 0003095365]
59. **Larsson P, Lind L.** The need for control of throat streptococcal cultures in general practice. Scand J Infect Dis Suppl. 1983;39:79-82. [PMID: 0006359381]
60. **Belli DC, Auckenthaler R, Paunier L, Ferrier PE.** Throat cultures for group A beta-hemolytic Streptococcus. Importance of anaerobic incubation. Am J Dis Child. 1984;138:274-6. [PMID: 0006367431]
61. **Kaplan EL, Top FH Jr, Dudding BA, Wannamaker LW.** Diagnosis of streptococcal pharyngitis: differentiation of active infection from the carrier state in the symptomatic child. J Infect Dis. 1971;123:490-501. [PMID: 0005115179]
62. **Gunnarsson RK, Holm SE, Soderstrom M.** The prevalence of beta-hemolytic streptococci in throat specimens from healthy children and adults. Implications for the clinical value of throat cultures. Scand J Prim Health Care. 1997;15:149-55. [PMID: 0009323783]
63. **Centor RM, Witherspoon JM, Dalton HP, Brody CE, Link K.** The diagnosis of strep throat in adults in the emergency room. Med Decis Making. 1981;1:239-46. [PMID: 0006763125]
64. **Dobbs F.** A scoring system for predicting group A streptococcal throat infection. Br J Gen Pract. 1996;46:461-4. [PMID: 0008949324]
65. **Burke P, Bain J, Lowes A, Athersuch R.** Rational decisions in managing sore throat: evaluation of a rapid test. Br Med J (Clin Res Ed). 1988;296:1646-9. [PMID: 0003293699]
66. **Breese BB.** A simple scorecard for the tentative diagnosis of streptococcal pharyngitis. Am J Dis Child. 1977;131:514-7. [PMID: 0000855837]
67. **Walsh BT, Bookheim WW, Johnson RC, Tompkins RK.** Recognition of streptococcal pharyngitis in adults. Arch Intern Med. 1975;135:1493-7. [PMID: 0001103766]
68. **Dagnelie CF, Bartelink ML, van der Graaf Y, Goessens W, de Melker RA.** Towards a better diagnosis of throat infections (with group A beta-hemolytic streptococcus) in general practice. Br J Gen Pract. 1998;48:959-62. [PMID: 0009624764]
69. **Ebell MH, Smith MA, Barry HC, Ives K, Carey M.** The rational clinical examination. Does this patient have strep throat? JAMA. 2000;284:2912-8. [PMID: 0011147989]
70. **Roddey OF Jr, Clegg HW, Martin ES, Swetenburg RL, Koonce EW.** Comparison of an optical immunoassay technique with two culture methods for the detection of group A streptococci in a pediatric office. J Pediatr. 1995;126:931-3. [PMID: 0007776097]
71. **Schlager TA, Hayden GA, Woods WA, Dudley SM, Hendley JO.** Optical immunoassay for rapid detection of group A beta-hemolytic streptococci. Should culture be replaced? Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med. 1996;150:245-8. [PMID: 0008603215]
72. **Hart AP, Buck LL, Morgan S, Saverio S, McLaughlin JC.** A comparison of the BioStar Strep A OIA rapid antigen assay, group A Selective Strep Agar (ssA), and Todd-Hewitt broth cultures for the detection of group A Streptococcus in an outpatient family practice setting. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis. 1997;29:139-45. [PMID: 0009401806]
73. **Markowitz M, Gerber MA, Kaplan EL.** Treatment of streptococcal pharyngotonsillitis: reports of penicillin's demise are premature. J Pediatr. 1993;123:679-85. [PMID: 0008229474]
74. **Kaplan EL, Johnson DR, Del Rosario MC, Horn DL.** Susceptibility of group A beta-hemolytic streptococci to thirteen antibiotics: examination of 301 strains isolated in the United States between 1994 and 1997. Pediatr Infect Dis J. 1999;18:1069-72. [PMID: 0010608626]
75. **Coonan KM, Kaplan EL.** In vitro susceptibility of recent North American group A streptococcal isolates to eleven oral antibiotics. Pediatr Infect Dis J. 1994;13:630-5. [PMID: 0007970952]
76. **Shulman ST, Gerber MA, Tanz RR, Markowitz M.** Streptococcal pharyngitis: the case for penicillin therapy. Pediatr Infect Dis J. 1994;13:1-7. [PMID: 0008170725]
77. **Gilbert DN, Moellering RC Jr, Sande MA, eds.** The Sanford Guide to Antibiotic Therapy 2000. 30th ed. Hyde Park, VT: Antibiotic Therapy; 2000.