

Reporting of healthcareassociated *Staphylococcus aureus* bloodstream infections as a severity assessment code 1(SAC1).



Contents

Contents	1
Introduction	2
Background	2
Reporting	2
Table 1	3
Flowchart for SAC 1 Reporting	4
Appendix 1 Evidence Review	5
References	8

Introduction

Staphylococcus aureus is the second most common cause of healthcare-associated bloodstream infection (HA-SABSI) but it is the organism most associated with serious complications including endovascular and disseminated infections(<u>1</u>). HA-SABSI frequently results in prolonged hospital stay, increased healthcare costs, increased use of antibiotics, and increased mortality (<u>2-7</u>).

Background

Reporting of HA-SABSI became mandatory for all Western Australian (WA) public healthcare facilities (HCFs) and those private HCFs contracted to provide care for public patients in October 2007. Reporting of HA-SABSI is via the Healthcare Infection Surveillance WA (HISWA) Program overseen by the Healthcare Associated Infection Unit (HAIU). In 2009, Australian Health Ministers endorsed the collection of HA-SABSI data as part of the National Healthcare Agreement. HA-SABSI data is included in the WA Health Service Performance Report and the Outcome Based Management Annual Report.

With extensive use of HA-SABSI data as a performance measure and an indicator of standard of care in HCFs, it is important that valid, reliable data is collected and reported. To assist with the quality of HA-SABSI data reported by WA HCFs, the HAIU undertakes a data validation process of all HA-SABSI submitted to HISWA. HISWA data has consistently shown that the majority of HA-SABSI can be attributed to two sources- intravascular devices (IVD) and procedure related events (8). Research has shown that HA-SABSI from these sources are largely preventable (2, 9-12).

Reporting of HA-SABSI as a clinical incident on the WA Health Datix Clinical Incident Management System (CIMS) is not standardised across WA public hospitals, with some hospitals reporting all HA-SABSI as severity assessment code (SAC) 1 clinical incidents, some reporting and classifying HA-SABSI with different SAC codes and some not reporting HA-SABSI events as clinical incidents at all. In 2017, the Healthcare Infection Council of WA (HICWA) Executive Committee endorsed the proposal to stream-line the reporting of HA-SABSI with input from Infection Prevention and Control (IP&C) staff. It was agreed that clarification around preventability of HA-SABSI was required to ensure that energies were directed where they are of most benefit in reducing harm to patients.

A literature review was conducted to determine the existence of evidence based strategies to prevent HA-SABSI and also if there was demonstrated evidence of a reduction in infections when the strategies were followed consistently.

Following the literature review and in consultation with IP&C staff, HA-SABSI were classified as either largely preventable or non-preventable based on the current evidence available and grouped in accordance with current HISWA 'focus of infection' classifications (<u>13</u>). A summary of the literature review is detailed in Appendix 1.

Reporting

Following endorsement by HICWA, the HA-SABSI, classified as 'largely preventable' (Refer Table 1) are to be entered on DATIX CIMS as clinical incidents and classified as SAC1 events.

Each HA-SABSI shall be investigated at the time of the occurrence to ensure timely investigation and in accordance with the most current version of the WA Health Clinical Incident Management Policy $(\underline{14})$.

The HA-SABSI definitions must be applied as described in the HISWA Surveillance Manual to determine source of the HA-SABSI.

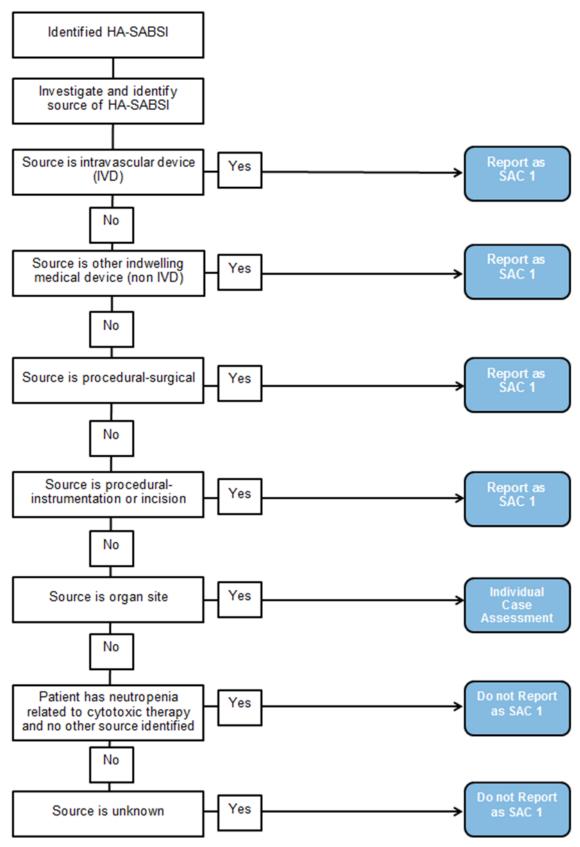
It is important to note that patient outcome may not be the best determinant in reporting a HA-SABSI as a SAC 1 clinical incident. A preventable HA-SABSI resulting in no or minor harm to the patient should be regarded as a SAC 1 near miss clinical incident. That is, the incident may have, but did not cause harm, either by chance or through timely intervention(<u>14</u>).

Table 1

Identified Source of HA-SABSI	Preventability	Report as SAC 1
Intravascular Device (IVD)	Largely Preventable	Yes
Other Indwelling Medical Device (Non IVD)	Largely Preventable	Yes
Procedural Surgical	Largely Preventable	Yes
Procedural – Instrumentation or Incision	Largely Preventable	Yes
Organ Site	Largely Non-Preventable	Individual case assessment is required. Report as SAC 1 where health care factors are identified.
Neutropenia	Non-Preventable	No, if single source of infection
Unknown	Non- Preventable	No

Where HA-SABSI are reported and investigated as a SAC 1 clinical incident, and determined to have not been preventable, a request for declassification may be submitted in accordance with the WA Health Clinical Incident Management Policy (14).

Flowchart for SAC 1 Reporting



Appendix 1 Evidence Review

Source of HA- SABSI	Evidence-based infection prevention strategies available	Evidence supporting preventable versus non-preventable
Intravascular device (IVD) related	 Central line associated blood stream infection (CLABSI) ANZICS Guidelines (15). SHEA and ISDA Guidelines (16). Haemodialysis Access Devices CDC Dialysis Interventions (17). Peripheral IVDs (PIVC) MP 0038/16 PIVC insertion and management (9). Australian Infection Control Guidelines (18). 	 A systematic review estimated 65-70% of CLABSI are preventable with implementation of evidence-based strategies (<u>12</u>). CLABSI ICU studies showed 70% reduction following adherence to best-practices (<u>19</u>). Princess Alexandra Hospital (Brisbane) Study -81% of PIVC related SABSI had preventable contributing factors identified (<u>20</u>). Study showed SABSI was the most common IV sepsis and also showed the largest percentage fall following a whole of hospital intervention program (<u>6</u>). Conclusion Evidence-based prevention strategies published. Studies demonstrate reduced rates with implementation of and compliance with the strategies. Largely preventable.
Non-IVD indwelling device related e.g. Catheters - Urinary, suprapubic intercostal PEG tracheostomy	Catheter associated urinary tract infections (CAUTI) • Australian Guidelines • SHEA strategies (21). Ventilator Associated Pneumonia (VAP) • SHEA Strategies to Prevent VAP (22). Other indwelling devices • Australian Infection Control Guidelines: protocols for aseptic technique, hand hygiene, skin antisepsis (18).	 Estimated 65-70% of CAUTI and 55% of VAP are reasonably preventable with implementation of evidence based strategies (<u>12</u>). Conclusion All CAUTI largely preventable with adherence to IP&C best practice guidelines. Around half of VAP are preventable by application of evidence based-strategies. Evidence-based prevention strategies for specific devices published. Largely preventable

Source of HA- SABSI	Evidence-based infection prevention strategies available	Evidence supporting preventable versus non-preventable
Procedure related - Surgical site infections (SSI)	 CDC – Guidelines for the prevention of SSIs (23). IHI – How to Guide: Prevent SSI. SHEA - Strategies to Prevent Surgical Site Infections in Acute Care Hospitals (24). WATAG Surgical Antibiotic Prophylaxis Guidelines (25). A review of the literature shows that the following care components assist in reducing the incidence of SSI: appropriate use of prophylactic antibiotics; appropriate hair removal; pre-operative showering, appropriate skin antisepsis, controlled postoperative serum glucose for cardiac surgery patients; and immediate postoperative normothermia for colorectal surgery patients (23). For high-risk surgery: Screening for S.aureus for high-risk surgery and decolonisation if found to be S.aureus carriers e.g. cardiac, arthroplasty, vascular (25). 	 Systematic review estimated 55% of SSI are preventable with implementation of evidence-based strategies (12). Princess Alexander Hospital (PAH) Study: 50% of SABSI related to SSI had no preventable potential contributors (20). Institute for Healthcare Improvement (IHI) estimate that 40-60% of SSI following clean cases (class1) are preventable (26). CDC estimated 50% preventable by application of evidence based-strategies (23). A systematic review of risk factors associated with <i>S.aureus</i> SSIs among a broad range of surgical patients provides strength in evidence for host factors such as co-morbidity burden, patient advanced age, dependence and frailty and duration and complexity of surgery were consistently found to be associated with SSIs across a variety of study designs (27). Although SSIs are not always preventable, progression to bacteraemia may be avoided if managed promptly e.g. excision of infected tissue and targeted antimicrobial therapy (11). Conclusion: Patient factors and complexity of surgical procedures do contribute to SSI. Around half are preventable by application of evidence based-strategies. If no preventable factors are identified by the SAC 1 investigation, consider de-classifying.

Source of HA- SABSI	Evidence-based infection prevention strategies available	Evidence supporting preventable versus non-preventable
Procedure related due to Invasive instrumentation or incision e.g. ERCP, cardiac catheterisation, joint injection	 Australian Infection Control Guidelines - Protocols for aseptic technique, hand hygiene, skin antisepsis. WATAG Surgical Antibiotic Prophylaxis Guidelines (25) (where indicated). 	Conclusion Largely preventable with adherence to IP&C best practice guidelines.
Organ site infections Not related to a SSI, procedure, IVD or other indwelling		Organ site infections may be directly related or secondary to the patient's underlying medical condition or those that occur > 48 hours after a hospital admission (<u>28</u>). Conclusion Largely non-preventable, assessment needs to
medical device.		be made on an individual basis.
Neutropenia	HA-SABSI associated with neutropenia caused by cytotoxic therapy.	Conclusion Generally no known preventable IP&C factors.
Unknown	The source of the HA- SABSI cannot be determined following an investigation.	Conclusion Not preventable as unable to identify source of infection.

References

1. Trinh TT, A Chan P, Edwards O, Hollenbeck B, Huang B, Burdick N, et al. Peripheral Venous Catheter-Related Staphylococcus aureus Bacteremia 2011;32:579-83.

2. Blot K, Bergs J, Vogelaers D, Blot S, Vandijck D. Prevention of Central Line-Associated Bloodstream Infections Through Quality Improvement Interventions: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. Clinical Infectious Diseases. 2014;59:96-105.

3. Si D, Runnegar N, Marquess J, Rajmokan M, Playford EG. Characterising health careassociated bloodstream infections in public hospitals in Queensland, 2008-2012. Medical Journal of Australia. 2016;204(7).

4. Primo M, Oliveira A, Martelli C, Johnson de Abreu Batista L, Turchi M. Healthcareassociated Staphylococcus aureus bloodstream infection: Length of stay, attributable mortality, and additional direct costs. The Brazilian Journal of Infectious Diseases. 2012;16(6):503-9.

5. Stuart RL, Cameron DRM, Scott C, Kotsanas D, Grayson ML, Korman TM, et al. Peripheral intravenous catheter-associated Staphylococcus aureus bacteraemia: more than 5 years of prospective data from two tertiary health services. Medical Journal of Australia. 2013;198(10):551-53.

6. Collignon PJ, Dreimanis DE, Beckingham WD, Roberts JL, Gardner A. Intravascular catheter bloodstream infections: an effective and sustained hospital-wide prevention program over 8 years. Medical Journal of Australia. 2007;187(10):551-54.

7. Collignon PJ, Wilkinson IJ, Gilbert GL, Grayson ML, Whitby RM. Health care-associated Staphylococcus aureus bloodstream infections: a clinical quality indicator for all hospitals. Medical Journal of Australia. 2006;184(8):404-06.

8. Healthcare Associated Infections Unit. Healthcare Infection Surveillance Western Australia: Annual Report 2015-16. Perth: WA Health; 2017.

9. Government of Western Australia. Insertion and Management of Peripheral Intravenous Cannulae in Western Australian Healthcare Facilities Policy. Perth: WA Health; 2017.

10. Harbarth S, Sax H, Gastmeier P. The preventable proportion of nosocomial infections: An overview of published reports. 2003;54:258-66.

11. Kok J, O'Sullivan MV, Gilbert GL. Feedback to clinicians on preventable factors can reduce hospital onset Staphylococcus aureus bacteraemia rates. Journal of Hospital Infection. 2011;79(2):108-14.

12. Umscheid C, Mitchell M, A Doshi J, Agarwal R, Williams K, J Brennan P. Estimating the Proportion of Healthcare-Associated Infections That Are Reasonably Preventable and the Related Mortality and Costs. Infection Control and Hospital Epidemiology. 2011;32(2):101-14.

13. Healthcare Associated Infections Unit. HISWA Surveillance Manual. 2014.

14. Department of Health Western Australia. Clinical Incident Management Policy Perth: Patient Safety Surveillance Unit; 2018 [Available from:http://www.health.wa.gov.au/circularsnew/attachments/1056.pdf.

15. Australian and New Zealand Intensive Care Society. Central Line Insertion and Maintenance Guideline. Melbourne: ANZICS Safety and Quality Committee; 2012.

16. Marschall J, Mermel LA, Fakih M, Hadaway L, Kallen A, O'Grady NP, et al. Strategies to Prevent Central Line–Associated Bloodstream Infections in Acute Care Hospitals: 2014 Update. Infection Control & Hospital Epidemiology. 2014;35(7):753-71.

17. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Dialysis Safety: core Interventions [Available from: https://www.cdc.gov/dialysis/prevention-tools/core-interventions.html.

18. National Health and Medical Research Council and Australian Commission on Safety and Quality in Healthcare. Australian Guidelines for the Prevention and Control of Infection in Healthcare. Canberra, ACT: Commonwealth of Australia; 2010.

19. Srinivasan AM, Wise M, Bell D, Cardo J, Edwards S, Fridkin J, et al. Vital Signs: Central Line-Associated Blood Stream Infections- United States, 2001, 2008, and 2009. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report 2011. p. 243-8.

20. Runnegar N. What proportion of healthcare-associated bloodstream infections (HA-BSI) are preventable and what does this tell us about the likely impact of financial disincentives on HA-BSI rates? Australian College for Infection Prevention and Control 2014 Conference; 31/07/2018; Adelaide Australia 2014.

21. Lo E, Nicoller LE, Coffin SE, Gould C, al. E. Strategies to Prevent Catheter-Associated Urinary Tract Infections in Acute Care Hospitals: 2014 Update. Infection Control & Hospital Epidemiology. 2014;35(5):464-79.

22. Klompas M, Branson R, et al. Strategies to Prevent Ventilator-Associated Pneumonia in Acute Care Hospitals: 2014 Update. Infection Control & Hospital Epidemiology. 2014;35(8):915-36.

23. Berríos-Torres SI, Umscheid CA, Bratzler DW, et al. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention guideline for the prevention of surgical site infection, 2017. JAMA Surgery. 2017;152(8):784-91.

24. Anderson DJ, et al. Strategies to Prevent Surgical Site Infections in Acute Care Hospitals: 2014 Update. Infection Control & Hospital Epidemiology. 2014;35(6):605-27.

25. WA.TAG. Surgical Antibiotic Prophylaxis Guideline 2016 [Available from: http://ww2.health.wa.gov.au/~/media/Files/Corporate/general%20documents/WATAG/Surgical-Antibiotic-Prophylaxis-Guideline.ashx.

26. Institute for Healthcare Improvement. How-to Guide: Prevent Surgical Site Infections Cambridge, MA: www.ihi.org; 2012 [Available from:

http://www.ihi.org/resources/Pages/Tools/HowtoGuidePreventSurgicalSiteInfection.aspx.

27. Korol E, Johnston K, Waser N, Sifakis F, Jafri HS, Lo M, et al. A Systematic Review of Risk Factors Associated with Surgical Site Infections among Surgical Patients. PLOS ONE. 2013;8(12).

28. Curtis GL, Chughtai M, Khlopas A, Newman JM, Sultan AA, Sodhi N, et al. Perioperative Outcomes and Short-Term Complications Following Total Knee Arthroplasty in Chronically Immunosuppressed Patients. Surgical technology international. 2018;32:263-9.

This document can be made available in alternative formats on request for a person with disability.

© Department of Health 2018

Copyright to this material is vested in the State of Western Australia unless otherwise indicated. Apart from any fair dealing for the purposes of private study, research, criticism or review, as permitted under the provisions of the *Copyright Act 1968*, no part may be reproduced or re-used for any purposes whatsoever without written permission of the State of Western Australia.