

1 **Full title:**

2 ePOCT+ and the medAL-suite: Development of an electronic clinical decision support algorithm and  
3 digital platform for pediatric outpatients in low- and middle-income countries

4 **Short title:**

5 Development of ePOCT+ and the medAL-suite

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52 fever, antibiotic stewardship, quality of care

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54

55 **ABSTRACT:**

56 Electronic clinical decision support algorithms (CDSAs) have been developed to address high  
57 childhood mortality and inappropriate antibiotic prescription by helping clinicians adhere to guidelines.  
58 Previously identified challenges of CDSAs include its limited scope, usability, and outdated clinical  
59 algorithms. To address these challenges we developed ePOCT+, a CDSA for the care of pediatric  
60 outpatients in low- and middle-income settings, and the medical algorithm suite (medAL-suite), a  
61 software for the creation and execution of CDSAs. Following the principles of digital development, we  
62 aim to describe the process and lessons learnt from the development of ePOCT+ and the medAL-  
63 suite.

64 In particular, this work outlines the systematic integrative development process in the design and  
65 implementation of these tools required to meet the needs of clinicians to improve uptake and quality of  
66 care. We considered the feasibility, acceptability and reliability of clinical signs and symptoms, as well  
67 as the diagnostic and prognostic performance of predictors. To assure clinical validity, and  
68 appropriateness for the country of implementation the algorithm underwent numerous reviews by  
69 clinical experts and health authorities from the implementing countries. The digitalization process  
70 involved the creation of *medAL-creator*, a digital platform which allows clinicians without IT skills to  
71 easily create the algorithms, and *medAL-reader* the mobile health (mHealth) app used by clinicians  
72 during the consultation. Extensive feasibility tests were done with feedback from end-users of multiple  
73 countries to improve the clinical algorithm and *medAL-reader* software.

74 We hope that the development framework used for developing ePOCT+ will help support the  
75 development of other CDSAs, and that the open-source *medAL-suite* will enable others to easily and  
76 independently implement them.

## 77 **AUTHOR SUMMARY**

78 In accordance with the principles of digital development we describe here the process and lessons  
79 learnt from the development of ePOCT+, a clinical decision support algorithm (CDSA), and the  
80 medAL-suite software, to program and implement CDSAs.

81 The clinical algorithm was adapted from previous CDSAs in order to address challenges in regards to  
82 the limited scope of illnesses and patient population addressed, the ease of use, and limited  
83 performance of specific algorithms. Adaptations and improvements to the clinical algorithm was  
84 developed based on considerations of what symptoms and signs would be appropriate for primary  
85 care level health care workers, and how well these clinical elements are at predicting a particular  
86 disease or severe outcome. We hope that by sharing our multi-stakeholder approach to the  
87 development of ePOCT+, it can help others in the development of other CDSAs.

88 The medAL-*creator* software was developed to allow clinicians without IT programming experience to  
89 program the clinical algorithm using a drag-and-drop interface, which we hope allows a wider range of  
90 health authorities and implementers to develop and adapt their own CDSA. The medAL-*reader*  
91 application, deploys the algorithm from medAL-*creator* to end-users following the usual healthcare  
92 processes of a consultation.

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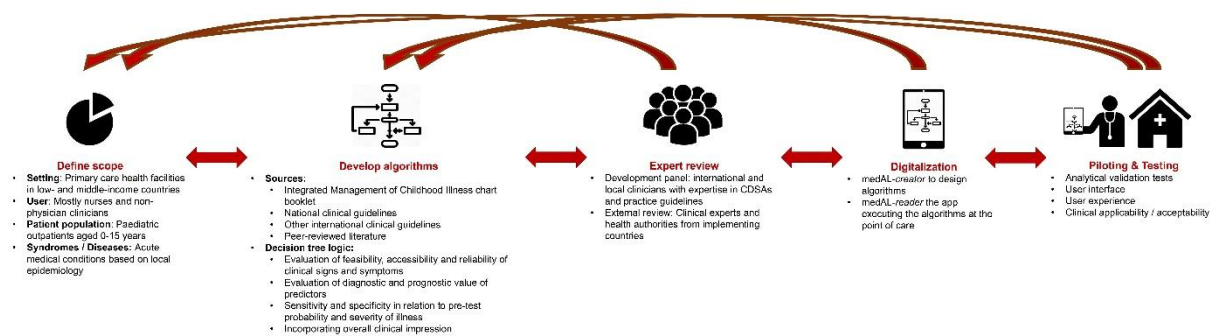
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## 95 INTRODUCTION

96 Electronic clinical decision support algorithms (CDSAs) have been implemented in low- and middle-  
97 income countries (LMICs) in order to address excessive mortality due to poor quality of health care,[1]  
98 and antimicrobial resistance due to inappropriate antibiotic prescription.[2-4] Such tools provide  
99 guidance through every step of the outpatient consultation to ultimately suggest the diagnosis and  
100 management plan based on the inputted symptoms, signs and test results.[5] CDSAs have indeed  
101 shown that they help clinicians better adhere to guidelines,[6-8] which results in improved quality of  
102 care and, for some, more rational antibiotic prescription.[9, 10] This has, in part led the World Health  
103 Organization (WHO) and Member States to prioritize the scale-up of the development and access to  
104 digital health technologies.[11, 12]

105 Current CDSAs are not standardized, and concerns have been raised about their limited demographic  
106 and clinical scope,[13, 14] their usability,[14, 15] and their static and generic logic based on outdated  
107 guidelines that are unable to adapt to new evidence, evolving epidemiology, or changing resources.  
108 These challenges may contribute to variable uptake of CDSAs,[15-17] and suboptimal performance  
109 when implemented.[8, 18]

110 In order to address these challenges, and build on the experience of previous CDSAs by our group,[9,  
111 10] and others,[5, 8] we developed the CDSA ePOCT+, and a supporting digital software to create and  
112 execute CDSAs, the *medAL-suite*. ePOCT+ is currently being implemented in several hundred health  
113 facilities within the context of implementation studies in Tanzania, Rwanda, Senegal, Kenya and India.  
114 Following the principles of digital development and guidance on CDSAs,[19-21] we aim to  
115 transparently share the rationale, strategy, and lessons learnt from this development process (figure  
116 1).



117

118 **Figure 1: Overall development process of ePOCT+ requiring multiple feedback loops**

119 The development process of ePOCT+ was an iterative process. We first defined the scope, then developed the  
120 algorithm (decision tree logic), followed by expert review with relevant stakeholders, the digitalization, and finally  
121 piloting and testing. Each stage resulted in multiple feedback loops to refine the end product.

122

123

## 124 **METHODS**

125

### 126 **Scope**

127 Compared to our previous generation CDSAs,[5, 9, 10] the target level of care (primary care health  
128 facilities), and target users (mostly nurses and non-physician clinicians) remain the same. However,  
129 the target patient population was expanded from 2 months to 5 years, to also cover young infants  
130 below 2 months, and in some countries children 5 years up to 15 years.

131

132 The expanded target population age group was enlarged to address young infants (<2 months) who  
133 are at highest risk of mortality,[22] and children aged 5-15 years whom are often neglected in  
134 international and national policies resulting in a slower decrease in mortality in LMICs compared to  
135 children under 5 years.[23] This expanded age group may help address the challenge of uptake by  
136 avoiding the need for clinicians to change tools when managing children of different age groups.

137 The scope of illnesses covered was also expanded in response to the frustration of clinicians using  
138 CDSAs who were not able to reach specific illnesses.[13, 15] Expanding the scope allowed for the  
139 integration of common illnesses covered by other national clinical guidelines to which clinicians are  
140 expected to adhere, and to provide more opportunity for antibiotic stewardship when providing  
141 management guidance for specific illnesses.

142 Three major criteria were considered when expanding the scope of illnesses: 1) Incidence of  
143 presenting symptoms and diagnoses; 2) Morbidity, mortality, and outbreak potential; and 3) Capacity  
144 to diagnose and manage specific conditions at the primary care level.

145 Additional conditions were identified through: 1) national guidelines; 2) fever aetiology studies; 3)  
146 national health surveys; 4) chief complaints from primary care outpatient studies; 5) clinical expert  
147 review teams from the implementation countries; 6) interviews with end user clinicians; and 6)  
148 observation of consultations at primary care health facilities (S1 Appendix). Examples of notable  
149 additions for the Tanzanian algorithm include trauma, urinary tract infection, and abdominal pain that  
150 can account for 4.3 – 21.6%,[24] 5.9 – 19.7%,[24-26] and 4.6 – 23%[10, 25] of outpatient  
151 consultations respectively.

## 152 **Clinical algorithm**

153 The target users (mostly nurses and non-physician clinicians), and setting (primary care health  
154 facilities) were important considerations when identifying the guidelines and evidence to develop the  
155 algorithm. Previously validated algorithms,[10] and the WHO Integrated Management of Childhood  
156 Illnesses (IMCI) chart booklets formed the backbone of the algorithm.[27] To support the expanded  
157 clinical scope, we turned to national guidelines to ensure adaptation to the local epidemiology,  
158 resources, and setting. For conditions not covered by these guidelines, or where guidelines were not  
159 sufficiently detailed, the addition of peer-reviewed literature and other international guidelines were  
160 required.

161 In order to transform narrative guidelines into Boolean decision tree logic algorithms, considerable  
162 interpretation was needed. The guiding principles for this process were derived from the properties to  
163 consider in the screening and diagnosis of a disease by Sackett and colleagues,[28] the target product  
164 profile (TPP) for CDSAs as defined by experts in the field,[20] and guidance on appropriate diagnostic  
165 and prognostic model development.[29] These include consideration of: a) the feasibility, acceptability,  
166 and reliability of clinical elements assessed at the primary care level, b) the diagnostic and prognostic  
167 value of individual and combined predictors, c) the sensitivity and specificity in relation to the severity  
168 and pre-test probability of the condition in the target population, and d) the overall clinical impression  
169 of the patient by the clinician.

### 170 a) Feasibility, acceptability, and reliability of predictors

171 If clinical algorithms are to be adequately utilized, the signs and symptoms used to reach a diagnosis  
172 must be feasible, acceptable and reliable when assessed by end-users. These properties were  
173 evaluated based on the results of several assessments: primarily an international Delphi study on  
174 predictors of sepsis in children,[30] a systematic review on triage tools in low-resource settings,[31]  
175 signs and symptoms included in established guidelines for primary care health care workers such as  
176 IMCI,[27] interviews with clinicians, observation of routine consultations, a Delphi survey among 30  
177 Tanzanian health care workers (S2 Appendix), as well as subsequent feasibility tests observing  
178 clinicians using the CDSA on real and fictional cases. Notable findings from this process led to the  
179 omission of a pain score, capillary refill time, the assessment of cool peripheries, and weak and fast  
180 pulse, as they were deemed neither feasible nor reliable to be assessed at the primary care level.



181 b) Diagnostic and prognostic value of predictors

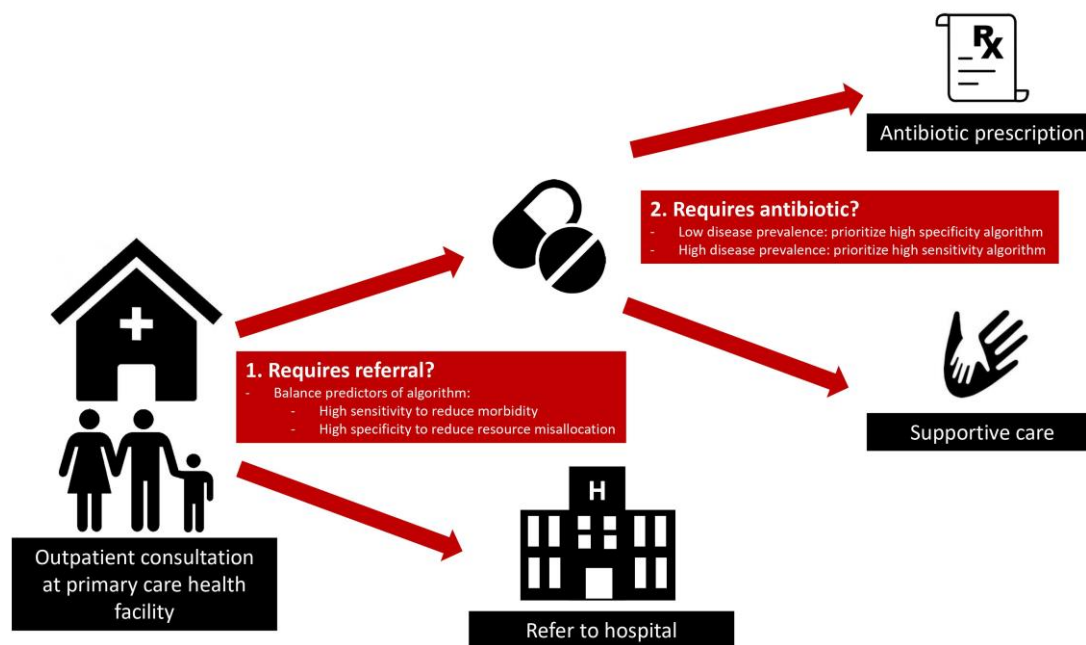
182 In the absence of validated diagnostic models for each diagnosis, we assessed individual diagnostic  
183 and prognostic factors to help guide the development of ePOCT+. Diagnostic studies derived from the  
184 population and setting of interest were preferred,[32, 33] as those developed from other settings often  
185 perform worse.[34] However, diagnostic predictors notably those predicting ‘serious bacterial  
186 infection’, often have low sensitivity, lack reference tests to confirm bacterial origin, and ignore serious  
187 infections caused by viral diseases.[35, 36] Prognostic studies are often better suited to develop  
188 clinical algorithms in order to understand which children are at risk of developing severe disease,  
189 regardless of the aetiology, to improve patient outcomes and reduce resource misallocation. [37-39] A  
190 systematic review of predictors of severe disease in febrile children presenting from the community  
191 helped identify useful clinical feature to be integrated within ePOCT+,[34] however few studies  
192 occurred at the primary care level. To address this gap we performed an exploratory analysis of  
193 clinical elements used in two CDSAs evaluated in Tanzania to predict clinical failure (S3 Appendix).  
194 This analysis found IMCI danger signs, severe general appearance, mid-upper arm circumference  
195 <12.5cm, oxygen saturation <90%, respiratory distress, and signs of anaemia and dehydration to be  
196 good predictors of clinical failure. Specific subgroup analyses on our previous generation CDSA  
197 provided further support for maintaining or modifying specific algorithm branches, particularly the  
198 inclusion of C-reactive Protein (CRP) point-of-care tests that helped safely reduce antibiotic  
199 prescription and improve confidence in management.[40, 41]

200 c) Sensitivity and specificity of algorithm branches in relation to severity and pre-test probability of  
201 condition

202 When constructing the algorithm, it was important to first identify children presenting with a severe  
203 condition, and only then use more specific branches to distinguish conditions requiring specific  
204 treatment from self-limiting illnesses requiring only supportive care (figure 2). Predictors of severe  
205 conditions need to be sufficiently sensitive to guide interventions to reduce morbidity and mortality.  
206 However if this high sensitivity comes at the cost of reduced specificity, it can result in over-referral,  
207 misallocation of limited health care resources, and excess antibiotic prescription.[37] While this  
208 concept was considered within the development of the algorithm, most predictors and models studied  
209 lacked sufficient sensitivity and specificity to appropriately meet these requirements at the primary  
210 care level, thus emphasizing the need for better predictors and models.[34, 37]

211 Once a severe condition has been excluded, restricting antimicrobial prescriptions can be more safely  
212 integrated given the lower risk of clinical failure. Understanding the pre-test probability (disease  
213 prevalence) of the disease guides us on the level of specificity needed for the corresponding  
214 predictors to be included in the algorithm. In the outpatient settings, few non-severe children above 2  
215 months have a condition requiring antibiotics.[10, 26] As such, using the principles of Bayes'  
216 theorem,[42] an algorithm for a condition of low prevalence requires a higher likelihood ratio to have a  
217 similar post-test probability than a condition with a higher prevalence. Within ePOCT+, C-Reactive  
218 Protein (CRP) test is integrated in several branches of the algorithm to increase specificity/likelihood  
219 ratio when the pre-test probability of requiring antibiotics is low. However, the pre-test probability of  
220 requiring antibiotics may increase in a child with comorbidities, and therefore a lower CRP cut-off can  
221 be used to increase sensitivity and reach the same post-test probability.

222



223

224 **Figure 2: Considerations for the required sensitivity and specificity of combined predictors**  
225 **based on the severity and the pre-test probability (disease prevalence) of the condition**

226 Health care workers are confronted with two major questions at primary care health facilities: 1) Does the child  
227 need to be referred? For which an algorithm must evaluate sensitivity and specificity in relation to the severity of  
228 disease. 2) Does the child require specific treatment (most often an antibiotic)? For which the disease prevalence  
229 of a bacterial illness needs to be considered when evaluating the sensitivity and specificity of such an algorithm.

230

231 d) Integrating overall clinical impression

232 The overall clinical impression of a healthcare worker plays an important part of the diagnostic  
233 process,[43] and may sometimes better identify serious conditions compared to isolated symptoms  
234 and signs.[44, 45] As blindly following CDSA recommendations runs the risk of neglecting nuanced  
235 clinical observations or patient-initiated elements, we incorporated clinical impression in the algorithm  
236 to better preserve these skills.[46] More generally, it also shows a respect and consideration for the  
237 clinician's judgment and allows the tools to be more participatory; including the clinician in the  
238 interpretation and responsibility of the decision. As such, attempts were made to combine multiple  
239 clinical elements into one question utilizing clinical impression. This approach was used to help identify  
240 children who need a referral or antibiotics, such as "Severe difficult breathing needing referral", a  
241 criteria similar to that proposed by the British Thoracic Society,[47] and "well/unwell appearing child",  
242 often used in children with fever without apparent source.[35, 48] Highlighting in the application that  
243 this response will result in a recommendation of referral, aims to help clinicians understand the impact  
244 of their selection, and thus improve both the sensitivity and specificity. Such composite elements  
245 reduce the number of questions prompted by the CDSA, and speeds up the process; an important  
246 consideration for uptake. Nevertheless, the diagnostic and prognostic value of the overall clinical  
247 impression of primary care clinicians in LMIC settings is not well understood, and further research is  
248 needed to understand how helpful these types of elements are when integrated within ePOCT+.

249

## 250 **Adapting and validating the medical content**

251 ePOCT+ was first developed for Tanzania, where the prior generation of the algorithm was validated  
252 in a randomized-controlled trial.[10] Following the expansion and adaptation of the content described  
253 above, the algorithm was internally reviewed by 13 clinicians from 6 medical institutions with good  
254 understanding of CDSAs; 5 working in Tanzania, and the other 8 with experience working in LMICs.  
255 The ePOCT+ algorithm for Rwanda, Senegal, Kenya and India were then each drafted, with rounds of  
256 internal review, by small development teams composed of clinical algorithm development specialists,  
257 and national child health experts based on country-specific objectives, guidelines, and epidemiology,  
258 using the first algorithm as a scaffold.

259 In each country, the ePOCT+ algorithm was reviewed by a technical panel from the ministry of health  
260 or an independent clinical expert group (usually with ministry of health representatives). The panels  
261 were asked to assess the algorithm in terms of clinical validity, feasibility in primary care, scope of

262 illnesses, and consistency with national policy and guidelines. The process of validation varied slightly  
263 in each country according to national decision-making mechanisms, but all included written feedback,  
264 individual and group meetings.

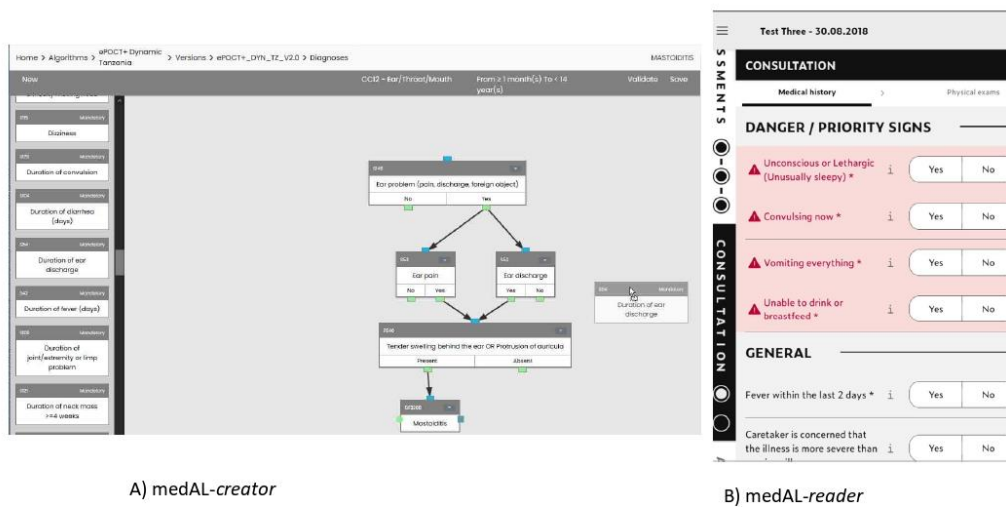
265 Certain algorithm branches were highlighted for group discussion; especially those with novel content,  
266 those for which significant interpretation was required from national guidelines, and any branches with  
267 queries or comments from panel members. For the algorithms with more novel content, more formal  
268 decision processes were used.

269 Following the internal and external reviews, further modifications were made during the digitalization  
270 process, and feasibility tests, including feedback and review from end-users. For each major change  
271 proposed, the modification was communicated with the group to allow subsequent feedback and final  
272 approval by health authorities

### 273 **Digitalization of ePOCT+ and development of the medAL-suite**

274 We performed a landscaping review of existing CDSA software with respect to user interface, open  
275 source, data management, ease of programming and interpretation of clinical algorithms, and  
276 operability in target health facilities. Since none of the available software packages met our  
277 requirements, we developed the medAL-suite software following the requirements of the target product  
278 profile for CDSAs.[20] [medAL-creator](#) allows clinical experts to design the clinical content and logic of  
279 the algorithm, while [medAL-reader](#) is an Android based interface to execute the algorithm to end-user  
280 clinicians (figure 3). Both software were developed collaboratively between the clinicians, IT  
281 programmers, end-users via feedback from field tests, and health authorities from the implementation

282 countries.



283

284 **Figure 3: medAL-creator and medAL-reader**

285 A) medAL-creator and its “drag and drop” user interface to design the clinical algorithm. For each clinical element  
286 a description and/or photo can be included to assist the end-user using medAL-reader ; B) medAL-reader the  
287 android based application to collect the medical history, exposures, symptoms, signs and tests, and then propose  
288 the appropriate diagnosis and management.

289

290 The World Health Organization (WHO) have recently proposed the SMART guidelines to provide  
291 guidance and structure to translate the narrative guidelines (Layer 1), to semi-structured “human  
292 readable” decision trees and digital adaptation kits (Layer 2), to computer/machine readable structured  
293 algorithms (Layer 3), to the executable form of the software (Layer 4), and finally dynamic algorithms  
294 that are trained and optimised to local data (Layer 5).[49] Each “translation” between layers is prone to  
295 interpretation and error, especially when each layer is developed by different actors and continuously  
296 adapted. To reduce error in interpretation, a major feature of medAL-creator is to allow the  
297 “computer/machine readable” structured algorithms to be “human readable”, thus merging Layers 2  
298 and 3. medAL-creator features a “drag and drop” user interface and automatic terminology/code set  
299 enabling the clinicians with no programming knowledge to create and review the algorithm. medAL-  
300 reader is then able to automatically convert the algorithm from medAL-creator for use at point-of-care.

301 medAL-reader, was designed based on our previous experiences of CDSA interfaces,[7, 10] and  
302 expert guidance on successful strategies in order for the application to be intuitive to use with limited  
303 training, to align with normal workflows at primary care health facilities, and encourage user  
304 autonomy.[20, 50, 51]

## 305 **Validation tests and user-experience evaluations**

306 Validation tests were performed for each diagnosis to assure that the inputted data within medAL-  
307 *creator* were processed correctly into the expected output data on medAL-*reader*. This included  
308 automated unit and integration testing, as well as automated non-regression testing by medAL-*creator*,  
309 and manual verification of medication posology for all drugs according to weight and age of the  
310 patient. All issues were reviewed by a clinical and IT team to correct the problems. While such tests  
311 are encouraged by the CDSA TPP,[20] since CDSAs are not considered a “software as a medical  
312 device ” by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA)[52] or European Medical Device Coordination  
313 Group,[53] these tests are not legally required.

314 The ePOCT+ tool underwent numerous rounds of testing in the field, from desk-based reviews  
315 focusing on user interface and analytical validation; to end-user testing evaluating user experience,  
316 acceptability, and clinical applicability; to finally assessing integrated testing in real-life conditions. All  
317 user experience feedback was reviewed by a team including both clinical and IT specialists, while all  
318 clinical content modifications were approved by both the internal and external review panels.

319

## 320 **Ethics**

321 Activities related to the development and piloting of ePOCT+ and the medAL-suite were done within  
322 the studies of DYNAMIC and TIMCI, for which approval was given from each country of  
323 implementation. The study protocol and related documents were approved by the institutional review  
324 boards of the Ifakara Health Institute in Tanzania (IHI/IRB/No: 11-2020 and 49-2020), the National  
325 Institute for Medical Research in Tanzania (NIMR/HQ/R.8a/Vol. IX/3486 and NIMR/HQ/R.8a/Vol.  
326 IX/3583), the National Ethics Committee of Rwanda (752/RNEC/2020), the Comité National d’Ethique  
327 pour la Recherche en Santé of Senegal (SEN20/50), the University of Nairobi Ethics and Research  
328 Committee in Kenya (UON/CHS/TIMCI/1/1), the King George’s Medical College Institutional Ethics  
329 Committee in India (103rd ECM IC/P2), the Indian Council of Medical Research (2020-9753), the  
330 cantonal ethics review board of Vaud, Switzerland (CER-VD 2020-02800 & CER-VD 2020-02799),  
331 and the WHO Ethics Review Committee (ERC.0003405 & ERC.0003406). Written informed consent  
332 was obtained from all parents or guardians of children involved in the piloting of ePOCT+ and medAL-  
333 *Reader*. No informed consent was obtained from health care workers involved in the development and  
334 refinement of the tools.

335 The exploratory analysis of predictors from the 2014 ePOCT study received approval of the study  
336 protocol and related documents by the institutional review boards of the Ifakara Health Institute and  
337 the National Institute for Medical Research in Tanzania (NIMRrHQ,R.8a,/trl'Voll . 789), by the  
338 Ethikkommission Beider Basel in Switzerland (EKNZ UBE 15/03), and the Boston Children's Hospital  
339 ethical review board. Written informed consent was obtained from all parents or guardians.

340

## 341 RESULTS

342 The ePOCT+ clinical algorithm and supporting evidence for each country of implementation can be  
343 found on the websites of the [DYNAMIC](#) and [TIMCI](#) studies that are implementing ePOCT+. The major  
344 features of *medAL-Creator* and *medAL-Reader* are summarized in the supplementary material (S4  
345 Appendix), including the requirements defined by the CDSA target product profile (S5 Appendix).

346 The feasibility tests of ePOCT+ were conducted in 20 health facilities, leading to numerous  
347 modifications (Table 1). The improved algorithm was then piloted with over 2000 consultations before  
348 officially starting the clinical validation studies in the five countries of implementation.

349

350 **Table 1. Example of modifications based on user-experience feedback and observations**

Issue	Description + context	Modifications
CDSA impractical in emergency situations	Child with convulsions was brought into the consultation room interrupting the current consultation. The clinician stopped using the tablet and managed the child providing the incorrect antibiotic class and dose	Emergency button integrated so that emergency management guidance can easily be accessed at any point of the algorithm.
Understanding algorithm branches	Why a patient reached a specific diagnosis was not always well understood by clinicians	To improve understanding, and to have medAL-reader as a learning tool, efforts were made to simply present the decision tree logic for individual diagnostic and syndromic branches of the algorithm.
Some medicines not available at health	Sometimes medicines recommended by national guidelines were not available	Provide alternative medicines for most conditions in case the recommended one is not available.



facilities due to stock-outs		
Misunderstanding of the labelling of some clinical elements	The labelling of some symptoms and signs were not well understood by the clinician	Modification of labelling of some elements, clarification provided in the information button, and translation to local language
Some clinical signs not measured, especially when patients are many	Many clinicians did not always measure required clinical signs (anthropometrics, temperature, respiratory rate) and could thus not continue with the algorithm	Provide options to not measure some clinical signs and rather estimate the values (with warning that this is sub-optimal) to limit clinicians being 'stuck', to discourage false information to be entered, and to provide mentorship to those not measuring these signs
No clear identification of symptoms and signs that always result in severe disease / referral	Clinicians selected variables that resulted in a severe diagnosis, parenteral antibiotics, and referral, for which the clinician did not agree with.	Elements that result in the diagnosis of a severe disease and referral are highlighted

351

352 **DISCUSSION**

353 ePOCT+ was derived from existing evidence and clinical validation field studies from previous  
 354 generation CDSAs.[7, 9, 10] It is now being further validated in several large clinical studies. Following  
 355 established development protocols, attempts were made to ensure a transparent development  
 356 process, multi-stakeholder collaboration, and end-user feedback.[20, 21, 54, 55] Specifically, aligning  
 357 the development process of ePOCT+ and specifications of medAL-*reader* to the requirements of the  
 358 Target Product Profile for CDSAs was helpful to better meet the needs of end users in terms of quality,  
 359 safety, performance and operational functionality.[20]. Nonetheless, there are several limitations and  
 360 challenges with the development process and end-result of ePOCT+ and the medAL-*suite*, for which  
 361 ongoing modifications and improvements will be required.

362 Firstly, while efforts were made to improve the performance of the algorithm, there was often a  
 363 reliance on clinical guidelines which may not always be founded on the best/latest/highest quality



364 evidence, or applicable to low resource primary care settings.[56] [57] Furthermore, they require  
365 significant interpretation to transform into algorithms. Digital Adaptation Kits (DAKs) to guide  
366 implementers in how to interpret narrative guidelines to transform into digital platforms are currently  
367 being developed by the World Health Organization and should help address this challenge in the  
368 future.[49, 58] Often supplementary evidence was needed to complement national and international  
369 guidelines. This evidence should ideally be identified through systematic reviews,[59] however those  
370 are not always feasible. Leveraging existing evidence databases as done by another CDSA may be a  
371 more feasible method to avoid biases in identifying supporting evidence.[60] Among the supporting  
372 evidence identified, there was a paucity of evidence for conditions specific to older children above 5  
373 years, prognostic studies in the primary care setting, and diagnostic studies for conditions other than  
374 serious bacterial infection and pneumonia. Evaluating the prognostic and diagnostic value of  
375 predictors and models used in ePOCT+ during the ongoing validation studies will help to develop more  
376 efficient and better performing algorithms optimised for the target population.[49, 61]

377 Many modifications to ePOCT+ and medAL-*reader* compared to previous generation CDSAs were  
378 implemented in order to help improve uptake, addressing previously shared concerns such as limited  
379 scope, and ease of use. medAL-*reader* was specifically designed to follow normal healthcare worker  
380 workflows, however the introduction of other digital tools such as electronic medical records hinder  
381 these processes. As an example, it is estimated that there are over 160 digital health or health-related  
382 systems in Tanzania.[62] While efforts are currently being made to harmonize processes so that  
383 different digital systems can complement each other, rather than creating additional work, this has not  
384 yet been achieved. It is important to note, that while ePOCT+ and medAL-*reader* may address some  
385 challenges to uptake, there are many extrinsic and intrinsic factors that are not addressed, such as the  
386 low perceived value of following guidelines, and lack of motivation partly related to poor  
387 remuneration.[15, 63]

388 The digitalization process allows for increased complexity in the algorithm compared to paper  
389 guidelines. However, this complexity may limit the understanding by healthcare workers.  
390 Understanding how a diagnosis and treatment plan is reached is fundamental to clinical and patient  
391 autonomy, important for continued learning, and for fostering trust in any algorithm.[64-66] Efforts were  
392 made to present simple decision tree logic for each diagnosis. Nevertheless, the optimal method of

393 presentation of algorithm branches to assure understanding by primary care level healthcare workers

394 should be further explored.

395

396 **CONCLUSION**

397 ePOCT+ aims to improve clinical care of sick children in LMICs, notably by reducing unnecessary  
398 antibiotic prescription. We hope that the strong stakeholder involvement, the expanded scope of the  
399 clinical algorithm, and the novel software of the *medAL-suite* will result in high uptake, trust and  
400 acceptability. Widespread implementation will provide opportunity for dynamic and targeted  
401 refinements to the clinical content to improve the performance of the algorithm. We hope that the  
402 easy-to-use platform of the *medAL-suite*, and the framework used to develop ePOCT+ will allow  
403 health authorities and local communities to be able to take ownership of ePOCT+ or their own clinical  
404 algorithm for future adaptations and developments. Future success however, is contingent on the  
405 harmonization with national health management information systems and other digital systems.

406

407

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427

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670

671

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676 OdS, FB, LCo, GL, AK, KK, VDA, JT; Delphi survey: JVDM, LL, RT, KK; Statistical analyses: RT, AH;  
677 Drafted the first draft: RT; Commented and edited the first draft: KK, VDA; Commented on, edited and  
678 approved the final draft: all

679 **Supporting information captions**

680 **S1 Appendix: Prevalence of specific symptoms and diagnoses not covered in IMCI from**

681 **Tanzania**

682 **S2 Appendix: Delphi survey on the reliability and feasibility of measurement of symptoms and**

683 **signs**

684 **S3 Appendix: Prognostic value of predictors used in the ePOCT and ALMANACH electronic**

685 **clinical decision support algorithms**

686 **S4 Appendix: Features of the medAL-creator and medAL-reader software as defined by a**

687 ***clinical-IT collaboration with end-user feedback***

688

689 **S5 Appendix: Evaluation of ePOCT+ based on the characteristics set by the target product**

690 **profile for electronic clinical decision support algorithm as defined by expert consensus**

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