

Impact on rates and time to first central vascular-associated bloodstream infection when switching from open to closed intravenous infusion containers in a hospital setting

F. FRANZETTI¹, B. BORGHINI², F. RAIMONDI² AND V. D. ROSENTHAL^{3*}

¹ Infectious Diseases Clinic, Sacco Hospital, Milan, Italy

² Intensive Care Unit, Sacco Hospital, Milan, Italy

³ Medical College of Buenos Aires, Argentina

(Accepted 19 November 2008; first published online 15 January 2009)

SUMMARY

An open-label, prospective cohort, active healthcare-associated infection surveillance sequential study was conducted in four Italian intensive-care units. The aim was to determine the effect of switching from open (glass) to closed fully collapsible plastic intravenous (i.v.) infusion containers (Viaflo®) on rate and time to onset of central venous catheter-associated bloodstream infections (CVC-BSI). A total of 1173 adult patients were enrolled. The CVC-BSI rate during the open container period was significantly higher than during the closed container period (8·2 vs. 3·5 BSI/1000 CVC days, relative risk 0·43, 95% confidence interval 0·22–0·84, $P=0\cdot01$). The probability of developing a CVC-BSI was assessed over time comparing open and closed i.v. infusion containers. In the closed container period, it remained fairly constant (0·8% at days 1–3 to 1·4% at days 7–9) whereas during the open container period it increased (2% at days 1–3 to 5·8% at days 7–9). Overall, the chance of acquiring a CVC-BSI significantly decreased by 61% in the closed container period (Cox proportional hazard ratio 0·39, $P=0\cdot004$).

Key words: Bloodstream infection, central venous catheter, closed and open infusion containers, intensive care unit, healthcare-associated infection.

INTRODUCTION

Hospitalized patients are at risk for bloodstream infections (BSIs), especially within intensive-care units (ICUs). Most BSIs originate from central vascular catheters (CVCs) [1] and they extend hospitalization, increase attributable costs of healthcare and mortality [2]. The efficacy of nosocomial infection surveillance programmes has been demonstrated in both Western Europe and the United States [3, 4]. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) Intravenous

Guidelines (introduced in the 1980s and updated in 2002) [5] are used throughout the United States and other countries. There is a high risk of contamination of intravenous (i.v.) fluids during set-up, admixture preparation, and administration [6, 7] and there are additional risks of extrinsic contamination when the system is vented, as is mandatory with open infusion systems.

There are two types of i.v. infusion containers (open and closed infusion systems, Fig. 1) in use worldwide [8, 9]. Open i.v. infusion containers are rigid (glass, burette) or semi-rigid plastic containers that must admit air to empty (air filter or needle). Closed i.v. infusion containers are fully collapsible plastic containers that do not require or use any

* Author for correspondence: Dr V. D. Rosenthal, Medical College of Buenos Aires, Lavalleja 305, Floor 9, Apt B, ZIP 1414, Buenos Aires, Argentina.
(Email: victor_rosenthal@inicc.org)

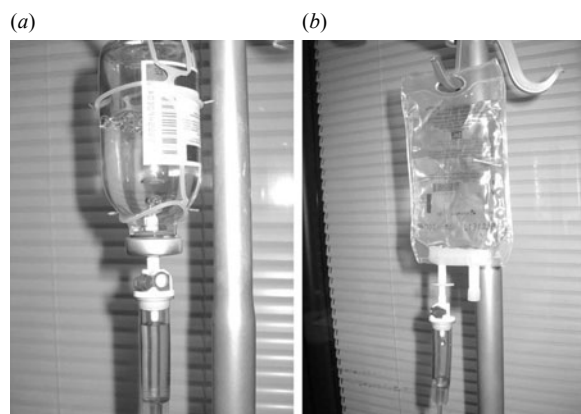


Fig. 1. Open and closed intravenous (i.v.) infusion containers. (a) Open i.v. infusion container: glass container with air filter. (b) Closed i.v. infusion container: fully collapsible plastic container without air filter.

external vent (air filter or needle) to empty the solution, and injection ports are self-sealing.

In general, the use of closed infusion systems is being incorporated into standard practice to prevent healthcare-associated infections (HAI), e.g. catheter-associated urinary tract infections (CAUTI) [10], ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP) [11], surgical site infection [12], and central vascular catheter-associated bloodstream infections (CVC-BSI) [8, 9]. Outbreaks of infusion-related BSI traced to contamination of infusate in open infusion systems have been reported in numerous countries [6, 13–17]. Other studies have shown that extrinsic or in-use contamination plays the most important role in bacterial contamination of the infusion system [18, 19]. The clinical impact and cost-effectiveness of closed i.v. infusion containers, compared to semi-rigid, plastic, open i.v. infusion containers, was studied in Argentina. This showed that switching from a semi-rigid plastic open container to a closed i.v. infusion container reduced the BSI rate by 64%. However, the time to onset of CVC-BSI was not determined [9].

We report here the results of a prospective, sequential study undertaken to determine the impact of switching from an open (glass) to a closed, fully collapsible, plastic i.v. infusion container (Viaflo[®], Baxter S.p.A, Italy) on rate and time to onset of CVC-BSI in Italy.

METHODS

Setting

The study was conducted at four ICUs in Sacco Hospital, a university hospital (Milan, Italy). Sacco

has an active infection control programme with a physician trained in infectious diseases and two infection control nurses. Three of the four ICUs operate at the highest level of complexity, providing treatment for medical, surgical and trauma patients. The hospital ethics committee approved the protocol.

Data collection

Patients who had a CVC in place for ≥ 24 h were enrolled from each of the study ICUs. A trained nurse prospectively recorded on case-report forms the patient's gender, average severity-of-illness score (ASIS) on ICU entry [20], device utilization, antibiotic exposure, and all active infections identified while in the ICU. The patient's physicians independently decided to obtain blood cultures. Standard laboratory methods were used to identify microorganisms recovered from positive blood cultures.

Definitions

United States Centers for Disease Control (CDC) National Nosocomial Infections Surveillance Systems (NNIS) programme definitions were used to define device-associated infections: CVC-BSI (laboratory-confirmed BSI; LCBI) and clinical primary nosocomial sepsis; CSEP). These definitions are given below.

Laboratory-confirmed BSI

Criterion 1. Patient had a recognized pathogen cultured from one or more percutaneous blood cultures, and the pathogen cultured from the blood was not related to an infection at another site. With common skin commensals (e.g. diphtheroids, *Bacillus* spp., *Propionibacterium* spp., coagulase-negative staphylococci, or micrococci), the organism was cultured from two or more blood cultures drawn on separate occasions.

Criterion 2. Patient had at least one of the following signs or symptoms: fever ($>38^{\circ}\text{C}$), chills, or hypotension not considered to be related to an infection at another site.

Clinical primary nosocomial sepsis. Patient had at least one of the following clinical signs, with no other recognized cause: fever ($>38^{\circ}\text{C}$), hypotension (systolic pressure <90 mmHg), or oliguria (<20 ml/h), although blood cultures were not obtained or no

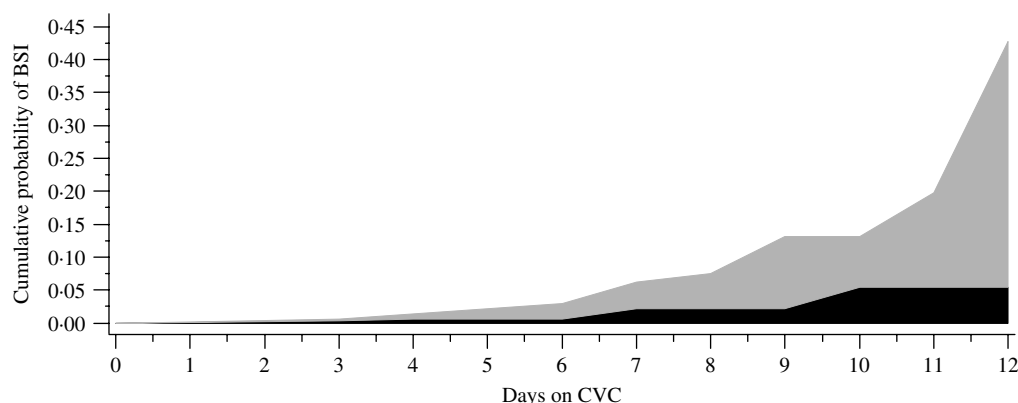


Fig. 2. Cumulative probability of first bloodstream infection (BSI) displayed by days on central vascular catheter (CVC). Numbers at risk for closed (■) vs. open (▒) containers: closed (day 0=507, day 4=505, day 7=123, day 10=30, day 12=10); open (day 0=558, day 4=553, day 7=116, day 10=28, day 12=7).

organisms were recovered from blood cultures. There was no apparent infection at any other site and the physician instituted treatment for sepsis [21].

Open infusion container. Rigid (glass, burette) or semi-rigid plastic containers that must admit air to empty (air filter or needle).

Closed infusion container. Fully collapsible plastic containers that do not require or use any external vent (air filter or needle) to empty the solution, and the injection ports are self-sealing.

Investigational products

Baxter Viaflo® (Baxter S.p.A), a fully collapsible plastic bag, was used during the closed period. Commercially available glass, open infusion system products were used during the open period.

Study design

Active surveillance for CVC-BSI and compliance with infection control practices continued throughout the study using CDC NNIS methodologies, definitions and criteria [20]. The study was designed with a lead-in period followed by the open and closed container periods. The lead-in period was designed to measure baseline incidence of CVC-BSI and to standardize hand hygiene (HH) and CVC care compliance. Both the open and closed container periods covered the same period of time and lasted an equal number of months (March 2004–February 2005 and March 2005–February 2006, respectively).

Protocol-specified target HH and CVC care compliance was set at $\geq 70\%$ and $\geq 95\%$, respectively.

We assessed HH compliance [22], placement of gauze on CVC insertion sites [23, 24], condition of gauze dressing (absence of blood, moisture and gross soiling; occlusive coverage of insertion site) [23, 24], and documentation for date of CVC insertion. A research nurse observed healthcare workers (physicians, nurses, and paramedical staff) twice weekly across all work shifts, and recorded information on a standard form.

Data analysis

Outcomes measured during the open and closed periods included the incidence density rate of CVC-BSI (number of cases/1000 CVC days) and time to CVC-BSI of patients. χ^2 analyses for dichotomous variables and t test for continuous variables were used to analyse baseline differences between periods. Unadjusted relative risk (RR) ratios, 95% confidence intervals (CI) and P values were determined for all primary and secondary outcomes. Time to first BSI was analysed using a log-rank test and presented graphically using Kaplan–Meier curves. In addition, simple life-table conditional probabilities are presented graphically to help explain the changing risk of infection over time (Fig. 2). A Cox proportional hazards analysis was performed to estimate the hazard function. No formal testing of the proportional hazards assumption was performed. However, the plot of estimated survival function showed that this assumption did not appear to be severely violated.

RESULTS

During the study, 1173 patients were enrolled: 608 during the open period, and 565 during the closed

Table 1. Patient demographics, underlying illness, length of stay, CVC-device utilization and antibiotic usage during the two study periods

	Open infusion container period (N = 608)	Closed infusion container period (N = 565)	RR	95 % CI	P value
	n (%)	n (%)			
Gender					
Males	424 (69.7)	376 (66.5)	0.95	0.88–1.03	0.24
Females	184 (30.3)	189 (33.5)			
Endocrine diseases	168 (27.6)	164 (29.1)	1.05	0.88–1.26	0.60
Cancer	16 (2.6)	17 (3.0)	1.14	0.58–2.24	0.70
COPD	86 (14.1)	99 (17.5)	1.24	0.95–1.62	0.11
Renal impairment	59 (9.7)	40 (7.1)	0.73	0.50–1.07	0.11
Abdominal surgery	22 (3.6)	35 (6.2)	1.71	1.02–2.88	0.04
Cardiac failure	85 (14.0)	93 (16.5)	1.18	0.90–1.54	0.24
Cardiac surgery	450 (74.0)	415 (73.5)	0.99	0.93–1.06	0.83
Thoracic surgery	2 (0.3)	2 (0.4)	1.08	0.15–7.61	0.94
Trauma	3 (0.5)	3 (0.5)	1.08	0.22–5.31	0.93
Angina pectoris	362 (59.5)	329 (58.2)	0.98	0.89–1.08	0.65
Stroke	17 (2.8)	40 (7.1)	2.53	1.45–4.41	<0.01
Immunodeficiency	41 (6.7)	40 (7.1)	1.05	0.69–1.60	0.82
Previous infection	22 (3.6)	24 (4.2)	1.17	0.67–2.07	0.58
Hepatic failure	17 (2.8)	24 (4.2)	1.52	0.82–2.80	0.18
	Mean±s.d.	Mean±s.d.			
ICU stay (days)	4.50 ± 7.16	4.70 ± 6.94	—	—	0.63
Age (yr)	64.8 ± 12.91	65.6 ± 13.03	—	—	0.32
Severity-of-illness score	1.70 ± 1.09	1.83 ± 1.13	—	—	0.046
CVC utilization per patient (days)	5.83 ± 7.16	6.05 ± 7.43	—	—	0.94
	Defined daily dose (DDD)	Defined daily dose (DDD)			
Antibiotic use	1291 DDD/1000 patient-days	1340 DDD/1000 patient-days	1.04	0.99–1.09	0.11

RR, Relative risk; CI, confidence interval; COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; ICU, intensive care unit; CVC, central vascular catheter.

period. Patients in both periods were statistically similar regarding patient demographics, underlying illness, length of stay, device utilization and antibiotic usage, exceptions being ASIS score, abdominal surgery and stroke (Table 1).

HH compliance during both periods was >70% (73.2% and 86.6% during the open and closed periods, respectively; RR 1.18, 95% CI 1.15–1.22). The presence of gauze at CVC site was 98.3% and 98.8% during the open and closed periods, respectively (RR 1.01, 95% CI 1.00–1.01) and the correct condition of gauze was 95.8% and 97.0% during the same periods (RR 1.01, 95% CI 1.01–1.02).

For CVC-BSI, the incidence density rate and percentage of patients were each statistically significantly

lower in the closed compared to the open period (Table 2). The distribution of microorganisms is given in Table 3.

We examined the timing of when the first CVC-BSI was acquired comparing the open and closed i.v. infusion containers (Fig. 2). The majority (70%) of patients had a CVC in place for ≤4 days. In the closed period, the timing of the first CVC-BSI remained relatively constant (0.8% at days 1–3 to 1.4% at days 7–9), whereas during the open period it increased (2% at days 1–3 to 5.8% at days 7–9). Overall, the chance of a patient acquiring a CVC-BSI was significantly decreased by 61% in the closed period (Cox proportional hazard ratio 0.39, $P=0.0043$). There was no statistically significant difference between the two

Table 2. Incidence of CVC-associated BSI (LCBI and CSEP), CAUTI, VAP, and mortality during the two study periods

	Open infusion container period (N=608)	Closed infusion container period (N=565)	RR	95 % CI	P value
CVC days (n)	3545	3426			
CVC-associated BSI (n)	29	12			
CVC-associated BSI/1000 CVC days	8.2	3.5	0.43	0.22–0.84	0.011
Patients with CVC-associated BSI (%)	4.8 %	2.1 %	0.45	0.23–0.86	0.014
Urinary catheter days (n)	2133	2135			
CAUTI (n)	7	4			
CAUTI/1000 catheter days	3.3	1.9	0.57	0.17–1.95	0.36
Mechanical ventilator days (n)	1039	999			
VAP (n)	4	7			
VAP/1000 mechanical ventilator days	3.8	7.0	1.82	0.53–6.20	0.33
Deaths (n)	25	30			
Patients (n)	608	565			
Patients who died (%)	4.1 %	5.3 %	1.29	0.77–2.17	0.33

CVC, Central vascular catheter; BSI, bloodstream infection; LCBI, laboratory-confirmed bloodstream infections; CSEP, clinical primary nosocomial sepsis; CAUTI, catheter-associated urinary tract infection; VAP, ventilator-associated pneumonia; RR, relative risk; CI, confidence interval.

Table 3. Microbial profile of CVC-associated BSI (LCBI) during the two study periods

Microorganism	Open infusion container period	Closed infusion container period
Culture-documented BSIs	10	8
Gram-positive bacteria, n (%)	7 (70 %)	6 (75 %)
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	1	3
Coagulase-negative staphylococci	5	1
<i>Enterococcus</i> spp.	1	1
<i>Corynebacterium</i> spp.	0	1
Gram-negative bacteria	2 (20 %)	0 (0 %)
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	1	0
<i>Pseudomonas</i> spp.	1	0
Yeasts	1 (10 %)	2 (25 %)
<i>Candida</i> spp.	1	2

CVC, Central vascular catheter; BSI, bloodstream infection; LCBI, laboratory-confirmed bloodstream infections.

periods with respect to incidence of CAUTI, VAP or mortality (Table 2).

DISCUSSION

Central venous access for administration of large volumes of i.v. fluid, medications, blood products, or for haemodynamic monitoring is commonly required for critically ill patients. Unfortunately, the use of CVCs carries a substantial risk of BSI [8, 25–33].

When CVC-BSI occurs, studies have shown increased length of stay, increased cost and increased attributable mortality [2, 34, 35]. In Mexico, Higuera *et al.* found that CVC-BSI resulted in an extra 6 days and cost of US\$11 560 [35], while in Argentina, Rosenthal *et al.* reported an extra 12 days and cost of US\$4888 for CVC-BSI [2]. A recent meta-analysis of the cost studies published in the last 5 years found that the average cost of one BSI was US\$36 441 (range US\$1822–107 156) [34]. Most importantly, CVC-BSIs

are apparently related to increased attributable mortality as reported by Pittet and colleagues [36, 37] who cited an attributable mortality of 25%. Indeed, CVC-BSIs are largely preventable [5, 38] and randomized trials have documented the efficacy of simple interventions, including, but not limited to, mandating use of maximal barrier precautions during CVC insertion [39]. Implementation of infection control programmes (outcome and process surveillance plus education and performance feedback) has been shown to be effective in reducing rates of CVC-BSI [23, 24].

Most epidemics of infusion-related BSI have been a direct consequence of contamination of infusate or catheter hubs [1]. Intrinsic contamination of parenteral fluids (microorganisms introduced during manufacture) is now considered very rare in North America [1]. Widespread use of closed infusion systems has also reduced the risk of extrinsic contamination of infusate during administration in the hospital setting.

Many hospitals throughout the world use open infusion systems. In this study, a glass, open i.v. infusion container was associated with a high rate of CVC-BSI, whereas switching to a fully collapsible, closed i.v. infusion container significantly reduced the BSI rate. To evaluate the effect of time on CVC-BSI, the probability of developing a CVC-BSI was assessed in 3-day intervals during each period. In the 2002 CDC guidelines [5] the recommendation was to not routinely replace CVC at fixed intervals. The BSI rate, here, during the closed period remained constant and achieved levels reported in the NNIS, whereas, the probability of a BSI during the open period significantly increased over time and was higher than those reported in the NNIS. Thus, by using this closed system the CDC guidelines can be followed.

When comparing results of CVC-BSI between studies, it is important to display and assess the distribution of time of CVC use across patients in order to avoid being misled by a cross-study comparison. For example, when the hazard function is not constant, a study with a preponderance of 2–4 CVC days per patient compared to a study with a preponderance of 10–12 CVC days per patient would have vastly different observed CVC-BSI rates even when the total number of CVC days in each study, the patient population and all other characteristics of study design and conduct are identical.

While no differences were found in mortality rates between the two periods, it should be noted that the power to detect such differences in the study was low

due to the small study sample size (relative to a mortality endpoint), the few BSI-related deaths, and the short length of follow-up (relative to a mortality endpoint).

The best approach to minimize bias is a single-stage, blinded, randomized study. This type of study mitigates the potential effect of changes over time (e.g. reporting classifications, diagnostic techniques, seasonality, staffing, and educational programmes) as well as baseline differences such as demographics, disease severity. It was not practical to conduct this type of study because the interventional products were different structurally and the healthcare workers would have readily discerned the difference. To minimize the effect of confounding factors, the following controls were implemented. No new infection control interventions, training programmes, products or technologies were introduced during the study periods and all of the investigators, key study personnel, classifications and diagnostics techniques remained constant throughout the entire study. The time effect was mitigated by equal 12-month periods covering all seasons of the year. A lead-in period was performed to standardize HH and CVC care compliance practice.

In addition, the following analyses show that the confounding effects were minimal. CAUTI and VAP were analysed to determine if there was any change in the ICU that might impact other health-care-associated infections. We found a significant reduction of CVC-BSI rate but no reduction in the rates of CAUTI or VAP. Thus, the change to a closed infusion container was associated only with the reduced CVC-BSI rate in the study. Although HH compliance increased between the open and closed container periods, there is no published evidence showing that HH compliance >70% is associated with a further reduction in CVC-BSI rate. In addition, nurse-to-patient ratios and bed occupancy rates were comparable over both study periods. The baseline effect was minimal since the two groups had similar baseline distributions. Although not presented in the present study, effects of baseline covariates were examined. Exploratory analyses showed that no baseline variable(s), either individually or collectively, affected the overall conclusion.

In a second-level general teaching hospital in Mexico, Munoz *et al.* [15] cultured running i.v. infusions and found a 29.6% contamination rate during a baseline period. However, a multi-centre cross-sectional study in the same country reported a 2%

contamination rate and the authors highlighted lapses in aseptic technique, and breaks in the infusion system while injecting i.v. medications as risk factors for in-use contamination [6]. The CDC HICPAC guideline for prevention of CVC-BSI recommends limiting manipulations of and entry into running infusions, and that persons handling or entering an infusion should first wash their hands or wear clean gloves [5].

Our findings pose questions about the safety of all open i.v. infusion containers (rigid glass, burette or semi-rigid plastic containers). We have demonstrated that the adoption of a closed i.v. infusion container will prevent cases of CVC-BSI. Many hospitals still use open rigid or semi-rigid i.v. fluid containers which must be vented to allow ambient air entry and fluid egress. Switching to closed, non-vented, fully collapsible bags, could substantially reduce rates of CVC-BSI.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Baxter S.p.A. Italy sponsored this study at Sacco Hospital, Milan, Italy, and provided Baxter Viaflo® products. We acknowledge the many healthcare professionals at Sacco Hospital who helped make this study possible.

DECLARATION OF INTEREST

Baxter Healthcare provided financial support to Dr Rosenthal to serve as the infection control coordinator for this study.

REFERENCES

1. **Crnich CJ, Maki DG.** The role of intravascular devices in sepsis. *Current Infectious Diseases Report* 2001; **3**: 496–506.
2. **Rosenthal VD, et al.** The attributable cost, length of hospital stay, and mortality of central line-associated bloodstream infection in intensive care departments in Argentina: a prospective, matched analysis. *American Journal of Infection Control* 2003; **31**: 475–480.
3. **Haley RW, et al.** Update from the SENIC project. Hospital infection control: recent progress and opportunities under prospective payment. *American Journal of Infection Control* 1985; **13**: 97–108.
4. **Gastmeier P, et al.** Effectiveness of a nationwide nosocomial infection surveillance system for reducing nosocomial infections. *Journal of Hospital Infection* 2006; **64**: 16–22.
5. **O'Grady NP, et al.** Guidelines for the prevention of intravascular catheter-related infections. The Hospital Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee, Center for Disease Control and Prevention, U.S. *Pediatrics* 2002; **110**: e51.
6. **Macias AE, et al.** Parenteral infusions bacterial contamination in a multi-institutional survey in Mexico: considerations for nosocomial mortality. *American Journal of Infection Control* 1999; **27**: 285–290.
7. **Maki DG, Anderson RL, Shulman JA.** In-use contamination of intravenous infusion fluid. *Applied Microbiology* 1974; **28**: 778–784.
8. **Rosenthal VD, et al.** Device-associated nosocomial infections in 55 intensive care units of 8 developing countries. *Annals of Internal Medicine* 2006; **145**: 582–591.
9. **Rosenthal VD, Maki DG.** Prospective study of the impact of open and closed infusion systems on rates of central venous catheter-associated bacteremia. *American Journal of Infection Control* 2004; **32**: 135–141.
10. **Epstein SE.** Cost-effective application of the Centers for Disease Control guideline for prevention of catheter-associated urinary tract infections. *American Journal of Infection Control* 1985; **13**: 272–275.
11. **Tablan OC, et al.** Guidelines for preventing health-care-associated pneumonia, 2003: recommendations of CDC and the Healthcare Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee. *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 2004; **53**: 1–36.
12. **Mangram AJ, et al.** Guideline for prevention of surgical site infection, 1999. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) Hospital Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee. *American Journal of Infection Control* 1999; **27**: 97–132.
13. **Maki DG, et al.** Nationwide epidemic of septicemia caused by contaminated intravenous products. I. Epidemiologic and clinical features. *American Journal of Medicine* 1976; **60**: 471–485.
14. **Goldmann DA, et al.** The role of nationwide nosocomial infection surveillance in detecting epidemic bacteremia due to contaminated intravenous fluids. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 1978; **108**: 207–213.
15. **Munoz JM, et al.** Control of pediatric nosocomial bacteremia by a program based on culturing of parenteral solutions in use. *Salud Publica de México* 1999; **41** (Suppl. 1): S32–37.
16. **Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).** Clinical sepsis and death in a newborn nursery associated with contaminated parenteral medications – Brazil, 1996. *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 1998; **47**: 610–612.
17. **Matsaniotis NS, et al.** Enterobacter sepsis in infants and children due to contaminated intravenous fluids. *Infection Control* 1984; **5**: 471–477.
18. **Kilian J, et al.** Bacterial contamination as a complication of intravenous therapy in intensive care [in German]. *Der Anaesthesist* 1980; **29**: 559–566.
19. **McAllister JC, Buchanan EC, Skolaut MW.** A comparison of the safety and efficiency of three intermittent intravenous therapy systems – the minibottle, the

- minibag and the inline burette. *American Journal of Hospital Pharmacy* 1974; **31**: 961–967.
20. **Emori TG, et al.** National Nosocomial Infections Surveillance System (NNIS): description of surveillance methods. *American Journal of Infection Control* 1991; **19**: 19–35.
 21. **Garner JS, et al.** CDC definitions for nosocomial infections, 1988. *American Journal of Infection Control* 1988; **16**: 128–140.
 22. **Rosenthal VD, et al.** Effect of education and performance feedback on handwashing: the benefit of administrative support in Argentinean hospitals. *American Journal of Infection Control* 2003; **31**: 85–92.
 23. **Rosenthal VD, et al.** Effect of an infection control program using education and performance feedback on rates of intravascular device-associated bloodstream infections in intensive care units in Argentina. *American Journal of Infection Control* 2003; **31**: 405–409.
 24. **Higuera F, et al.** The effect of process control on the incidence of central venous catheter-associated bloodstream infections and mortality in intensive care units in Mexico. *Critical Care Medicine* 2005; **33**: 2022–2027.
 25. **Ramirez Barba EJ, et al.** Device-associated nosocomial infection rates in intensive care units in four Mexican public hospitals. *American Journal of Infection Control* 2006; **34**: 244–247.
 26. **Moreno CA, et al.** Device-associated infection rate and mortality in intensive care units of 9 Colombian hospitals: findings of the International Nosocomial Infection Control Consortium. *Infection Control and Hospital Epidemiology* 2006; **27**: 349–356.
 27. **Rosenthal VD, Guzman S, Crnich C.** Device-associated nosocomial infection rates in intensive care units of Argentina. *Infection Control and Hospital Epidemiology* 2004; **25**: 251–255.
 28. **Lynch P, et al.** Infection control: a global view. In: Jarvis WR, ed. *Bennett and Brachman's Hospital Infections*, 5th edn. San Francisco, CA: Lippincott, Williams, and Wilkins, 2008, pp. 255–271.
 29. **Rosenthal VD, et al.** International Nosocomial Infection Control Consortium (INICC) Report, Data Summary for 2002–2007, Issued January 2008. *American Journal of Infection Control* (in press).
 30. **Salomão R, et al.** Device-associated infections rates in critical patients of Brazilian hospitals. International Nosocomial Infection Control Consortium (INICC) Findings. *Pan American Journal of Public Health* (in press).
 31. **Cuellar L, et al.** Device-associated infections rates and mortality in intensive care units of Peruvian hospitals. International Nosocomial Infection Control Consortium (INICC) Findings. *Pan American Journal of Public Health* (in press).
 32. **Mehta A, et al.** Device-associated nosocomial infection rates in intensive care units of seven Indian cities. Findings of the International Nosocomial Infection Control Consortium (INICC). *Journal of Hospital Infection* 2007; **67**: 168–174.
 33. **Leblebicioglu H, et al.** Device-associated hospital-acquired infection rates in Turkish intensive care units. Findings of the International Nosocomial Infection Control Consortium (INICC). *Journal of Hospital Infection* 2007; **65**: 251–257.
 34. **Stone PW, Braccia D, Larson E.** Systematic review of economic analyses of health care-associated infections. *American Journal of Infection Control* 2005; **33**: 501–509.
 35. **Higuera F, et al.** The attributable cost, and length of hospital stay of central line associated blood stream infection in intensive care units in Mexico. A prospective, matched analysis. In: *Proceedings and Abstracts of the 15th Annual Scientific Meeting of the Society for Healthcare Epidemiology of America*. Los Angeles, CA, USA, 2005, p. 104.
 36. **Pittet D, Wenzel RP.** Nosocomial bloodstream infections. Secular trends in rates, mortality, and contribution to total hospital deaths. *Archives of Internal Medicine* 1995; **155**: 1177–1184.
 37. **Pittet D, Tarara D, Wenzel RP.** Nosocomial bloodstream infection in critically ill patients. Excess length of stay, extra costs, and attributable mortality. *Journal of the American Medical Association* 1994; **271**: 1598–1601.
 38. **Jarvis WR.** The evolving world of healthcare-associated bloodstream infection surveillance and prevention: is your system as good as you think? *Infection Control and Hospital Epidemiology* 2002; **23**: 236–238.
 39. **Raad II, et al.** Prevention of central venous catheter-related infections by using maximal sterile barrier precautions during insertion. *Infection Control and Hospital Epidemiology* 1994; **15**: 231–238.