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25 **Abstract**

26 Acceptability of medicines for children is a challenge, yet critical to ensure adherence to treatment.

27 There is very little literature on formulation factors that influence acceptability of medicines,

28 particularly in the domiciliary environment. This pragmatic study was conducted at University

29 Hospital Coventry and Warwickshire (UHCW) with the aim of identifying the prevalence and nature

30 of oral formulation-related barriers to medicines administration in children suffering from long-term

31 conditions.

32 This study used semi-structured face-to-face interviews with 221 parents/carers of children (0-18

33 years) and 57 young people (12-18years).

34 Results showed significant medicines refusal and manipulation in the domiciliary environment.

35 Nearly one-third (71/232) of respondents reported medicines refusal. This was associated

36 significantly with the age of child ($p=0.016$), socioeconomic status (IMD 2010 score)($p=0.002$), taste

37 ($p<0.001$), texture ($p=0.017$), and volume (of liquid/powder) or quantity (of solid dosage form)

38 ($p<0.001$). 29%(74/252) of respondents reported manipulating medicines. P-values are based on

39 multivariable statistical analysis models.

40 This study has indicated that formulations prescribed to children with chronic conditions are not

41 meeting the needs of a significant number of patients based on self-report. Age-appropriate

42 medicines are required to provide suitable dose units with an acceptable taste for children. This

43 study should aid pharmaceutical companies to prioritise paediatric formulation work.

44

45 **1 Introduction**

46 Approximately 200 million prescriptions are issued annually for children and young people in the UK
47 (Costello et al., 2004). Previous studies have investigated medicines adherence in children, however
48 these have not explored potential barriers to adherence in the domiciliary setting. In this paper,
49 barriers are defined as obstacles that could result in non-adherence of medicines (e.g. forgetting,
50 refuse, hard to swallow, etc.).

51 There is a paucity of studies investigating barriers to medicines administration arising from oral
52 formulations (particularly those related to organoleptic and physical properties) in children with
53 chronic conditions. Those studies reported previously are limited to specific disease groups, e.g.
54 antiretroviral medicines in Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) (Boni et al., 2000; Gibb et al., 2003;
55 Goode et al., 2003; Marhefka et al., 2004; Pontali et al., 2001; Wrubel et al., 2005). Further studies
56 compare the acceptance and flavour preferences of a spectrum of drugs from one class (e.g.
57 antibiotics) using a “one-off” taste test method, commonly with the aid of a visual analogue scale
58 (VAS) most often in healthy children or adults (Bagger-Sjöbäck and Bondesson, 1989; Chan et al.,
59 1997; Cohen et al., 2009; El-Chaar et al., 1996; Samulak et al., 1996; Toscani et al., 2000).

60 The present study targets a large paediatric population suffering from different chronic conditions.

61 The palatability of paediatric medicines is one of the most important formulation factors with
62 potential to influence adherence to therapeutic regimens and outcomes (Salunke et al., 2011). It has
63 been demonstrated that making medications more pleasing to the child can have a positive effect on
64 compliance (Winnick et al., 2005). Refusal of a formulation was defined in the present study as,
65 ‘complete omission of a dose by intent on at least one occasion, including spitting the dose back out,
66 and/or closing the mouth’ and medicine manipulation was defined as ‘a medicine physically adapted
67 to facilitate medicines administration or for the purpose of giving a specific dose.’

68 The importance and incentive to study the palatability of paediatric formulations was discussed in
69 the reflection paper (EMA, 2006) and endorsed in the latest European Paediatric guideline on
70 pharmaceutical development of formulations for paediatric use (EMA, 2013).

71 The aims of the present study were (i) to identify the prevalence and nature of oral formulation-
72 related barriers to medicines administration in children suffering from long-term conditions in a
73 domiciliary environment; (ii) to identify the prevalence of children refusing formulations and also
74 determine which formulation factors influenced oral medicines refusal and (iii) to evaluate the
75 prevalence and nature of oral medicines manipulation by parents, carers and children in the
76 domiciliary environment.

77 **2 Materials and Methods**

78 **2.1 Data collection tool**

79 Understanding formulation acceptability in a domiciliary environment requires the use of
80 alternative means of data collection compared to in-patient studies. A semi-structured interview was
81 selected for this study to obtain the appropriate balance in data collection and subsequent analysis
82 (Malim and Birch, 1996). During a semi-structured interview, the interviewer is able to show
83 empathy and alter phrasing of questions in order to elicit detailed and considered responses from
84 participants; these benefits have been previously shown to provide more detailed outputs (Gillham,
85 2000) and an increased response rate (Chambers, 2000) compared to paper-based questionnaires.

86 A multidisciplinary research team (Professor in Clinical Pharmacy, paediatric consultant and
87 pharmacist) generated an outline of key problems with administering oral formulations to children;
88 these issues were refined via four focus groups with healthcare professionals at the University
89 Hospital Coventry and Warwickshire (UHCW) and Birmingham Children's Hospital (BCH). The data
90 collected, in addition to self-report methodologies referenced in published studies (Medical
91 Adherence Measure - MAM (Ingerski et al., 2009; Zelikovsky et al., 2008), Treatment Interview

92 Protocol - TIP (Marhefka et al., 2004), Pediatric AIDS Clinical Trials Group PACTG questionnaire
93 (NIAID) and Morisky Scales (Morisky et al., 2008; Morisky et al., 1986) were used to inform the
94 design of the self-report semi-structured interview tool. The Young Persons Advisory Group (YPAG)
95 at Birmingham Children's Hospital (n=12 members) reviewed the tool to ensure that it was age
96 appropriate.

97 The 13-item self-report tool (Supplementary File 1) used in the semi-structured interviews was
98 designed to collect data exploring medicines adherence including medicines refusal (see Q5 in
99 Supplementary File 1), medicines manipulation (see Q3a in Supplementary File 1) and barriers to
100 medicines administration (see Q3b in Supplementary File 1) in parents, carers and children
101 themselves. Open questions were used to elicit reasons for medicines refusal to avoid bias.

102 A semi-structured interview was conducted by a single researcher (post-graduate pharmacist (RV) -
103 not previously known to the patients) to minimise variation in approach and the responses were
104 entered manually onto a structured data record during each interview. The interviews (maximum
105 duration of 45 minutes) were conducted in a private area at the paediatric outpatients department
106 at UHCW at times scheduled to coincide with routine clinical appointments. Ethical approval was
107 granted by the South Birmingham REC and informed consent was obtained for all participants.

108 Participants were invited to provide demographic information in order to generate an Index of
109 Multiple Deprivation 2010 (IMD 2010) score.

110

111 **2.2 Qualitative Analysis**

112 Themes were identified using a frame-work analysis approach to form a coding spine. Thematic
113 content analysis (Pope et al., 2000) was used to identify and group common themes, relating to
114 medicines administration. Qualitative data was analysed using NVivo 8 software (QSR International).

115 **2.3 Statistical Analysis**

116 Statistical analysis was conducted using generalised estimating equations to explore the relationship
117 between independent variables (e.g. child age, IMD score, formulation type) and dependent
118 variables with binary outcomes (Refusal or Manipulation).

119 Patient, participant and data on formulations were converted into categorical variables (see Tables 2
120 & 3).

121 Data analysis was performed on an individual medicine level facilitating comparisons between
122 medicine specific variables (e.g. different medicine groups and formulations), which are not possible
123 at a patient level. In order to account possible non-independence of data owing to any response
124 correlation to medicines taken by an individual, univariable generalised estimating equations were
125 used. The univariable analysis did not control for potential relationships between independent
126 variables therefore multivariable analysis was also conducted using the combination of independent
127 variables found to be significant ($p < 0.05$) for the dependent variables in the univariable model
128 (medicines refusal, medicines manipulations). This generated Odds Ratios, 95% confidence intervals
129 and associated p values. The data was analysed using SPSS version 20 software (IBM).

130

131 **2.4 Study Setting and Study Participants**

132 A pragmatic approach was employed to identify and recruit participants resulting in a total of 1559
133 study invitation letters being posted to patients (via their parent/carer) due to attend follow-up
134 paediatric clinics (1448/1559) or handed out on the paediatric wards (111/1559) at UHCW. Study
135 interviews were conducted with parents or carers (if legal guardians) of children or young people, or
136 with young people directly. The opportunity to assent and participate alone was given to 12-16 year
137 olds providing parent or carer consent was also obtained. Young people over 16 years of age were
138 permitted to consent alone and encouraged to discuss the study with a parent or legal guardian
139 before providing consent. It was necessary to include young people (those over 12 years of age),

140 where appropriate as this sub-population reported increased personal management of their
141 medicines administration. Parents or carers views were more useful for younger children where they
142 may not have the cognitive capability to participate alone.

143 Age-appropriate study information was provided to potential participants at least 24 hours before
144 asking for participation in the study.

145 A total of 191 general and speciality outpatient clinics were targeted covering a wide range of
146 chronic conditions (e.g. epilepsy, cystic fibrosis, neoplasms, cardiac disorders, endocrine disorders,
147 tuberculosis, HIV, renal diseases, rheumatological diseases and survivors of neonatal intensive care).
148 It should be noted that not all patients in clinics were prescribed medicines, therefore not all
149 patients were eligible for study inclusion. There was a scheduled approach to accessing patients at
150 these clinics on a rotating basis to ensure wide coverage of the target patient population. UHCW is a
151 teaching hospital with three age-banded paediatric wards. All have a wide range of paediatric
152 patients without specialism. Inpatients from all three paediatric wards at UHCW were included at
153 the recruitment phase to minimise the risk of missing eligible patients who were hospitalised during
154 the study period. The recruitment phase lasted 15 months from November 2010 to February 2012.

155 **2.4.1 Inclusion criteria**

156 The study included children (aged 0- <18 years) with chronic conditions and their parents or carers.
157 Age bandings were based on pre-school; school-age and adolescents to match cognitive function.
158 Patients were eligible for inclusion if they had been taking prescribed medication for a chronic
159 condition for at least one month prior to their outpatient appointment.

160 **3 Results**

161 A total of 280 participants consented to the study (Figure 1). Interviews were completed with 221
162 parents/carers and 57 young people (in the presence of a parent/carer (n=42), in the absence of a
163 parent/carer (n=15)). In total, (91%) 252/278 of the children included were prescribed at least one

164 oral formulation. The remaining 26 patients were not prescribed any oral formulations, only non-
165 oral formulations. The data from these patients was analysed separately and is not included in the
166 subsequent analyses.

167

168 **3.1 Participant demographics and medicines**

169 The 252 children receiving oral formulations were categorised into three age groups: 0-4 years
170 (n=92), 5-11 years (n=93) and 12-18 years (n=67), see Table 1 for the frequency of oral formulation
171 types prescribed.

172 **Table 1: The frequency of oral formulation types prescribed across child age ranges 0-4y, 4-12y and**
173 **12-18y**

Age Group	0-4 years (n=92)	5-11 years (n=93)	12-18 years (n=67)	Total in 252 children
Liquids	130	86	36	252
Tablets or capsules	20	61	96	177
Other (granules, powders, soluble tablets and melts)	49	47	17	113
Totals	199	194	149	542

174 n represents the number of children in each age range (0-4, 5-11 and 12-18 years)

175 In total, 542 oral formulations were prescribed across the cohort (with the number of oral
176 formulations prescribed to each patient ranging from 1 to 8).

177 Of these oral formulations, 8% (41/542) were identified as 'Specials' (i.e. unlicensed formulations
178 prepared under the terms of a Marketing Authorisation, granted by the Medicines and Healthcare
179 products Regulatory Agency) (MHRA).

180

181 **3.2 Medicines refusal**

182 In total, 232/252 of participants answered the question (Q5 see Supplementary File 1) about the
183 refusal of formulations, resulting in data on 436/542 of formulations. Of these, 8% (44/542) of
184 formulations were administered via nasogastric or percutaneous endoscopic gastrostomy tubes and
185 medicine refusal was not permitted, therefore data is unavailable on these medications for 10

186 patients. The medicines refusal question was not delivered to a further 10 participants owing to time
 187 constraints. Almost one third (71/232) of respondents reported medicines refusal on at least one
 188 occasion; multivariable statistical analysis was conducted on this data set. The results are reported in
 189 Table 2.

190 **Table 2: Multivariable analysis results: Reports of medicines refusal on at least one occasion**

	Odds Ratio (95% CI)	p Value
Age of child at Interview		
		0.016*
0-4 years	1	
5-11 years	0.42 (0.19 - 0.89)	0.024*
12-18 years	1.31 (0.54 - 3.20)	0.554
IMD 2010 score		
		0.002*
<11.5	1	
11.5-19.8	1.32 (0.49-3.51)	0.584
19.9-31.9	3.19 (1.37-7.43)	0.007*
32+	4.75 (2.02-11.18)	<0.001*
Formulation type		
		0.336
Liquid	1	
Capsules and Tablets	0.59 (0.27-1.30)	0.193
Other (granules, powders, soluble tablets and melts)	0.64 (0.30-1.38)	0.254
Problem with taste		
		<0.001*
No	1	
Yes	3.82 (2.11-6.92)	<0.001*
Problem with texture		
		0.017*
No	1	
Yes	3.38 (1.24-9.22)	0.017*
Problem with volume or quantity		
		<0.001*
No	1	
Yes	12.79 (4.41-37.12)	<0.001*
Problem with smell		
		0.776
No	1	
Yes	1.24 (0.28-5.46)	0.776

191 p values marked with * identify statistically significant results (p<0.05).

192 The age of child at interview was found to be a significant predictor of refusal, with children aged
 193 between 5-11 the least likely to have refused medicines (OR=0.42, relative to the 0-4 year group;
 194 95% CI: 0.19-0.89; p=0.024). However, no significant difference was detected between the likelihood
 195 of medicines refusal in the 12-18 years group, relative to the 0-4 years group (OR=1.31; 95% CI: 0.54-
 196 3.20; p=0.554). The likelihood of medicines refusal was found to increase significantly (p=0.002)

197 across the IMD score groups, peaking at an odds ratio of 4.75 (95% CI: 2.02-11.18; $p < 0.001$) in the
198 most deprived patient group (IMD=32+) relative to the least deprived (IMD<11.5).

199 A range of medicines related factors were also found to be associated with refusal in children.
200 Patients who had problems with the volume or quantity of medication were considerably more likely
201 to have a history of medicines refusal (OR=12.79; 95% CI: 4.41-37.12; $p < 0.001$), with issues with
202 either taste (OR=3.82; 95% CI: 2.11-6.92; $p < 0.001$) or texture (OR=3.38; 95% CI: 1.24-9.22; $p = 0.017$)
203 also being significant predictors of refusal. However, after accounting for these factors, there was no
204 significant evidence that either the smell ($p = 0.776$), or the type of formulation ($p = 0.336$), had any
205 impact on refusal rates.

206 **3.3 Medicines manipulation**

207 Almost one third (74/252) of respondents reported manipulating formulations.

208 In total, 19% (94/499) of formulations were manipulated. Of these, the majority (93%, 87/94) were
209 reported to be manipulated 'always' (i.e. prior to every dose administration).

210

211 Of the medicine manipulations reported, 26% (24/94) were performed for the purpose of
212 administering a specific dose (e.g. one quarter of a tablet), whilst the majority of medicine
213 manipulations, 79% (74/94) were performed to facilitate medicines administration (e.g. mixed into
214 foodstuffs). Omeprazole soluble tablets, macrogol 3350 oral powder, co-trimoxazole tablets and
215 mercaptopurine tablets were most often manipulated (by at least 40% of users). For over three
216 quarters (78% 7/9) of children prescribed omeprazole soluble tablets, medicines manipulation was
217 reported.

218 The age of the child at the interview was found to be a significant predictor of the reporting of
219 medicines manipulation ($p = 0.005$). Reports became progressively less likely with increasing age, with
220 Odds Ratios of 0.29 (95% CI: 0.13-0.67; $p = 0.004$) in the 5-11 year age group, and 0.18 (95% CI: 0.06-
221 0.59; $p = 0.005$) in the 12-18 year age group, relative to patients in the 0-4 year group.

222 The type of formulation was also associated significantly with reporting of medicines manipulation
 223 ($p < 0.001$), with tablets and capsules (OR: 9.66; 95% CI: 3.48-26.87; $p < 0.001$) and other formulations
 224 (granules, powders, soluble tablets and melts) (OR: 23.97; 95% CI: 9.14-62.84; $p < 0.001$) both more
 225 likely to be manipulated than liquids. Manipulation was also found to be significantly more likely to
 226 be reported where patients had problems with either the size (OR: 4.52; 95% CI: 1.37-14.90;
 227 $p = 0.013$) or the texture (OR: 3.15; 95% CI: 1.39-7.14; $p = 0.006$) of the medicines. In cases where the
 228 child had partial responsibility for the administration of a medicine, significantly lower rates of
 229 manipulation were reported, relative to where the parent or guardian was solely responsible (OR:
 230 0.28; 95% CI: 0.10-0.81; $p = 0.019$). A similar effect was observed where the child was totally
 231 responsible for medicines administration, although this was not statistically significant (OR: 0.22;
 232 95% CI: 0.02-1.94; $p = 0.171$). The results are reported in Table 3.

233 **Table 3: Multivariable analysis results: Reports of medicines manipulation**

	Odds Ratio (95% CI)	P Value
Age of child at Interview		0.005*
0-4 years	1	
5-11 years	0.29 (0.13-0.67)	0.004*
12-18 years	0.18 (0.06-0.59)	0.005*
Is English first language of participant		0.085
Yes	1	
No	0.26 (0.06-1.20)	0.085
Formulation type		<0.001*
Liquid	1	
Tablets and Capsules	9.66 (3.48-26.87)	<0.001*
Other (granules, powders, soluble tablets and melts)	23.97 (9.14-62.84)	<0.001*
Problem with size of dosage form or aversion to/difficulty swallowing dosage form		0.013*
No	1	
Yes	4.52 (1.37-14.90)	0.013*
Problem with texture		0.006*
No	1	
Yes	3.15 (1.39-7.14)	0.006*
Problem related to other formulation and administration problems		0.206
No	1	
Yes	1.89 (0.70-5.08)	0.206

Who is responsible for medicines administration		0.049*
Parent/Guardian	1	
Child plus Parent/Guardian	0.28 (0.10-0.81)	0.019*
Child	0.22 (0.02-1.94)	0.171
Problem with volume or quantity		0.157
No	1	
Yes	2.17 (0.74-6.35)	0.157
Frequency of dosing		0.404
1x daily	1	
2x daily	0.70 (0.34-1.45)	0.345
≥3x daily	0.20 (0.03-1.46)	0.113
<1x daily (not including medicines prescribed on a 'when required' basis)	0.76 (0.23-2.46)	0.647

p values marked with * identify statistically significant results (p<0.05).

234

235

236 3.4 Barriers to oral medicines administration

237 3.4.1 Taste

238 Taste was the most commonly reported barrier to medicines administration affecting 35% (188/542)
 239 of all prescribed oral formulations, and associated with 64% (54/85) of formulations that were
 240 refused.

241 Formulations with the highest incidence of taste issues were ranitidine liquid (82%; 9/11 children),
 242 prednisolone soluble tablets (81%; 13/16 children) and trimethoprim liquid (75%; 6/8 children) of
 243 total users. However, taste issues were reported for at least 50% of children prescribed other
 244 common drugs (lactulose liquid, macrogol 3350 oral powder sachets, co-trimoxazole tablets, sodium
 245 valproate liquid, levetiracetam liquid, penicillin liquid, ibuprofen liquid and prednisolone tablets).
 246 See Figure 2 for reported taste problems.

247 3.4.2 Texture

248 Texture was reported to affect 8% (42/542) of all prescribed oral formulations, and was a significant
 249 predictor of medicines refusal. Co-trimoxazole liquid (38%), omeprazole soluble tablets (33%) and
 250 lactulose liquid (25%) were most commonly reported to have texture-related problems. Specific
 251 medicines identified with textural issues included: lactulose which was described as “oily” and co-
 252 trimoxazole liquid described as “thick and gelatinous”

253 **3.4.3 Volume or Quantity**

254 Of the medicines prescribed, 5% (29/542) were reported to have “too large” a volume or “too many”
255 solid dosage units to be administered at one dosing interval. Volume or quantity were reported as
256 barriers to administration for 63% (5/8) of children prescribed pancrealipase capsules, 40% (12/30)
257 of children prescribed macrogol 3350 oral powders and 19% (3/16) of children prescribed
258 prednisolone soluble tablets.

259 **3.4.4 Size and aversion to or difficulty with swallowing**

260 Problems related to i) the size of a solid dosage form or ii) aversion to or difficulty swallowing a solid
261 dosage form was associated with 5% (28/542) of the total medicines prescribed (16% if only solid
262 dosage forms considered).

263 For 16% (28/177) of solid dosage forms prescribed to patients, problems experienced either with the
264 size of a solid dosage form or where children were averse to swallowing a solid dosage form were
265 reported. Problems specifically related to the sizes of particular solid dosage forms were reported
266 for 68% (19/28) of these medicines, and aversion to, or difficulty swallowing solid dosage forms was
267 reported for the remaining 32% (9/28) of medicines. It should be noted that these patients were not
268 physically unable to swallow (i.e. not patients fitted with an NG or PEG tube). The majority (7/8=
269 88%) of patients prescribed co-trimoxazole tablets reported a problem with their large size or
270 difficulties swallowing them. These children were aged from 4 to 15 years. Although specific data on
271 brand of formulation was not collected from parents, the size of co-trimoxazole tablets (480mg) was
272 measured to be an average of 11mm (based on the average diameter of two different
273 manufacturers). This could be expected based on the large amount of active ingredient within the
274 formulation. In contrast, there were no problems reported with the size of levothyroxine tablets,
275 owing to their significantly lower dose (micrograms) and therefore a comparatively smaller tablet.

276 **3.4.5 Colour/appearance and smell**

277 An unfavourable colour (descriptions provided included “alarming”, off-putting, and colourless) was
278 associated with 2% (11/542) of medicines prescribed. Two of eighteen children prescribed sodium

279 valproate liquid highlighted its “alarming colour” .. Similarly, one of nine patients prescribed
280 paracetamol liquid described its unappealing colour.

281 In addition, 2% (11/542) of medicines prescribed were identified as having “off-putting” smells. For
282 25% (2/8) of children prescribed trimethoprim liquid, an unfavourable smell was reported.

283 **4 Discussion**

284 This study has indicated that formulations prescribed to children with chronic conditions are not
285 meeting the needs of a significant number of patients based on self-report. Medicines refusal was
286 associated significantly with barriers to oral medicines administration: taste, texture,
287 quantity/volume (see Table 2). Palatability needs to be considered carefully by pharmaceutical
288 companies when designing new formulations and also by prescribers in order to optimise effective
289 prescribing, maximising adherence, therapeutic effects and reducing wastage with cost savings.
290 Other statistically significant factors associated with medicines refusal were child age at interview
291 and IMD 2010 score. Recent EMA guidance (EMA, 2013) states that age-appropriateness of
292 formulations needs to be prominent in pharmaceutical development and also when designing
293 prescribing protocols for prescribers. Further research is required to investigate the relationship
294 between socio-demographic factors and medicines refusal.

295 The formulations highlighted to be problematic are also often prescribed to treat patients with acute
296 conditions, e.g. soluble prednisolone tablets. Evaluation of the study data can inform changes in
297 prescribing practice, e.g. prescribing prednisolone tablets in preference to soluble prednisolone
298 tablets for children; even though intuitively soluble tablets are considered to be age-appropriate for
299 paediatric populations. This change has been implemented at UHCW and it is estimated that this will
300 generate a cost saving of £5000 per annum in the Paediatric Department (Personal Communication,
301 2012).

302 This study identified that almost one third (29%) of participants reported manipulating medicines.
 303 Studies conducted in specific patient groups (HIV (Byrne et al., 2002; Goode et al., 2003; Wrubel et
 304 al., 2005) and oncology (Christiansen et al., 2008)), reported similar findings. Several examples of
 305 medicines manipulation that could affect drug bioavailability and thus therapeutic response were
 306 identified and their potential physicochemical effects are reported in Table 4 below.

307

308 **Table 4: Potential physicochemical effects of medicines manipulation**

Manipulation techniques reported within this study	Potential physicochemical effects of manipulation techniques (general examples; not tested with specific formulations reported within this study)
Splitting tablets (co-trimoxazole tablets) or sachets manually (Gaviscon infant oral powders)	Inaccurate segmentation resulting in administration of inaccurate dose (underdose versus overdose)
Mixing non-soluble tablets with liquids (azathioprine tablets)	Non-uniform dosing, aggregation and sedimentation of insoluble drug particles
Crushing tablets (hydrocortisone tablets)	Thermal degradation
Mixing with foodstuffs (sodium valproate liquid)	Fruit juices (altering pH), drug binding to dairy proteins, formation of insoluble complexes

309 Limited evidence is available on the effects of mixing drugs with various foodstuffs. Prolonging the
 310 contact time of a drug with a foodstuff is likely to increase the binding capability and therefore may
 311 risk reducing drug bioavailability, thus affect therapeutic response. Additionally, if a drug-foodstuff
 312 mixture is not consumed in its entirety, the desired dose will not be administered.

313 To minimise unnecessary medicines manipulation it is essential that prescribers consider age-
 314 appropriateness, type of formulation (in relation to ease of administration), swallowing problems
 315 and patient capability to swallow tablets according to size and also acceptance of different textures.
 316 These factors were associated significantly with manipulation of medicines (see Table 3). The lower
 317 reported refusal of solid dosage forms compared to liquids (see Table 2) may be associated with the
 318 adoption of *ad hoc* manipulation techniques, and supporting this, medicines manipulation was
 319 significantly associated with administering solid dosage forms (see Table 3).

320 Future formulation work needs to be implemented to develop age-appropriate formulations that are
 321 accepted by children and are also available in appropriate unit doses, ideally pre-measured, covering
 322 child dosing ranges and also small enough to taper doses accurately. Dosage form technologies such

323 as mini-tablets (Spomer et al., 2012; Thomson et al., 2009) may help to reduce the perceived need to
324 manipulate some medicines. However, it should be acknowledged that for some medicines, it may
325 be more feasible for practical and economical reasons to use safe and effective manipulation
326 techniques. Owing to the limited data available and also poor understanding of healthcare
327 professionals regarding the safety and efficacy of medicines manipulation (Akram and Mullen, 2012;
328 Venables et al., 2012) it is vital that laboratory work is conducted to provide a robust scientific
329 evidence base to support safe and effective medicines manipulation.

330 It would be useful for future studies to investigate if education to help children to learn to swallow
331 tablets could improve medicines adherence. Studies investigating infant acceptance of different
332 tastes and textures of foodstuffs (Harris, 2008; Northstone et al., 2001) agree that encouraging
333 children to accept solid dosage forms from a younger age may be beneficial. This could minimise
334 child aversion to some formulations and also reduce unnecessary modification to medication.

335 The present study is pragmatic, of multi-perspective design and has a large paediatric sample size. It
336 has expanded the pre-existing, narrowly focussed literature and identified the prevalence and
337 nature of barriers to oral medicines administration in children with chronic conditions.
338 Complementing the findings of this study, two other studies (Richey et al., 2011; Skwierczynski and
339 Conroy, 2008) identified the nature and frequency of manipulations to formulations administered to
340 children on paediatric wards. Identification of the difficulties experienced by families when
341 administering formulations to children is essential for directing future formulation development
342 work. User involvement has played a fundamental role throughout the present study.

343 A limitation within the present study is the reporting of generic formulations as opposed to specific
344 products (e.g. brands and manufacturers). This results from the nature of this pragmatic study which
345 relies upon parent/carer/patient reports. Nonetheless, this is the first study to explore barriers to
346 oral medicines administration in children with a wide range of chronic conditions. Further research is

347 required to identify whether similarly, problems are encountered with non-oral medicines and in
348 paediatric populations outside of the UK.

349 A limitation of using a self-report tool is the risk of inaccurate reporting (Butz, 2006). In this study,
350 one mother reported that medication had not been omitted, however the adolescent in her care
351 provided an opposing report. This finding reinforces the need for future studies to investigate parent
352 and teenager reports independently. In the present study, there was insufficient time and resources
353 for parents and young people to be interviewed independently and the study was designed to be
354 pragmatic, thus reflect a family environment. A study by Buchanan and co-workers (2012) found
355 significant similarity between independent reports of 'taste/cannot get it down' ($p < 0.001$),
356 forgetting ($p < 0.001$), and also refusing doses ($p = 0.01$) amongst young people with HIV and their
357 carers. These findings suggest that reporting of such outcomes is fairly consistent between carers
358 and young people, however this is only one study, conducted in children with HIV.

359 The statistical results may have been subject to confounding by other factors that were not
360 considered in the analysis and should be interpreted in light of this. However, since a range of
361 variables were considered in the analysis and a multivariable statistical approach was used,
362 confounding factors have been accounted for as far as was possible.

363 **5 Conclusions**

364 Almost one third (31%) of respondents reported medicines refusal on at least one occasion and 29%
365 reported manipulating formulations. Study findings indicate that oral formulations prescribed to
366 children are not suitable for a significant number of patients. Adherence and hence expected
367 therapeutic response will be potentially affected. Medicines manipulation can be a serious burden
368 for parents or carers, particularly when children are prescribed several formulations. Age-
369 appropriate formulations should be developed to provide both suitable dose units and acceptable
370 taste. Further laboratory work is required to provide robust scientific evidence to support medicines

371 manipulation techniques suitable for use in the domiciliary environment with attention to patient
372 safety and drug efficacy. In addition, prescribers and pharmacists need to be vigilant when making
373 prescribing and supply decisions respectively, to ensure that they are choosing the most appropriate
374 formulation for an individual patient.

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