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Doing It Right the First Time: Quality Improvement and the Contaminant Blood Culture

FREDRIC I. WEINBAUM,[1,2]* SOL LAVIE,[3] MARGARET DANEK,[2] DIANE SIXSMITH,[4] GEORGE F. HEINRICH,[5] AND STEPHEN S. MILLS[5]

Departments of Surgery,[1] Pathology,[3] Emergency Medicine,[4] Quality Management,[2] and Administration,[5] The New York Hospital Medical Center of Queens, Flushing, New York†

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The aim of the project was to determine whether the rate of contaminant blood cultures could be reduced by using a team of dedicated phlebotomists. Comparisons were made between adult patients requiring blood cultures for suspected bacteremia on medical and surgical units before and after the introduction and withdrawal of a dedicated blood culture team. The results showed that a significant reduction in the contaminant blood culture rate was achieved by the blood culture team ($P < 0.001$; χ^2 test). Therefore, in our experience, the rate of contaminant blood cultures can be reduced in a teaching hospital by using a team of dedicated phlebotomists. Calculations made with our data and those published by others suggest that cost savings from reducing false-positive blood cultures are greater than the cost of the blood culture team.

The costs of correcting a defective product often exceed the costs of designing a system to avoid producing a defect (5). For hospitals, these costs are not only monetary but also carry a burden of human suffering. The contaminant blood culture can be regarded as a "defective product." The cost of correcting this defect far exceeds the cost of repeating the blood culture itself (2, 6). Contaminant blood cultures are common events in teaching hospitals (1, 2, 10). They are associated with increased length of stay, inappropriate administration of antibiotics, and use of further testing (2, 6), resulting in more than 50% greater total hospital charges (2).

Standards published by the American Society of Microbiology indicate that the rate of blood culture contamination should not exceed 3% (8). Nevertheless in many teaching hospitals the contamination rate exceeds 6% (2, 10). A recent publication suggested that this could be reduced to less than 4% by using a different method of skin preparation (10). In our institution the contamination rate reported to our quality assessment and improvement committee was 4.7%, and this was identified as an opportunity for improvement.

When quality concerns occur, there is a natural tendency to blame the line worker (3). For many teaching hospitals, the line worker who collects blood for culture is usually an intern or resident. Our initial effort was to educate the house staff on proper performance and provide guidelines for appropriate test use. Despite this effort, the contamination rate remained the same. To achieve a quality improvement breakthrough, we questioned the system rather than blaming the line worker. We hypothesized that our house staff had numerous clinical responsibilities and could not possibly dedicate the time and energy required to perform the process of collecting blood for culture without the result being a contamination rate that is unacceptable. We instituted a trial of a blood culture team (BCT) consisting of dedicated phlebotomists. We hypothesized that this would lead to a significant reduction in the rate of contaminant blood cultures. Published data (2) indicated that saving the true costs of contaminant blood cultures would make this initiative economically advantageous. The subsequent quality improvement would pay for the cost of the program, confirming the contention of industry consultants that for some goals quality is free (4). We report a significant reduction in the rate of blood culture contamination achieved by a team of dedicated phlebotomists ($P < 0.001$; χ^2 test).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patient population. The New York Hospital Medical Center of Queens is an acute-care community hospital with 487 beds. There are independent medical and surgical residency programs. The patient units chosen for this study were adult general medical and surgical care units. All patients on these units requiring a blood culture for suspected bacteremia during the study periods were included. No consents were obtained, and patients were not informed of this study. Institutional review board approval was not deemed necessary.

Study design. A BCT consisting of three full-time phlebotomists was established. Blood samples for culture were collected by the BCT after orders were written by house staff or attending physicians by a standardized protocol based on methods published previously (9). Briefly, a commercially available skin preparation kit (prep kit) with isopropanol and tincture of iodine (Cepti-seal blood culture prep kit II; Mediflex Hospital Systems, Overland Park, Kans.) was used according to the manufacturer's specifications, and two sets of blood samples for culture were collected from separate sites of each patient. Each was inoculated into one anaerobic and one aerobic culture bottle (BACTEC NR 7A and 6A, respectively; Becton-Dickinson Diagnostic Systems, Sparks, Md.). Blood samples were collected by house staff when the BCT was not available to the patient care unit.

The house staff were educated in proper technique by conventional methods (alcohol and povidone-iodine swabs), but no attempt was made to verify their use. Commercial prep kits were not available to the house staff initially. These were made available on one patient unit after the BCT was withdrawn and the house staff was educated regarding their use. This was done to evaluate the effect of the commercial prep kit.

Blood cultures were evaluated by using BACTEC NR-660 (Becton-Dickinson Diagnostic Systems). Blood cultures were considered contaminated if microorganisms derived from common skin flora were cultured: *Corynebacterium* spp., *Bacillus* spp., *Propionibacterium* spp. (e.g., *Propionibacterium acnes*), and coagulase-negative staphylococci.

The presence of coagulase-negative staphylococci was closely monitored since it may represent true infection. Culture sets in which only one of four bottles or two of four bottles (one set) were positive were analyzed. Coagulase-negative staphylococci present in three of four and four of four bottles were not considered contaminants for the purposes of this study to avoid including true positives.

The following criteria were used in combination to confirm contamination for cultures positive for coagulase-negative staphylococci: (i) subsequent (and often prior) cultures were negative and (ii) physician review of the medical record indicated that contamination was present.

Two patient care units (designated units A and B) were selected for sequential

* Corresponding author. Mailing address: The New York Hospital Medical Center of Queens, 56-45 Main St., Flushing, NY 11355. Phone: (718) 670-1817. Fax: (718) 670-1196.

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TABLE 1. Comparison of blood culture collection techniques by house staff and phlebotomy team (BCT)

Blood culture collection technique	Unit A			Unit B		
	Duration of study (mo)	No. of contaminated cultures/total no. of cultures (%)[a]	*P* value	Duration of study (mo)	No. of contaminated cultures/total no. of cultures (%)	*P* value
A. House staff without prep kits	3	24/287 (8.4)	<0.001[b]	2	15/312 (4.8)	<0.001[b]
B. BCT with prep kits	6	11/956 (1.2)	<0.001[c]	3	8/799 (1.0)	
C. House staff with prep kits	3	10/208 (4.8)				

[a] For comparison of techniques A and C, $P = 0.173$.
[b] Comparison of techniques A and B.
[c] Comparison of techniques B and C.

introduction of the BCT. Unit A was a large, busy general medical floor and was heavily weighted toward emergency admissions. This area had been noted in the past to have a high rate of blood culture contamination. Unit B consisted of a smaller general medical floor and a general surgical floor. Historically, the rate of blood culture contamination on unit B was similar to that for the institution as a whole. Blood culture data were collected for 3 months prior to the introduction of the BCT on unit A and for 2 months prior to the introduction of the BCT on unit B. Data were collected for a subsequent 6 months for unit A and 3 months for unit B after the introduction of the BCT. The BCT was then withdrawn from unit A and the commercial prep kits made available to the house staff, who were instructed to use them according to specifications. Data were then collected for 3 subsequent months for unit A.

Statistical methods. The Mantel-Haenszel chi-square test was performed with True Epistat software (Epistat Services, Richardson, Tex.) on an International Business Machines Corporation-compatible desktop computer. Two-tailed *P* values were used.

RESULTS

Effects of BCT and commercial skin prep. The results of studies examining the effects of the BCT and the commercially available skin prep are presented in Table 1 and are displayed graphically in Fig. 1. Unit A had a high baseline rate of blood culture contamination (8.4%), a rate that exceeded that seen in the hospital as a whole (4.7%; unpublished data). This high rate was thought to be due to the character of the unit, a busy, high-turnover, general medical floor heavily weighted toward emergency admissions, and the effect that this had on the house staff workload. Unit B had a lower baseline rate of contamination of blood cultures (4.8%), and this result was similar to that for the whole institution. After the introduction of a BCT, the rate of contamination decreased significantly for unit A to 1.2% ($P < 0.001$; χ^2 test) and decreased significantly for unit B to 1% ($P < 0.001$; χ^2 test). When the BCT was withdrawn from unit A, commercial blood culture kits with isopropanol and tincture of iodine were supplied and the house staff were educated in their use. Despite the use of the prep kits, there was a significant increase in the contamination rate to 4.8% compared to that observed with the BCT, 1.2% ($P < 0.001$; χ^2 test). The performance of the house staff on unit A did exhibit a trend toward improvement with the use of the commercial prep kits compared to that at the baseline (4.8 versus 8.4%), but this was not statistically significant ($P = 0.173$; χ^2 test). Others have found significant improvements with improved methods of skin preparation (9, 10).

Calculations of economic benefits. Data establishing the true consequences of false-positive blood cultures have been published by Bates et al. (2). The median hospital charges for patients with false-positive blood cultures were reported to be more than 50% greater than those for similar patients with true-negative blood cultures. This was accounted for by increased length of stay and increases in pharmacy and laboratory charges, with an increase in total median charges of more $4,000 per patient. In our hospital, costs account for greater than 98% of charges. If we assume a 50% increase in actual hospital costs and average diagnosis-related group charges of approximately $5,000, then each contaminant blood culture costs our institution $2,500. If we accept this conservative estimate, then the following calculation can be made. For unit A, over 6 months, 11 of 956 cultures of blood collected by the BCT with a commercial skin prep kit were contaminated. Without blood collection by the BCT and with the use of the commercial skin prep kit, 4.8%, or 45 contaminant blood cultures, would have been expected. This represents elimination of 34 contaminant cultures or a calculated savings of $85,000. The cost of the BCT, with three full-time equivalent salaries and benefits, for 6 months was $45,000. The savings resulting from this improvement, $40,000, does not include further cost reductions that the BCT achieved simultaneously on unit B, which were also substantial, as well as other productive work that the team performed (collection of blood at appropriate intervals for determination of antibiotic levels for patients on aminoglycosides). More than 14,000 blood culture sets were collected in our institution for the year 1994. We would predict that at least 650 sets would have been contaminated on the basis of an institutional contamination rate of 4.7%. A reduction of the contamination rate to 1.2% would eliminate more than 480 contaminant cultures, with potential savings of $1,200,000.

DISCUSSION

Our data have indicated that a significant reduction in the rate of contaminant blood cultures was achieved in two patient care units by a BCT using commercial prep kits ($P < 0.001$) compared to the results obtained by house staff. Improved

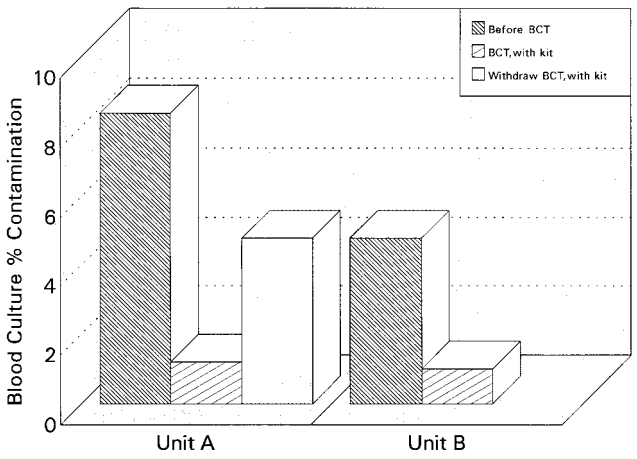

FIG. 1. Effect of BCT and commercial prep kits on rate of blood culture contamination.

results occurred when house staff used a commercial prep kit, although the difference from the baseline data was not statistically significant ($P = 0.173$; χ^2 test). Others have shown that significant benefits result from improved methods of skin preparation (9, 10). The trend that we observed would corroborate those reports. Conservative estimates of the cost savings achieved by reductions in contaminant blood cultures indicated that the BCT was economically advantageous.

Quality can be defined for some products as conformance to specifications measured by the number of defects divided by the number of opportunities to produce a defect (7). The contaminant blood culture is an easily measured example of a defect produced by a process within a hospital. Unfortunately, the implications of producing this defect are not merely economic. Human suffering results from the increased use of diagnostic testing and additional hospital days with treatment with unnecessary antibiotics. Improving quality in hospital settings is a valid goal, regardless of cost. Nevertheless, pressures to reduce costs from consumers and government exist independently of consideration of quality. In other industries, when the cost of error is calculated, it is clear that improving quality by designing systems to reduce the production of defects results in substantial savings (7). Calculations made by using our results and those reported by others (2) indicate that this is the case for contaminant blood cultures.

Quality improvement can reduce costs in medicine as well as in other industries. Incentives to do so are already present. Organizations that harness the tools of quality improvement theory should be well equipped to meet this challenge. An appropriate goal for hospitals is to control costs by improving quality. To do otherwise risks the substantial achievements of generations of physicians and scientists.

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