

BMJ Open

BMJ Open is committed to open peer review. As part of this commitment we make the peer review history of every article we publish publicly available.

When an article is published we post the peer reviewers' comments and the authors' responses online. We also post the versions of the paper that were used during peer review. These are the versions that the peer review comments apply to.

The versions of the paper that follow are the versions that were submitted during the peer review process. They are not the versions of record or the final published versions. They should not be cited or distributed as the published version of this manuscript.

BMJ Open is an open access journal and the full, final, typeset and author-corrected version of record of the manuscript is available on our site with no access controls, subscription charges or pay-per-view fees (<http://bmjopen.bmj.com>).

If you have any questions on BMJ Open's open peer review process please email info.bmjopen@bmj.com

BMJ Open

Contact Tracing using Real-Time Location System (RTLS): A Simulation Exercise in a Tertiary Hospital in Singapore

| | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| Journal: | <i>BMJ Open</i> |
| Manuscript ID | bmjopen-2021-057522 |
| Article Type: | Original research |
| Date Submitted by the Author: | 18-Sep-2021 |
| Complete List of Authors: | Ng, Guan Yee; Duke-NUS Medical School, Ong, Biauwei Chi; Sengkang General Hospital |
| Keywords: | Health policy < HEALTH SERVICES ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT, Health informatics < BIOTECHNOLOGY & BIOINFORMATICS, Information technology < BIOTECHNOLOGY & BIOINFORMATICS, EPIDEMIOLOGY, Infection control < INFECTIOUS DISEASES |
| | |

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts



I, the Submitting Author has the right to grant and does grant on behalf of all authors of the Work (as defined in the below author licence), an exclusive licence and/or a non-exclusive licence for contributions from authors who are: i) UK Crown employees; ii) where BMJ has agreed a CC-BY licence shall apply, and/or iii) in accordance with the terms applicable for US Federal Government officers or employees acting as part of their official duties; on a worldwide, perpetual, irrevocable, royalty-free basis to BMJ Publishing Group Ltd ("BMJ") its licensees and where the relevant Journal is co-owned by BMJ to the co-owners of the Journal, to publish the Work in this journal and any other BMJ products and to exploit all rights, as set out in our [licence](#).

The Submitting Author accepts and understands that any supply made under these terms is made by BMJ to the Submitting Author unless you are acting as an employee on behalf of your employer or a postgraduate student of an affiliated institution which is paying any applicable article publishing charge ("APC") for Open Access articles. Where the Submitting Author wishes to make the Work available on an Open Access basis (and intends to pay the relevant APC), the terms of reuse of such Open Access shall be governed by a Creative Commons licence – details of these licences and which [Creative Commons](#) licence will apply to this Work are set out in our licence referred to above.

Other than as permitted in any relevant BMJ Author's Self Archiving Policies, I confirm this Work has not been accepted for publication elsewhere, is not being considered for publication elsewhere and does not duplicate material already published. I confirm all authors consent to publication of this Work and authorise the granting of this licence.

1
2
3 Contact Tracing using Real-Time Location System (RTLS): A Simulation Exercise in a
4
5 Tertiary Hospital in Singapore
6
7

8 Corresponding Author

9 Full Name: NG, Guan Yee
10 Postal Address: 8 College Road Singapore 169857
11 Email: davegyng@gmail.com
12 Telephone: +65-81818614
13 Fax: Nil
14
15

16
17 Co-authors

18 Full Name: ONG, Biauwei Chi
19 Postal Address: Sengkang General Hospital, 110 Sengkang East Way, Singapore 544886
20 Email: ong.biauwei.chi@singhealth.com.sg
21 Telephone: +65-69305000
22 Fax: Nil
23
24

25
26 Keywords/phrases: contact tracing; real-time location system (RTLS); communicable disease
27
28 control; infection control; epidemiology; health policy; health informatics; information
29
30 technology
31
32

33 Word count: 3612
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

ABSTRACT

Background

Metropolitan cities like Singapore are susceptible to emerging infectious disease (EID) outbreaks. Singapore's pandemic control measures include running biennial simulation exercises for all public hospitals on EID case management, where a key assessment criterion is contact tracing.

Local Problem

Current contact tracing methods are time consuming, heavily manpower dependent, and fail to capture a significant number of contacts. Real-time location system (RTLTS) was found to be accurate and effective in contact tracing. This study investigates the effectiveness of RTLTS, and whether RTLTS provides any time, manpower and cost savings.

Methods

A prospective case study was conducted during a simulation exercise to determine and compare the list of contacts, time taken, manpower, and manpower-hours required between RTLTS and conventional methods of contact tracing. Cost of both methods were compared.

Results

RTLTS identified almost three times the number of contacts compared to conventional methods, while achieving that with significantly less time, manpower, manpower-hours, and manpower cost. However, RTLTS incurred significant equipment cost and might take many contact tracing episodes before providing economic benefit.

Conclusion

1
2
3 Albeit costly, RTLS is effective in contact tracing. RLTS might not be ready at present time to
4
5
6 replace conventional methods, but with further refinement, RTLS has the potential to be the
7
8 gold standard in contact tracing methods of the future, particularly in the current pandemic.
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For peer review only

ARTICLE SUMMARY

Strengths and limitations of this study

Strengths

1. Quantified contacts identified, and time elapsed/taken by RTLS and EMR
2. Quantified manpower, manpower hours, manpower cost, equipment cost by both methods

Limitations

1. Lack of gold standard in identifying true contacts
2. Study based on one simulation exercise in one institution
3. Impact & cost savings of halting disease transmission earlier not studied

INTRODUCTION

Metropolitan cities like Singapore, which are densely populated and receive a high volume of international visitors, are highly susceptible to emerging infectious disease (EID) outbreaks. Some examples in the last decade include Ebola virus disease (EVD) outbreaks within and out of West Africa in 2014 and Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV) outbreak in South Korea in 2015[1]. Singapore had its own experiences with the Nipah virus outbreak in 1999, the severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) outbreak in 2003, and the influenza A (H1N1) outbreak in 2009[2], and most recently, COVID-19. As such, Singapore needs to continually strengthen its defences against EID outbreaks[1]. Founded on the experiences of previous outbreaks, Singapore took a “whole-of-government approach” towards implementing pandemic control measures[2]. In order to test these measures, the Ministry of Health (MOH) requires all public hospitals to participate every two years in a national simulation exercise[1,3], and be validated in the management of an infectious disease case. A key assessment criterion of the exercise is contact tracing.

Contact tracing, a systematic process of identification, assessment, and management of people exposed to the disease, is a critical element in containing any outbreak[4]. Current methods of contact tracing involve retrospective review of multiple databases, such as electronic medical records (EMR) entered by healthcare workers, hospital registration systems capturing patient journeys in the hospital, and visitor management systems capturing registered visitors to the hospital. After a preliminary list of potential exposures, also known as contacts, is compiled, individual interviews are carried out to identify any other contacts that were not included by the above systems. These conventional methods are time consuming, heavily manpower dependent, and fail to capture a significant number of contacts[5]. This is because the databases used were not primarily designed to identify contacts between individuals[6] and do not provide enough detail to accurately derive a list of contacts. Failure to trace contacts in a timely

1
2
3 and accurate manner can lead to continued transmission of diseases, preventing effective
4 control of EID outbreaks.
5
6

7
8 Radio frequency identification (RFID) technology, which involves fixed readers receiving
9 signals from small ID tags[7], is widely used in many industries such as commerce and logistics.
10
11 Tagged items can be identified, tracked and managed in real-time through a centralised
12 database and a compatible device[7]. RFID tags are broadly categorised into active or passive
13 tags[7,8]. Active tags have power sources of their own, allowing them to transmit signals as
14 well as the potential for additional functions. Passive tags have no power sources and depend
15 on RFID readers for power, hence having relatively fewer functions. However, active tags are
16 bigger, costlier, and require regular charging and maintenance compared to passive tags. RFID
17 technology is increasingly being adopted for many uses in healthcare settings such as asset and
18 equipment tracking, staff and patient identification, sensing, intervention, and alerts and
19 triggers[8]. These applications provide improvement in patient safety, reduction in medical
20 errors, time and cost savings and improved medical processes[8]. Another potential application
21 of the RFID technology is a real-time location system (RTLS) allowing tracking of interactions
22 among individuals[5]. RTLS using RFID technology was used to study the relationship
23 between the contact patterns of individuals and the spread of infectious diseases via a
24 simulation exercise in an academic conference of 1200 attendees[9]. The use of RTLS in the
25 inference of contact history between healthcare staff and patients has also been studied in two
26 settings. In an intensive care unit of a hospital in Taiwan, contact tracing using RTLS was
27 found to be effective with 81.4% sensitivity, 78.8% specificity and 80.7% accuracy[6]. In an
28 emergency department of a tertiary care medical centre in the United States, RTLS doubled the
29 number of contacts identified compared with the conventional method of EMR review[5].
30
31 To date, few studies have evaluated the clinical and economic impact of contact tracing using
32 RTLS compared to conventional methods. RTLS has been found to be an accurate and effective
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 way to perform contact tracing, however, little is known as to whether the accuracy and efficacy
4 translates to earlier cessation of forward transmission, as well as whether RTLS provides any
5 manpower and monetary cost savings.
6
7
8
9

10 In this study, we aim to assess the effectiveness of contact tracing using RTLS compared to the
11 conventional (EMR) method via an EID outbreak simulation exercise in Sengkang General
12 Hospital, Singapore. The aims of the study are:
13
14
15
16

- 17 1. To compare the time taken to perform contact tracing and list of contacts identified for
18 RTLS vs EMR.
19
- 20 2. To compare manpower and manpower-hours required to perform contact tracing for
21 RTLS vs EMR.
22
23
24
25
26
27

28 The cost incurred by both methods were studied.
29

30
31 We hypothesised that contact tracing using RTLS would allow us to identify contacts in a
32 timelier and more accurate fashion, facilitating earlier cessation of forward transmission and
33 better control of an EID outbreak. We also hypothesized that contact tracing using RTLS would
34 confer benefits in manpower and manpower-hours reduction, which would translate to cost
35 savings for the hospital.
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Context

This study was held in Sengkang General Hospital (SKH), a 1000-bedded public acute hospital in Singapore with a staff of 4000. This study was conducted in Feb 2019, at a point when SKH was receiving 3149 admissions and 8172 emergency department visits per month. The study was conducted during a national simulation exercise on EID outbreaks held every two years. In this exercise, a surgical patient with a three-day inpatient stay was selected as the simulated MERS-CoV index case. This patient was admitted through the emergency department, underwent surgery in the operating theatre on Day 1 and spent three days in an inpatient ward.

Equipment

The RTLS used for contact tracing in our hospital was based on SmartSense Solutions infrastructure and SmartSense RTLS platform provided by Cadi Scientific. Staff tags and patient tags, which were both active RFID tags, were deployed. The staff tags were additionally equipped with an antenna that captured tag interactions within a two-metre radius of itself. Tag signals were picked up by the campus-wide network of in-ceiling wireless receivers and exciters. Our RTLS was tested and operational prior to the data collection. As a pilot study, 1000 out of 4000 staff wore staff tags. The selected 1000 staff included doctors and nurses working in high risks areas such as the Emergency Department and the inpatient wards. The rest of the staff, including the remaining doctors, nurses, allied health professionals, ancillary staff, and students were not equipped with staff tags. All patients wore patient tags from registration to discharge. Our RTLS platform captured two forms of contact: (1) tag-to-tag based, and (2) location based. A tag-to-tag based contact was registered when any tags (staff or patient) were detected within a two-metre radius of a staff tag for at least a one-minute duration. A location based contact was registered when any tags were detected within the same

1
2
3 location for at least a one-minute duration. Location of tags were determined via WiFi
4 triangulation and chokepoint tracking[7,11].
5
6
7

8 **Measures**

9
10
11 A prospective case study was conducted during the biennial national simulation exercise in
12 Sengkang General Hospital on 28 Feb 2019 to determine the list of contacts, time taken,
13 manpower required, and manpower-hours required to perform contact tracing via both RTLS
14 and the conventional method of databases review (EMR). The date of the exercise was
15 unannounced, with the contact tracing team activated only at the point of the exercise itself.
16
17 All staff involved in contact tracing were briefed prior to the exercise to record the amount of
18 time spent on performing the work of contact tracing.
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27

28 **Intervention**

29
30
31 During the simulation exercise, two concurrent contact tracing team performed contact tracing,
32 one via conventional method (EMR), and the other via RTLS. The hospital contact tracing
33 team, which comprised nurse leadership in coordination with hospital infection control,
34 performed contact tracing via conventional methods as per existing hospital contact tracing
35 protocol. Firstly, an activity map of the index case, comprising the journey within the hospital,
36 was derived after reviewing the EMR. Subsequently, a list of contacts comprising healthcare
37 workers, other patients, and hospital visitors, was compiled via various databases. The EMR
38 identified any healthcare workers who documented their interactions with the patient, the
39 hospital registration system identified other patients who were in the same location as the index
40 case, and the visitor management system identified visitors who registered to visit the location
41 of the index case.
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56

57 Concurrently, the other team generated the activity map and the list of contacts using the RTLS
58 platform. The activity map showed the entire journey within the hospital, depicting each
59
60

1
2
3 location and the duration the index case visited. The list of contacts was then derived for each
4
5 of these locations, depicting the time and duration of each staff and patient the index case came
6
7 in contact with.
8
9

10 **Analysis**

11
12
13 Between the two methods used for contact tracing, we compared the time taken, manpower
14
15 required, manpower-hours required, and the list of contacts identified. Between the two contact
16
17 lists, we compared the number of contacts, and the roles of these contacts (doctors, nurses,
18
19 allied health workers, ancillary staff, patients, or visitors). As a significant proportion of the
20
21 existing staff were not equipped with the staff tags at that point of the study, the comparison
22
23 between the lists was done primarily on staff equipped with the tags. Descriptive statistics were
24
25 used to compare the two methods.
26
27
28
29

30 **Patient and Public Involvement**

31
32
33 It was not appropriate or possible to involve patients or the public in the design, or conduct, or
34
35 reporting, or dissemination plans of our research.
36
37

38 **Ethical Considerations**

39
40
41 This study was reviewed and approved by the SingHealth Centralised Institutional Review
42
43 Board.
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

RESULTS

Simulation Exercise

The index case had a length of stay of three days and seven minutes and visited three main locations in the hospital: emergency department, operating theatre, and inpatient ward. RTLS alone identified 226 unique contacts, of which there were 157 staff and 69 patients. EMR alone identified 288 unique contacts, of which 82 (27 staff and 55 patients) were tagged (Table 1). For a better comparison of results, subsequent comparisons were made using only tagged staff and patients, focusing only on the tagged staff EMR identified.

Out of a total of 260 unique contacts, RTLS identified 226 while EMR (tagged) identified 82, with an overlap of 48 (Table 2 & Figure 1). RTLS yielded an additional 178 contacts over the 82 contacts EMR (tagged) yielded, giving an additional 217.1% unique contacts. Out of all the unique contacts, RTLS detected 86.9% while EMR detected 31.5%.

The comparison is further broken down into the three locations visited by the index case, namely the emergency department (ED), the operating theatre (OT) and the inpatient ward. RTLS yielded the highest increase of 263.3% in unique contacts in the ward, and lowest increase of 66.7% in the OT (Table 2 & Figure 1). Interestingly, RTLS yielded an increase of 870.0% unique staff contacts over EMR in the ED.

On comparison of the time taken, manpower required, and manpower-hours required, RTLS took 0.9h, 1 manpower, and 0.9 manpower-hours while EMR took 23.7h, 42 manpower, and 35.3 manpower-hours (Table 3). RTLS provided a 96.2% reduction in time taken, 97.6% reduction in manpower, and 97.5% reduction in manpower-hours required. By RTLS, only one staff was required to acquire the activity map and contact list. Conversely, by EMR, two staff from the infection control department were needed to lead the contact tracing efforts, involving 24 additional departments and 40 other staff in the process.

1
2
3 In terms of hospital costs, RTLS required an equipment cost (RTLS platform and staff tags) of
4 \$653,594 for the first three years to purchase and maintain the system, whereas EMR method
5 required no additional equipment cost. In terms of manpower costs computed over the
6 simulation exercise, RTLS method incurred a manpower cost of \$62 per contact tracing episode,
7 whereas EMR method incurred a manpower cost of \$2,125. We computed the expected
8 expenditure over three years to evaluate the long-term cost between RTLS and EMR, as the
9 staff tags had an estimated lifespan of three years. We found that at least 317 contact tracing
10 episodes were needed in the three-year period to obtain cost benefit for RTLS (Table 4).
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

DISCUSSION

Summary

Overall, RTLS identified almost three times the number of contacts compared to EMR, while achieving that with significantly less time, manpower, manpower-hours, and manpower cost.

One caveat to RTLS that may be prohibitive to its implementation is its high cost of entry as the equipment cost incurred can be significant and might take many contact tracing episodes to occur before providing economic benefit.

Interpretation

Similar to the study in Mayo Clinic that found RTLS to have identified 100% more contacts than EMR[5], our study found RTLS to have identified 217.1% more contacts (Table 2). Interestingly, RTLS identified a large increase of 870.0% unique staff contacts in the ED (Table 2). We found that the reason behind that was unique to the ED, where off-duty staff kept their tags in lockers situated within the ED. This resulted in some RTLS staff contacts in the ED to be falsely positive when the index case came in proximity to those lockers. The other RTLS contacts within the ED, the OT, and the ward were found to otherwise be largely accurate. They were identified by RTLS but not EMR for reasons such as doctors and nurses reviewing patients other than the index case, but physically within proximity to the index case. RTLS also detected nurses who chaperoned patients other than the index case to the OT and came in proximity to the index case. Other instances found patients who were physically within the ED as detected by RTLS but omitted by EMR as they were logged as already “discharged” within the EMR system. The value proposition of the RTLS is its capability in detecting such contacts which would otherwise be difficult to establish in the current systems.

While RTLS identified more contacts than EMR, the overlap was not as expected. Out of the 82 EMR contacts, only 48 were identified by RLTS, with 34 (6 staff and 28 patients)

1
2
3 unidentified by RTLS (Figure 1). Subsequent analysis of this discrepancy at the three locations
4 (Figure 1) revealed that a large number were detected by RTLS as being in different sub-
5 locations from the index case, whether it was in the ED, the OT or the ward. In some cases,
6 RTLS even detected them in completely different locations, which was a result of some lag
7 time in the manual update of the EMR system when patients were transferred between locations.
8 This suggests a lack of fidelity in the EMR system for contact tracing, resulting in falsely
9 positive EMR contacts. In a few cases, staff tags were found to be improperly charged or worn,
10 resulting in the tags being completely undetected or detected in irrelevant locations.
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21

22 Although not specifically comparable to EMR, the study in the Taiwan hospital found RTLS
23 to have good sensitivity, specificity and accuracy[6]. In our study, RTLS proved to be effective
24 in the identification of contacts as it possibly has better sensitivity than EMR as shown by the
25 identification of contacts that went undetected by EMR, and better specificity by showing some
26 contacts detected by EMR to be false positives due to the subdivision of locations in the RTLS
27 platform. However, non-compliance to charging and wearing of tags proved to limit the
28 effectiveness of RTLS in the detection of contacts. To circumvent such limitations, more staff
29 education and training can be implemented to emphasize the appropriate usage of staff tags.
30 Future tags designs could also be integrated into existing staff cards, which are required for
31 staff to gain access into hospital compound and staff-restricted areas within the campus, thus
32 resolving some of the compliance issues faced in this study.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

48 Aligned with the study in Mayo Clinic that estimated RTLS to take <5 minutes while EMR to
49 take 30-60 minutes[5], our study found RTLS provided significant time, manpower, and
50 manpower-hour savings of 96.2%, 97.6% and 97.5% respectively (Table 3). Although not
51 specifically measured and compared with other contact tracing episodes, it is expected that
52 RTLS can consistently deliver similar results regardless of the index case's length of stay,
53 number of locations visited, number of departments involved (e.g. allied health professionals'
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 involvement), or day of contact tracing (weekday vs weekend). With EMR, anecdotal evidence
4 revealed that longer lengths of stay, larger numbers of locations visited, larger numbers of
5 departments involved, as well as contact tracing over a weekend can all result in significant
6 delays in contact tracings. Moreover, should all staff in the hospital be tagged, the objective
7 data provided by RTLS would reduce the subsequent work of verification and interview with
8 each contact. Perhaps, the RTLS platform can also be designed to coordinate with other
9 hospital communication systems to trigger automated text messages or emails to be sent to the
10 affected individuals, further reducing the downstream workload of the contact tracing team.

11
12 Our cost computations found that initial investment on the RTLS equipment can prove to be
13 costly and present a significant barrier to entry, requiring about two contact tracing episodes
14 per week for RTLS to warrant the investment, while an average of two contact tracing episodes
15 occurred monthly in our hospital (pre-COVID). It is found in other studies that RTLS can be
16 justified in large urban healthcare institutions with diverse patient populations, but not so in
17 small community healthcare institutions[5]. Further studies are required to evaluate and justify
18 the cost of RTLS in Singapore. Alternatively, future studies can look into the cost-benefit
19 analysis of tagging certain groups of the healthcare staff over the others, hence lowering the
20 equipment cost of RTLS.

21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 **Limitations**

45
46 Our study had some important limitations. The results of our study are based on one simulation
47 exercise in our institution, hence limiting generalisability. Factors such as index case length of
48 stay, number of locations visited, number of departments involved, or the day contact tracing
49 was performed could all influence the results and necessitate further investigations. Despite the
50 absence of any prior notice, the simulation exercise was held within a month of two prior
51 rehearsals. As such, heightened sense of awareness among hospital staff that an exercise was
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 about to occur, coupled with a possible Hawthorne effect of a simulation exercise, could have
4
5 resulted in shorter than usual response time. As contacts of the index case were not observed
6
7 prior to contact tracing, there were no definitive means of determining the true positives and
8
9 negatives of both methods, though the RTLS was tested and deemed operational prior to the
10
11 data collection. Also, only 1000 permanent staff deemed working in high-risk areas were
12
13 tagged. However, our EMR contacts revealed significant untagged populations such as junior
14
15 doctors on six-month rotations, allied health professions, and ancillary staff providing meals,
16
17 cleaning, and porter services. These groups of people were under-represented in this study and
18
19 their inclusion may result in different contact activities.
20
21
22

23
24 Early recognition and mitigation of an EID is paramount in impeding the multiplicative effect
25
26 of any outbreak, potentially limiting its transmission towards a widespread epidemic. Other
27
28 studies showed contact tracing to be critical in halting disease transmission[13], and further
29
30 studies possibly with computational models can more accurately show the clinical benefits
31
32 conferred by performing contact tracing with RTLS.
33
34

35
36 Current cost computations consist of only equipment and manpower costs, without
37
38 considerations on the economic impact of reducing disease transmission. Future studies taking
39
40 into account the economic impact of reducing disease transmission, particularly in COVID-19,
41
42 might show RTLS to confer greater economic benefits than presented in this study.
43
44
45

46 **Conclusion**

47
48
49 Compared to EMR, we found that RTLS identified contacts in a timelier and more accurate
50
51 fashion, required fewer manpower and manpower-hours, and has the potential to limit disease
52
53 transmission. Despite the advantages, high equipment cost is incurred with RTLS and might
54
55 present significant barrier to adoption. RLTS might be at a nascent stage and not be ready to
56
57 completely replace conventional methods in contact tracing. However, with subsequent cycles
58
59
60

1
2
3 of plan-do-study-act (PDSA)[14] and further studies taking into account the economic impact
4
5 of reducing disease transmission, RTLS has the potential to be the gold standard in contact
6
7 tracing methods of the future.
8
9

10
11 This study explicitly examines the time, manpower, manpower-hours, reduction in disease
12
13 transmission, and cost of performing contact tracing between RTLS and other conventional
14
15 means. Our findings hold implications for hospital administrators and healthcare regulators,
16
17 especially within the country, to relook at how existing standards of contact tracing can be
18
19 improved.
20
21

22
23 * This article was written using SQUIRE guidelines[15,16].
24
25

26 * This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial
27
28 or not-for-profit sectors.
29
30

31 * There are no competing interests for any authors.
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION

Corresponding Author

Full Name: NG, Guan Yee

- Substantial contributions to the conception or design of the work; or the acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data for the work; AND
- Drafting the work or revising it critically for important intellectual content; AND
- Final approval of the version to be published; AND
- Agreement to be accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved.

Principal Investigator & Co-author

Full Name: ONG, Biauwei Chi

- Substantial contributions to the conception or design of the work; or the acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data for the work; AND
- Drafting the work or revising it critically for important intellectual content; AND
- Final approval of the version to be published; AND
- Agreement to be accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved.

1
2
3 **REFERENCES**
4

- 5 1 Lum LHW, Badaruddin H, Salmon S, *et al.* Pandemic preparedness: Nationally-led
6 simulation to test hospital systems. *Ann Acad Med Singapore* 2016.
7
8
9
10
11 2 Tay J, Ng YF, Cutter J, *et al.* Influenza a (H1N1-2009) pandemic in Singapore - public
12 health control measures implemented and lessons learnt. *Ann. Acad. Med. Singapore.*
13 2010.
14
15
16
17
18 3 Keck F. Avian preparedness: simulations of bird diseases and reverse scenarios of
19 extinction in Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Singapore. *J R Anthropol Inst* Published Online
20 First: 2018. doi:10.1111/1467-9655.12813
21
22
23
24
25
26 4 Saurabh S, Prateek S. Role of contact tracing in containing the 2014 Ebola outbreak: A
27 review. *Afr Health Sci* Published Online First: 2017. doi:10.4314/ahs.v17i1.28
28
29
30
31 5 Hellmich TR, Clements CM, El-Sherif N, *et al.* Contact tracing with a real-time location
32 system: A case study of increasing relative effectiveness in an emergency department.
33 *Am J Infect Control* Published Online First: 2017. doi:10.1016/j.ajic.2017.08.014
34
35
36
37
38 6 Chang YT, Syed-Abdul S, Tsai CY, *et al.* A novel method for inferring RFID tag reader
39 recordings into clinical events. *Int J Med Inform* Published Online First: 2011.
40 doi:10.1016/j.ijmedinf.2011.09.006
41
42
43
44
45
46 7 Kamel Boulos MN, Berry G. Real-time locating systems (RTLS) in healthcare: A
47 condensed primer. *Int. J. Health Geogr.* 2012. doi:10.1186/1476-072X-11-25
48
49
50
51 8 Yao W, Chu CH, Li Z. The adoption and implementation of RFID technologies in
52 healthcare: A literature review. In: *Journal of Medical Systems.* 2012.
53 doi:10.1007/s10916-011-9789-8
54
55
56
57
58 9 Stehlé J, Voirin N, Barrat A, *et al.* Simulation of an SEIR infectious disease model on
59
60

- 1
2
3 the dynamic contact network of conference attendees. *BMC Med* Published Online First:
4
5 2011. doi:10.1186/1741-7015-9-87
6
7
- 8
9 10 Lipsitch M, Cohen T, Cooper B, *et al.* Transmission dynamics and control of severe
10 acute respiratory syndrome. *Science* (80-) Published Online First: 2003.
11
12 doi:10.1126/science.1086616
13
14
- 15
16 11 Stübiger T, Zeckey C, Min W, *et al.* Effects of a WLAN-based real time location system
17 on outpatient contentment in a Level I trauma center. *Int J Med Inform* Published Online
18 First: 2014. doi:10.1016/j.ijmedinf.2013.10.001
19
20
21
- 22
23 12 Zhou Y, Ma Z, Brauer F. A discrete epidemic model for SARS transmission and control
24 in China. *Math Comput Model* Published Online First: 2004.
25
26 doi:10.1016/j.mcm.2005.01.007
27
28
29
- 30
31 13 Greiner AL, Angelo KM, McCollum AM, *et al.* Addressing contact tracing challenges-
32 critical to halting Ebola virus disease transmission. *Int. J. Infect. Dis.* 2015.
33
34 doi:10.1016/j.ijid.2015.10.025
35
36
37
- 38
39 14 Leis JA, Shojania KG. A primer on PDSA: Executing Plan-do-study-act cycles in
40 practice, not just in name. *BMJ Qual. Saf.* 2017. doi:10.1136/bmjqs-2016-006245
41
42
43
- 44
45 15 Ogrinc G, Davies L, Goodman D, *et al.* Standards for QUality Improvement Reporting
46 Excellence 2.0: revised publication guidelines from a detailed consensus process. *J Surg*
47
48 *Res* Published Online First: 2016. doi:10.1016/j.jss.2015.09.015
49
50
- 51
52 16 Goodman D, Ogrinc G, Davies L, *et al.* Explanation and elaboration of the SQUIRE
53 (Standards for Quality Improvement Reporting Excellence) Guidelines, V.2.0:
54 Examples of SQUIRE elements in the healthcare improvement literature. *BMJ Qual. Saf.*
55
56 2016. doi:10.1136/bmjqs-2015-004480
57
58
59
60

TABLES

Table 1 Comparison of contact list breakdown identified by real-time location system (RTLS) and electronic medical record (EMR). Table created by authors.

| Role | RTLS | | EMR | | Total |
|-------------------------------|--------|----------|--------|----------|-------|
| | Tagged | Untagged | Tagged | Untagged | |
| Healthcare Workers | 157 | 27 | 110 | 137 | |
| - Doctors | 8 | 2 | 39 | 41 | |
| - Nurses | 149 | 25 | 19 | 44 | |
| - Allied Health Professionals | 0 | 0 | 11 | 11 | |
| - Ancillary Staff | 0 | 0 | 41 | 41 | |
| Patients | 69 | 55 | 0 | 55 | |
| Visitors | 0 | 0 | 96 | 96 | |
| Total | 226 | 82 | 206 | 288 | |

Table 2 Comparison of contact list between RTLS and EMR (Tagged) by role only, and by location/role. Table created by authors.

| Role | RTLS | EMR (Tagged) | RTLS (but not EMR) | Both RTLS & EMR | EMR (but not RTLS) | Total unique contacts | RTLS increase over EMR (%) |
|---------------------------------|------|--------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| Healthcare Workers | 157 | 27 | 136 | 21 | 6 | 163 | 503.7 |
| - Doctors | 8 | 2 | 7 | 1 | 1 | 9 | 350.0 |
| - Nurses | 149 | 25 | 129 | 20 | 5 | 154 | 516.0 |
| Patients | 69 | 55 | 42 | 27 | 28 | 97 | 76.4 |
| Total | 226 | 82 | 178 | 48 | 34 | 260 | 217.1 |
| ^a Detection rate (%) | 86.9 | 31.5 | | | | 100 | 175.6 |
| Location / Role | RTLS | EMR (Tagged) | RTLS (but not EMR) | Both RTLS & EMR | EMR (but not RTLS) | Total unique contacts | RTLS increase over EMR (%) |
| Emergency Department | 114 | 47 | 90 | 24 | 23 | 137 | 191.5 |
| - Staff (doctors & nurses) | 94 | 10 | 87 | 7 | 3 | 97 | 870.0 |
| - Patients | 20 | 37 | 3 | 17 | 20 | 40 | 8.1 |
| Operating Theatre | 12 | 9 | 6 | 6 | 3 | 15 | 66.7 |
| - Staff (doctors & nurses) | 5 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 400.0 |
| - Patients | 7 | 8 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 10 | 25.0 |
| Ward (Inpatient) | 101 | 30 | 79 | 22 | 8 | 109 | 263.3 |
| - Staff (doctors & nurses) | 54 | 16 | 41 | 13 | 3 | 57 | 256.3 |
| - Patients | 47 | 14 | 38 | 9 | 5 | 52 | 271.4 |

^a Detection rate = [(Contacts detected by either methods)/(Total unique contacts)]*100%

Table 3 Comparison of time taken, manpower required, and manpower-hours required between RTLS and EMR. Table created by authors.

| RTLS | | | | EMR | | | |
|--|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|--|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Process | ^a Elapsed time (h) | ^b Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) | Process | ^a Elapsed time (h) | ^b Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) |
| Index case identified | 0 | 0 | 0.0 | Index case identified | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Activity map: Generate activity map via SmartSense | 0.1 | 1 | 0.1 | Activity map: SAP check (hospital registration system) | 0.1 | 1 | 0.1 |
| Activity map: Sort data and fill of MOH activity map template | 0.5 | 1 | 0.4 | Activity map: Contact OT (OT journey) | 0.5 | 1 | 0.4 |
| | | | | Activity map: SCM check (EMR) | 0.6 | 1 | 0.6 |
| | | | | Activity map: Contact ED (ED journey) | 0.8 | 1 | 0.3 |
| | | | | Activity map: Verify data and fill of MOH activity map template | 1.5 | 2 | 0.8 |
| | | | | Contact list: Contact MI (list of exposed patients) | 1.7 | 1 | 0.2 |
| | | | | Contact list: Email all stakeholders - ED, OT, Ward, AHP (13dept), Anc staff (5dept) | 1.9 | 1 | 1.1 |
| Contact list: Generate contact list via SmartSense | 0.6 | 1 | 0.1 | Contact list: Contact AVMS (list of exposed visitors) | 2.2 | 2 | 0.4 |
| | | | | Contact list: Sort MI data (list of exposed patients) | 3.9 | 1 | 0.2 |
| | | | | Contact list: Contact IHIS (author list of EMR) | 4 | 1 | 0.2 |
| | | | | Contact list: Sort IHIS data (author list of EMR) | 7.2 | 1 | 0.5 |
| Contact list: Review and sort contact tracing data, and fill MOH contact list template | 0.9 | 1 | 0.3 | Contact list: Compile data, call and clarify non-response / missing data, and fill MOH contact list template | 23.7 | 2 | 12.0 |
| | ^a 0.9 | ^b 1 | 0.9 | | ^a 23.7 | ^b 2 | 16.4 |
| Downstream Departments | | Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) | Downstream Departments | | Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) |
| None | | 0 | 0.0 | Emergency Department | | 1 | 1.3 |
| | | | | Operating Theatre | | 1 | 1.0 |
| | | | | Ward 19 | | 1 | 1.0 |
| | | | | Management Information - eHints | | 1 | 0.5 |
| | | | | AVMS dept | | 4 | 2.5 |
| | | | | Integrated Health Information Systems | | 2 | 1.5 |
| | | | | Audiology | | 1 | 0.2 |
| | | | | Clinical Measurement Centre | | 1 | 0.1 |
| | | | | Dietetics | | 1 | 0.1 |
| | | | | Medical Social Services | | 1 | 0.2 |

| | | | | | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| | | | | Occupational Therapy | 1 | 0.3 |
| | | | | Pathology | 1 | 0.1 |
| | | | | Pharmacy | 2 | 0.7 |
| | | | | Physiotherapy | 3 | 1.2 |
| | | | | Podiatry | 2 | 0.5 |
| | | | | Psychology | 1 | 0.3 |
| | | | | Radiology | 1 | 0.5 |
| | | | | Respiratory Therapy | 1 | 0.8 |
| | | | | Speech Therapy | 1 | 0.2 |
| | | | | Environmental Services | 6 | 1.8 |
| | | | | Facilities Management & Engineering | 1 | 2.0 |
| | | | | General Services | 2 | 1.2 |
| | | | | Materials Management | 1 | 0.8 |
| | | | | Security | 3 | 0.3 |
| | | | 0 | | 40 | 18.9 |
| | | | | | | |
| | ^a Elapsed time (h) | ^b Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) | | ^a Elapsed time (h) | ^b Manpower required |
| | | | | | | Manpower-hours required (h) |
| Total | a 0.9 | b 1 | 0.9 | Total | a 23.7 | b 42 |
| Decrease over EMR (%) | 96.2 | 97.6 | 97.5 | | | 35.3 |

^a Elapsed time refers to the amount of time that has passed since the start of the exercise at the point of completion of a process, hence the total elapsed time is not a simple sum of the above cells.

^b Manpower required is the number of staff it took to perform the process. Many of the processes were performed by the same staff, and hence the total manpower required is not a simple sum of the above cells.

Table 4 Comparison of cost between RTLS and EMR. Table created by authors.

| Cost | RTLS | EMR |
|---|-----------|-----------|
| ^a Equipment cost (for first three years) | \$653,594 | \$0 |
| ^b Manpower cost (for each contact tracing episode) | \$62 | \$2,125 |
| Case scenarios | | |
| 36 contact tracing episodes in 3 years | \$655,826 | \$76,500 |
| 156 contact tracing episodes in 3 years | \$663,266 | \$331,500 |
| 317 contact tracing episodes in 3 years | \$673,248 | \$673,625 |

^a Equipment cost (RTLS) = cost of RTLS platform + cost of staff tags

^b Manpower cost = (manpower-hours of Staff 1 * norm cost of Staff 1) + (manpower-hours of Staff 2 * norm cost of Staff 2) + ... + (manpower-hours of Staff N * norm cost of Staff N)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

FIGURES

Figure 1 Comparison of RTLS vs EMR (tagged) broken down into: (a) total - staff & patients, (b) total - staff (doctors & nurses), (c) total - patients, (d) ED - staff (doctors & nurses), (e) ED - patients, (f) OT - staff (doctors & nurses), (g) OT - patients, (h) Ward - staff (doctors & nurses), and (i) Ward - patients. Figure created by authors.

For peer review only

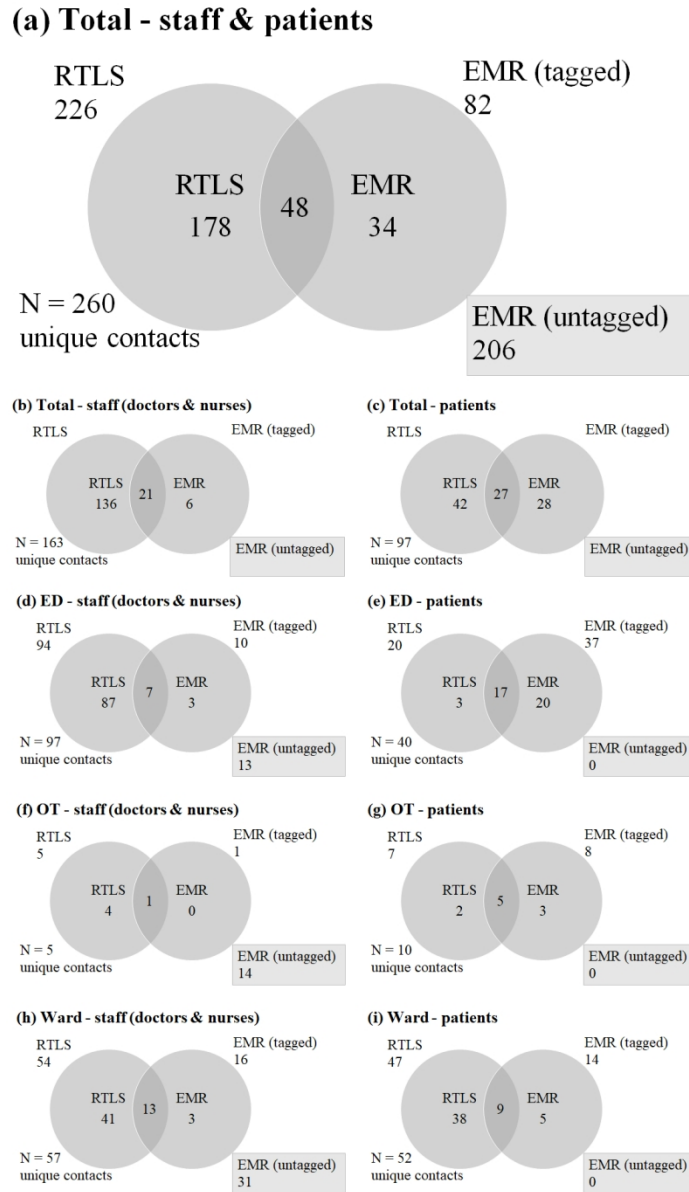


Figure 1 Comparison of RTLS vs EMR (tagged) broken down into: (a) total - staff & patients, (b) total - staff (doctors & nurses), (c) total - patients, (d) ED - staff (doctors & nurses), (e) ED - patients, (f) OT - staff (doctors & nurses), (g) OT - patients, (h) Ward - staff (doctors & nurses), and (i) Ward - patients. Figure created by authors.

618x1060mm (47 x 47 DPI)

**Revised Standards for Quality Improvement Reporting Excellence (SQUIRE 2.0)
September 15, 2015**

| Text Section and Item Name | Section or Item Description | |
|---|---|-------|
| Notes to authors | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The SQUIRE guidelines provide a framework for reporting new knowledge about how to improve healthcare • The SQUIRE guidelines are intended for reports that describe system level work to improve the quality, safety, and value of healthcare, and used methods to establish that observed outcomes were due to the intervention(s). • A range of approaches exists for improving healthcare. SQUIRE may be adapted for reporting any of these. • Authors should consider every SQUIRE item, but it may be inappropriate or unnecessary to include every SQUIRE element in a particular manuscript. • The SQUIRE Glossary contains definitions of many of the key words in SQUIRE. • The Explanation and Elaboration document provides specific examples of well-written SQUIRE items, and an in-depth explanation of each item. • Please cite SQUIRE when it is used to write a manuscript. | |
| Title and Abstract | | Page |
| 1. Title | Indicate that the manuscript concerns an initiative to improve healthcare (broadly defined to include the quality, safety, effectiveness, patient-centeredness, timeliness, cost, efficiency, and equity of healthcare) | 1 |
| 2. Abstract | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Provide adequate information to aid in searching and indexing b. Summarize all key information from various sections of the text using the abstract format of the intended publication or a structured summary such as: background, local problem, methods, interventions, results, conclusions | 3 - 4 |
| Introduction | <i>Why did you start?</i> | |
| 3. Problem Description | Nature and significance of the local problem | 5 |
| 4. Available knowledge | Summary of what is currently known about the problem , including relevant previous studies | 6 - 7 |

| | | |
|--|--|---------|
| 5. Rationale | Informal or formal frameworks, models, concepts, and/or theories used to explain the problem , any reasons or assumptions that were used to develop the intervention(s) , and reasons why the intervention(s) was expected to work | 7 |
| 6. Specific aims | Purpose of the project and of this report | 7 |
| Methods | <i>What did you do?</i> | |
| 7. Context | Contextual elements considered important at the outset of introducing the intervention(s) | 8 |
| 8. Intervention(s) | a. Description of the intervention(s) in sufficient detail that others could reproduce it b. Specifics of the team involved in the work | 9 - 10 |
| 9. Study of the Intervention(s) | a. Approach chosen for assessing the impact of the intervention(s) b. Approach used to establish whether the observed outcomes were due to the intervention(s) | 9 - 10 |
| 10. Measures | a. Measures chosen for studying processes and outcomes of the intervention(s) , including rationale for choosing them, their operational definitions, and their validity and reliability b. Description of the approach to the ongoing assessment of contextual elements that contributed to the success, failure, efficiency, and cost c. Methods employed for assessing completeness and accuracy of data | 9 |
| 11. Analysis | a. Qualitative and quantitative methods used to draw inferences from the data b. Methods for understanding variation within the data, including the effects of time as a variable | 10 |
| 12. Ethical Considerations | Ethical aspects of implementing and studying the intervention(s) and how they were addressed, including, but not limited to, formal ethics review and potential conflict(s) of interest | 10 |
| Results | <i>What did you find?</i> | |
| 13. Results | a. Initial steps of the intervention(s) and their evolution over time (e.g., time-line diagram, flow chart, or table), including modifications made to the intervention during the project b. Details of the process measures and outcome c. Contextual elements that interacted with the intervention(s) d. Observed associations between outcomes, interventions, and relevant contextual elements e. Unintended consequences such as unexpected benefits, problems, failures, or costs associated with the intervention(s) . f. Details about missing data | 11 - 12 |
| Discussion | <i>What does it mean?</i> | |
| 14. Summary | a. Key findings, including relevance to the rationale and specific aims b. Particular strengths of the project | 13 |

| | | |
|----------------------------------|--|----------------|
| <p>15. Interpretation</p> | <p>a. Nature of the association between the intervention(s) and the outcomes</p> <p>b. Comparison of results with findings from other publications</p> <p>c. Impact of the project on people and systems</p> <p>d. Reasons for any differences between observed and anticipated outcomes, including the influence of context</p> <p>e. Costs and strategic trade-offs, including opportunity costs</p> | <p>13 - 15</p> |
| <p>16. Limitations</p> | <p>a. Limits to the generalizability of the work</p> <p>b. Factors that might have limited internal validity such as confounding, bias, or imprecision in the design, methods, measurement, or analysis</p> <p>c. Efforts made to minimize and adjust for limitations</p> | <p>15 - 16</p> |
| <p>17. Conclusions</p> | <p>a. Usefulness of the work</p> <p>b. Sustainability</p> <p>c. Potential for spread to other contexts</p> <p>d. Implications for practice and for further study in the field</p> <p>e. Suggested next steps</p> | <p>16 - 17</p> |
| <p>Other information</p> | | |
| <p>18. Funding</p> | <p>Sources of funding that supported this work. Role, if any, of the funding organization in the design, implementation, interpretation, and reporting</p> | <p>17</p> |

1
2
3 **Table 2. Glossary of key terms used in SQUIRE 2.0. This Glossary provides the intended**
4 **meaning of selected words and phrases as they are used in the SQUIRE 2.0 Guidelines. They**
5 **may, and often do, have different meanings in other disciplines, situations, and settings.**
6

7 **Assumptions**

8 Reasons for choosing the activities and tools used to bring about changes in healthcare services at
9 the [system](#) level.
10
11

12 **Context**

13 Physical and sociocultural makeup of the local environment (for example, external environmental
14 factors, organizational dynamics, collaboration, resources, leadership, and the like), and the
15 interpretation of these factors (“sense-making”) by the healthcare delivery professionals, patients,
16 and caregivers that can affect the effectiveness and [generalizability](#) of [intervention\(s\)](#).
17
18

19 **Ethical aspects**

20 The value of [system](#)-level [initiatives](#) relative to their potential for harm, burden, and cost to the
21 stakeholders. Potential harms particularly associated with efforts to improve the quality, safety, and
22 value of healthcare services include [opportunity costs](#), invasion of privacy, and staff distress
23 resulting from disclosure of poor performance.
24
25

26 **Generalizability**

27 The likelihood that the [intervention\(s\)](#) in a particular report would produce similar results in other
28 settings, situations, or environments (also referred to as external validity).
29
30

31 **Healthcare improvement**

32 Any systematic effort intended to raise the quality, safety, and value of healthcare services, usually
33 done at the [system](#) level. We encourage the use of this phrase rather than “quality improvement,”
34 which often refers to more narrowly defined approaches.
35
36

37 **Inferences**

38 The meaning of findings or data, as interpreted by the stakeholders in healthcare services –
39 improvers, healthcare delivery professionals, and/or patients and families
40
41

42 **Initiative**

43 A broad term that can refer to organization-wide programs, narrowly focused projects, or the details
44 of specific interventions (for example, planning, execution, and assessment)
45
46

47 **Internal validity**

48 Demonstrable, credible evidence for efficacy (meaningful impact or change) resulting from
49 introduction of a specific intervention into a particular healthcare [system](#).
50
51

52 **Intervention(s)**

53 The specific activities and tools introduced into a healthcare [system](#) with the aim of changing its
54 performance for the better. Complete description of an intervention includes its inputs, internal
55 activities, and outputs (in the form of a logic model, for example), and the mechanism(s) by which
56 these components are expected to produce changes in a [system's](#) performance.
57
58

59 **Opportunity costs**

1
2
3 Loss of the ability to perform other tasks or meet other responsibilities resulting from the diversion
4 of resources needed to introduce, test, or sustain a particular [improvement](#) initiative
5
6

7 **Problem**

8 Meaningful disruption, failure, inadequacy, distress, confusion or other dysfunction in a healthcare
9 service delivery [system](#) that adversely affects patients, staff, or the [system](#) as a whole, or that
10 prevents care from reaching its full potential
11

12 **Process**

13 The routines and other activities through which healthcare services are delivered
14
15

16 **Rationale**

17 Explanation of why particular [intervention\(s\)](#) were chosen and why it was expected to work, be
18 sustainable, and be replicable elsewhere.
19

20 **Systems**

21 The interrelated structures, people, [processes](#), and activities that together create healthcare services
22 for and with individual patients and populations. For example, systems exist from the personal self-
23 care system of a patient, to the individual provider-patient dyad system, to the microsystem, to the
24 macrosystem, and all the way to the market/social/insurance system. These levels are nested within
25 each other.
26
27

28 **Theory or theories**

29 Any “reason-giving” account that asserts causal relationships between variables (causal theory) or
30 that makes sense of an otherwise obscure [process](#) or situation (explanatory theory). Theories come
31 in many forms, and serve different purposes in the phases of [improvement](#) work. It is important to
32 be explicit and well-founded about any informal and formal theory (or theories) that are used.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

BMJ Open

Contact Tracing using Real-Time Location System (RTLS): A Simulation Exercise in a Tertiary Hospital in Singapore

| | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Journal: | <i>BMJ Open</i> |
| Manuscript ID | bmjopen-2021-057522.R1 |
| Article Type: | Original research |
| Date Submitted by the Author: | 06-Jun-2022 |
| Complete List of Authors: | Ng, Guan Yee; Duke-NUS Medical School, Ong, Biauwei Chi; Sengkang General Hospital |
| Primary Subject Heading: | Epidemiology |
| Secondary Subject Heading: | Health informatics, Health policy, Health economics, Health services research, Infectious diseases |
| Keywords: | Health policy < HEALTH SERVICES ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT, Health informatics < BIOTECHNOLOGY & BIOINFORMATICS, EPIDEMIOLOGY, Infection control < INFECTIOUS DISEASES, COVID-19, HEALTH ECONOMICS |
| | |

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts



I, the Submitting Author has the right to grant and does grant on behalf of all authors of the Work (as defined in the below author licence), an exclusive licence and/or a non-exclusive licence for contributions from authors who are: i) UK Crown employees; ii) where BMJ has agreed a CC-BY licence shall apply, and/or iii) in accordance with the terms applicable for US Federal Government officers or employees acting as part of their official duties; on a worldwide, perpetual, irrevocable, royalty-free basis to BMJ Publishing Group Ltd ("BMJ") its licensees and where the relevant Journal is co-owned by BMJ to the co-owners of the Journal, to publish the Work in this journal and any other BMJ products and to exploit all rights, as set out in our [licence](#).

The Submitting Author accepts and understands that any supply made under these terms is made by BMJ to the Submitting Author unless you are acting as an employee on behalf of your employer or a postgraduate student of an affiliated institution which is paying any applicable article publishing charge ("APC") for Open Access articles. Where the Submitting Author wishes to make the Work available on an Open Access basis (and intends to pay the relevant APC), the terms of reuse of such Open Access shall be governed by a Creative Commons licence – details of these licences and which [Creative Commons](#) licence will apply to this Work are set out in our licence referred to above.

Other than as permitted in any relevant BMJ Author's Self Archiving Policies, I confirm this Work has not been accepted for publication elsewhere, is not being considered for publication elsewhere and does not duplicate material already published. I confirm all authors consent to publication of this Work and authorise the granting of this licence.

1
2
3 Contact Tracing using Real-Time Location System (RTLS): A Simulation Exercise in a
4
5 Tertiary Hospital in Singapore
6
7

8 Corresponding Author

9 Full Name: NG, Guan Yee
10 Postal Address: 8 College Road Singapore 169857
11 Email: davegyng@gmail.com
12 Telephone: +65-81818614
13 Fax: Nil
14
15

16
17 Co-authors

18 Full Name: ONG, Biauwei Chi
19 Postal Address: Sengkang General Hospital, 110 Sengkang East Way, Singapore 544886
20 Email: ong.biauwei.chi@singhealth.com.sg
21 Telephone: +65-69305000
22 Fax: Nil
23
24

25
26 Keywords/phrases: contact tracing; real-time location system (RTLS); communicable disease
27
28 control; infection control; epidemiology; health policy; health informatics; information
29
30 technology
31
32

33 Word count: 3295
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

ABSTRACT

Objective: We aim to assess the effectiveness of contact tracing using RTLS compared to the conventional (EMR) method via an EID outbreak simulation exercise. The aims of the study are: (1) to compare the time taken to perform contact tracing and list of contacts identified for RTLS vs EMR; (2) to compare manpower and manpower-hours required to perform contact tracing for RTLS vs EMR; (3) to extrapolate the cost incurred by RTLS vs EMR.

Design: Prospective case study.

Setting: Sengkang General Hospital (SKH), a 1000-bedded public tertiary hospital in Singapore.

Participants: Hospital staff.

Interventions: A simulation exercise to determine and compare the list of contacts, time taken, manpower, and manpower-hours required between RTLS and conventional methods of contact tracing. Cost of both methods were compared.

Primary and Secondary Outcome Measures: List of contacts, time taken, manpower required, manpower-hours required, and cost incurred.

Results: RTLS identified almost three times the number of contacts compared to conventional methods, while achieving that with a 96.2% reduction in time taken, 97.6% reduction in manpower required, and 97.5% reduction in manpower-hours required. However, RTLS incurred significant equipment cost and might take many contact tracing episodes before providing economic benefit.

Conclusion: Albeit costly, RTLS is effective in contact tracing. RLTS might not be ready at present time to replace conventional methods, but with further refinement, RTLS has the

1
2
3 potential to be the gold standard in contact tracing methods of the future, particularly in the
4
5 current pandemic.
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For peer review only

ARTICLE SUMMARY

Strengths and limitations of this study

Strengths

1. Detailed quantification of contacts identified, and time elapsed/taken by RTLS and EMR
2. Detailed quantification of manpower, manpower hours, manpower cost, equipment cost by both methods

Limitations

1. Lack of gold standard in identifying true contacts, hence unable to calculate sensitivity and specificity
2. Study based on one simulation exercise in one institution
3. Impact & cost savings of halting disease transmission earlier not studied

INTRODUCTION

Densely populated metropolitan cities like Singapore receiving high volumes of international visitors are highly susceptible to emerging infectious disease (EID) outbreaks as evident by the recent COVID-19 pandemic. As such, Singapore needs to continually strengthen its defences against EID outbreaks[1]. Founded on the experiences of previous outbreaks, Singapore took a “whole-of-government approach” towards implementing pandemic control measures[2]. To test these measures, the Ministry of Health (MOH) requires all public hospitals to participate every two years in a national simulation exercise[1,3], and be validated in the management of an infectious disease case. A key assessment criterion of the exercise is contact tracing.

Contact tracing, a systematic process of identification, assessment, and management of people exposed to the disease, is a critical element in containing any outbreak[4]. Current methods of contact tracing involve retrospective review of multiple databases, such as electronic medical records (EMR) entered by healthcare workers, hospital registration systems capturing patient journeys in the hospital, and visitor management systems capturing registered visitors to the hospital. After a preliminary list of potential exposures, also known as contacts, is compiled, individual interviews are carried out to identify any other contacts that were not included by the above systems. These conventional methods are time consuming, heavily manpower dependent, and fail to capture a significant number of contacts[5]. This is because the databases used were not primarily designed to identify contacts between individuals[6] and do not provide enough detail to accurately derive a list of contacts. Failure to trace contacts in a timely and accurate manner can lead to continued transmission of diseases, preventing effective control of EID outbreaks.

Radio frequency identification (RFID) technology, which involves fixed readers receiving signals from small ID tags[7], is widely used in many industries such as commerce and logistics. Tagged items can be identified, tracked and managed in real-time through a centralised

1
2
3 database and a compatible device[7]. RFID technology is increasingly being adopted for many
4
5 uses in healthcare settings such as asset and equipment tracking, staff and patient identification,
6
7 sensing, intervention, and alerts and triggers[8]. These applications provide improvement in
8
9 patient safety, reduction in medical errors, time and cost savings and improved medical
10
11 processes[8]. Another potential application of the RFID technology is a real-time location
12
13 system (RTLS) allowing tracking of interactions among individuals[5]. The use of RTLS in
14
15 the inference of contact history between healthcare staff and patients has been studied and
16
17 validated. The National Centre for Infectious Disease (NCID) in Singapore found that RTLS
18
19 had a sensitivity of 72.2% and a specificity of 87.7%[9]. An intensive care unit in Taiwan found
20
21 that RTLS had a sensitivity of 81.4%, specificity of 78.8%, and accuracy of 80.7%[6]. An
22
23 emergency department in the United States found that RTLS doubled the number of contacts
24
25 identified compared with EMR review[5].
26
27
28
29
30

31
32 To date, few studies have evaluated the manpower and economic impact of contact tracing
33
34 using RTLS compared to conventional methods. RTLS has been found to be an accurate and
35
36 effective way to perform contact tracing. However, little is known as to whether the accuracy
37
38 and efficacy of RTLS provides any manpower and monetary cost savings.
39
40

41
42 In this study, we aim to assess the effectiveness of contact tracing using RTLS compared to the
43
44 conventional (EMR) method via an EID outbreak simulation exercise in Sengkang General
45
46 Hospital, Singapore. The aims of the study are:
47
48

- 49 1. To compare the time taken to perform contact tracing and list of contacts identified for
50 RTLS vs EMR.
51
- 52 2. To compare manpower and manpower-hours required to perform contact tracing for
53 RTLS vs EMR.
54
- 55 3. To extrapolate the cost incurred by RTLS vs EMR.
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 We hypothesised that contact tracing using RTLS would allow us to identify contacts in a
4
5 timelier and more accurate fashion. We also hypothesized that contact tracing using RTLS
6
7
8 would confer benefits in manpower and manpower-hours reduction, translating to cost savings
9
10 for the hospital.
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For peer review only

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Context

This study was held in Sengkang General Hospital (SKH), a 1000-bedded public acute hospital in Singapore with a staff of 4000. This study was conducted in Feb 2019, at a point when SKH was receiving 3149 admissions and 8172 emergency department visits per month. The study was conducted during the biennial national simulation exercise on EID outbreaks. In this exercise, a surgical patient with a three-day inpatient stay was selected as the simulated MERS-CoV index case. This patient was admitted through the emergency department, underwent surgery in the operating theatre on Day 1, and spent three days in an inpatient ward.

Equipment

The RTLS used for contact tracing in our hospital was based on SmartSense Solutions infrastructure and SmartSense RTLS platform provided by Cadi Scientific[10]. Staff tags and patient tags were deployed. The staff tags were additionally equipped with an antenna that captured tag interactions within a two-metre radius of itself. Tag signals were picked up by the campus-wide network of in-ceiling wireless receivers and exciters. Our RTLS was tested and operational prior to the data collection. As a pilot study, 1000 out of 4000 staff wore staff tags. The selected 1000 staff included doctors and nurses working in high risks areas such as the Emergency Department and the inpatient wards. The rest of the staff, including the remaining doctors, nurses, allied health professionals, ancillary staff, and students were not equipped with staff tags. All patients wore patient tags from registration to discharge. Our RTLS platform captured two forms of contact: (1) tag-to-tag based, and (2) location based. A tag-to-tag based contact was registered when any tags (staff or patient) were detected within a two-metre radius of a staff tag for at least a one-minute duration. A location based contact was registered when

1
2
3 any tags were detected within the same location for at least a one-minute duration. Location of
4
5 tags were determined via WiFi triangulation and chokepoint tracking[7,11].
6
7

8 **Measures**

9
10
11 A prospective case study was conducted during the biennial national simulation exercise in
12
13 Sengkang General Hospital on 28 Feb 2019 to determine the list of contacts, time taken,
14
15 manpower required, and manpower-hours required to perform contact tracing via both RTLS
16
17 and the conventional method of databases review (EMR). The date of the exercise was
18
19 unannounced, with the contact tracing team activated only at the point of the exercise itself.
20
21 All staff involved in contact tracing were briefed prior to the exercise to record the amount of
22
23 time spent on performing the work of contact tracing.
24
25
26
27

28 **Intervention**

29
30
31 During the simulation exercise, two concurrent contact tracing team performed contact tracing,
32
33 one via conventional method (EMR), and the other via RTLS. The hospital contact tracing
34
35 team, which comprised nurse leadership in coordination with hospital infection control,
36
37 performed contact tracing via conventional methods as per existing hospital contact tracing
38
39 protocol. Firstly, an activity map of the index case, comprising the journey within the hospital,
40
41 was derived after reviewing the EMR. Subsequently, a list of contacts comprising healthcare
42
43 workers, other patients, and hospital visitors, was compiled via various databases. The EMR
44
45 identified any healthcare workers who documented their interactions with the patient, the
46
47 hospital registration system identified other patients who were in the same location as the index
48
49 case, and the visitor management system identified visitors who registered to visit the location
50
51 of the index case.
52
53
54
55

56
57 Concurrently, the other team generated the activity map and the list of contacts using the RTLS
58
59 platform. The activity map showed the entire journey within the hospital, depicting each
60

1
2
3 location and the duration the index case visited. The list of contacts was then derived for each
4
5 of these locations, depicting the time and duration of each staff and patient the index case came
6
7 in contact with.
8
9

10 **Analysis**

11
12
13 Between the two methods used for contact tracing, we compared the time taken, manpower
14
15 required, manpower-hours required, and the list of contacts identified. Between the two contact
16
17 lists, we compared the number of contacts, and the roles of these contacts (doctors, nurses,
18
19 allied health workers, ancillary staff, patients, or visitors). As a significant proportion of the
20
21 existing staff were not equipped with the staff tags at that point of the study, the comparison
22
23 between the lists was done primarily on staff equipped with the tags. Descriptive statistics were
24
25 used to compare the two methods.
26
27
28
29

30 **Patient and Public Involvement**

31
32
33 It was not appropriate or possible to involve patients or the public in the design, or conduct, or
34
35 reporting, or dissemination plans of our research.
36
37

38 **Ethical Considerations**

39
40
41 This study was reviewed and approved by This study involves human participants but the
42
43 SingHealth Centralised Institutional Review Board (CIRB) exempted this study. CIRB Ref:
44
45 2018/3093
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

RESULTS

Simulation Exercise

The index case had a length of stay of three days and seven minutes and visited three main locations in the hospital: emergency department, operating theatre, and inpatient ward. RTLS identified 226 unique contacts, of which there were 157 staff and 69 patients. EMR identified 288 unique contacts, of which 82 (27 staff and 55 patients) were tagged (Table 1). For a better comparison of results, untagged staff were excluded, and subsequent comparisons were made using only tagged staff and patients.

Out of a total of 260 unique contacts, RTLS identified 226 while EMR (tagged) identified 82, with an overlap of 48 (Table 2 & Figure 1). RTLS yielded an additional 178 contacts over the 82 contacts EMR (tagged) yielded, giving an additional 217.1% unique contacts. Out of all the unique contacts, RTLS detected 86.9% while EMR detected 31.5%.

The comparison is further broken down into the three locations visited by the index case, namely the emergency department (ED), the operating theatre (OT) and the inpatient ward. RTLS yielded the highest increase of 263.3% in unique contacts in the ward, and lowest increase of 66.7% in the OT (Table 2 & Figure 1). Interestingly, RTLS yielded an increase of 870.0% unique staff contacts over EMR in the ED.

Comparing the time taken, manpower, and manpower-hours required, RTLS took 0.9h, 1 manpower, and 0.9 manpower-hours while EMR took 23.7h, 42 manpower, and 35.3 manpower-hours (Table 3). RTLS provided a 96.2% reduction in time taken, 97.6% reduction in manpower, and 97.5% reduction in manpower-hours required. By RTLS, only one staff was required to acquire the activity map and contact list. Conversely, by EMR, two staff from the infection control department were needed to lead the contact tracing efforts, involving 24 additional departments and 40 other staff in the process.

1
2
3 In terms of hospital costs, RTLS required an equipment cost (RTLS platform and staff tags) of
4 \$653,594 for the first three years to purchase and maintain the system, whereas EMR method
5
6 required no additional equipment cost. In terms of manpower costs computed over the
7
8 simulation exercise, RTLS method incurred a manpower cost of \$62 per contact tracing episode,
9
10 whereas EMR method incurred a manpower cost of \$2,125. We computed the expected
11
12 expenditure over three years to evaluate the long-term cost between RTLS and EMR, as the
13
14 staff tags had an estimated lifespan of three years. We found that at least 317 contact tracing
15
16 episodes were needed in the three-year period to obtain cost benefit for RTLS (Table 4).
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

DISCUSSION

Summary

Overall, RTLS identified almost three times the number of contacts compared to EMR, while achieving that with significantly less time, manpower, manpower-hours, and manpower cost.

One caveat to RTLS that may be prohibitive to its implementation is its high cost of entry as the equipment cost incurred can be significant and might take many contact tracing episodes to occur before providing economic benefit.

Interpretation

Similar to the study in Mayo Clinic [5], our study found that RTLS identified more contacts than EMR. Interestingly, RTLS identified an unproportionally large increase of unique contacts in the ED, which was later discovered to be false positive due to off-duty staff keeping their tags in ED lockers. The other RTLS contacts within the ED, the OT, and the ward were found to otherwise be largely accurate. They were identified by RTLS but not EMR for reasons such as doctors and nurses reviewing patients other than the index case, but physically within proximity to the index case. RTLS also detected nurses who chaperoned patients other than the index case to the OT and came in proximity to the index case. Other instances found patients who were physically within the ED as detected by RTLS but omitted by EMR as they were logged as already “discharged” within the EMR system. The value proposition of the RTLS is its capability in detecting such contacts which would otherwise be difficult to establish in the current systems.

The study in Taiwan and Singapore found RTLS to have good sensitivity, specificity and accuracy[6,9]. In our study, RTLS proved to be effective in the identification of contacts as it possibly has better sensitivity than EMR as shown by the identification of contacts that went undetected by EMR, and better specificity by showing some contacts detected by EMR to be

1
2
3 false positives due to the subdivision of locations in the RTLS platform. However, non-
4 compliance to tag charging and wearing proved to limit the effectiveness of RTLS. To
5
6 circumvent such limitations, more staff education and training can be implemented to
7
8 emphasize the appropriate usage of staff tags. Future tags designs could also be integrated into
9
10 existing staff cards, which are required for staff to gain access into hospital compound and
11
12 staff-restricted areas within the campus, thus resolving some of the compliance issues faced in
13
14
15
16
17 this study.

18
19
20 During the COVID pandemic, Singapore deployed a Bluetooth-based contact tracing app
21
22 TraceTogether to augment contact tracing capabilities[10]. A validation study comparing the
23
24 Bluetooth-based app against RTLS by the National Centre for Infectious Disease (NCID) in
25
26 Singapore found that RTLS has a sensitivity of 95.3% as compared to 6.5% for the Bluetooth-
27
28 based TraceTogether app[12], suggesting RTLS to be a more effective contact tracing tool in
29
30 the hospital setting. Despite the better sensitivity, there is still a role for Bluetooth-based
31
32 contact tracing apps in the community as RTLS would be challenging to implement.
33
34
35

36
37 Since the start of COVID-19 till now, much has evolved on the understanding of the disease
38
39 transmission. It is now known that COVID-19 spread primarily via oral and respiratory
40
41 aerosols, as compared to large respiratory droplets contaminated with the virus as initially
42
43 believed[13,14]. Although RTLS does not possess the fidelity to differentiate between low-risk
44
45 and high-risk clinical activities, we were able to define RTLS contacts based on the duration
46
47 of exposure (defined at 1min in our study). This can also be redefined based on the
48
49 transmissibility of the specific disease with each subsequent contact tracing episodes.
50
51
52

53
54 Aligned with the study in Mayo Clinic that estimated RTLS to take <5 minutes while EMR to
55
56 take 30-60 minutes[5], our study found RTLS provided significant time, manpower, and
57
58 manpower-hour savings. RTLS can consistently deliver similar results regardless of the index
59
60

1
2
3 case's length of stay, number of locations visited, number of departments involved (e.g. allied
4 health professionals' involvement), or day of contact tracing (weekday vs weekend). Although
5
6 not specifically measured, contact tracing was swiftly and effectively performed with our
7
8 RTLS system for 1401 COVID-10 patients in our institution within the first seven months of
9
10 the COVID-19 pandemic[10]. With EMR, anecdotal evidence revealed that longer lengths of
11
12 stay, larger numbers of locations visited, larger numbers of departments involved, as well as
13
14 contact tracing over a weekend can all result in significant delays in contact tracings. Moreover,
15
16 should all staff in the hospital be tagged, the objective data provided by RTLS would reduce
17
18 the subsequent work of verification and interview with each contact. Perhaps, the RTLS
19
20 platform can also be designed to coordinate with other hospital communication systems to
21
22 trigger automated text messages or emails to be sent to the affected individuals, further
23
24 reducing the downstream workload of the contact tracing team.
25
26
27
28
29

30
31 Our cost computations found that initial investment on the RTLS equipment can prove to be
32
33 costly and present a significant barrier to entry, requiring about two contact tracing episodes
34
35 per week for RTLS to warrant the investment, while an average of two contact tracing episodes
36
37 occurred monthly in our hospital (pre-COVID). It is found in other studies that RTLS can be
38
39 justified in large urban healthcare institutions with diverse patient populations, but not so in
40
41 small community healthcare institutions[5]. Further studies are required to evaluate and justify
42
43 the cost of RTLS in Singapore. Alternatively, future studies can look into the cost-benefit
44
45 analysis of tagging certain groups of the healthcare staff over the others, hence lowering the
46
47 equipment cost of RTLS.
48
49
50

51
52 Privacy concerns can pose significant barrier to adoption and compliance to RTLS tags[12,15].
53
54 For privacy reasons, the RTLS data collected is only within the hospital compound and is only
55
56 stored for a required period (currently set at 3 months). The data obtained retrieved solely for
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 the purposes of contact tracing and is only available to authorised personnel tasked to perform
4
5 contact tracing work in the hospital.
6
7

8 **Limitations** 9

10
11 The results of our study are based on one simulation exercise in our institution, hence limiting
12
13 generalisability. Factors such as index case length of stay, number of locations visited, number
14
15 of departments involved, or the day contact tracing was performed could all influence the
16
17 results and necessitate further investigations. Despite the absence of any prior notice, the
18
19 simulation exercise was held within a month of two prior rehearsals. As such, heightened sense
20
21 of awareness among hospital staff that an exercise was about to occur, coupled with a possible
22
23 Hawthorne effect of a simulation exercise, could have resulted in shorter than usual response
24
25 time. As contacts of the index case were not observed prior to contact tracing, there were no
26
27 definitive means of determining the true positives and negatives of both methods, though the
28
29 RTLS was tested and deemed operational prior to the data collection. Also, only 1000
30
31 permanent staff deemed working in high-risk areas were tagged. However, our EMR contacts
32
33 revealed significant untagged populations such as junior doctors on six-month rotations, allied
34
35 health professions, and ancillary staff providing meals, cleaning, and porter services. These
36
37 groups of people were under-represented in this study and their inclusion may result in different
38
39 contact activities.
40
41
42
43
44
45

46
47 Early recognition and mitigation of an EID is paramount in impeding the multiplicative effect
48
49 of any outbreak, potentially limiting its transmission towards a widespread epidemic. Other
50
51 studies showed contact tracing to be critical in halting disease transmission[16], and further
52
53 studies possibly with computational models can more accurately show the clinical benefits
54
55 conferred by performing contact tracing with RTLS.
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Current cost computations consist of only equipment and manpower costs, without
4 considerations on the economic impact of reducing disease transmission. Future studies taking
5 into account the economic impact of reducing disease transmission, particularly in COVID-19,
6 might show RTLS to confer greater economic benefits than presented in this study.
7
8
9
10
11
12

13 **Conclusion**

14
15
16 Compared to EMR, we found that RTLS identified contacts in a timelier and more accurate
17 fashion, required fewer manpower and manpower-hours, and has the potential to limit disease
18 transmission. Despite the advantages, high equipment cost is incurred with RTLS and might
19 present significant barrier to adoption. RLTS might be at a nascent stage and not be ready to
20 completely replace conventional methods in contact tracing. However, with subsequent cycles
21 of plan-do-study-act (PDSA)[17] and further studies taking into account the economic impact
22 of reducing disease transmission, RTLS has the potential to be the gold standard in contact
23 tracing methods of the future.
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34

35 This study explicitly examines the time, manpower, manpower-hours, reduction in disease
36 transmission, and cost of performing contact tracing between RTLS and other conventional
37 means. Our findings hold implications for hospital administrators and healthcare regulators,
38 especially within the country, to relook at how existing standards of contact tracing can be
39 improved.
40
41
42
43
44
45
46

47 * This article was written using SQUIRE guidelines[18,19].

48
49
50 * This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial
51 or not-for-profit sectors.
52
53
54

55 * There are no competing interests for any authors.

56
57
58 * Data availability statement: All data relevant to the study are included in the article.
59
60

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION

Corresponding Author

Full Name: NG, Guan Yee

- Substantial contributions to the conception or design of the work; or the acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data for the work; AND
- Drafting the work or revising it critically for important intellectual content; AND
- Final approval of the version to be published; AND
- Agreement to be accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved.

Principal Investigator & Co-author

Full Name: ONG, Biauwei Chi

- Substantial contributions to the conception or design of the work; or the acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data for the work; AND
- Drafting the work or revising it critically for important intellectual content; AND
- Final approval of the version to be published; AND
- Agreement to be accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved.

REFERENCES

- 1 Lum LHW, Badaruddin H, Salmon S, *et al.* Pandemic preparedness: Nationally-led simulation to test hospital systems. *Ann Acad Med Singapore* 2016.
- 2 Tay J, Ng YF, Cutter J, *et al.* Influenza a (H1N1-2009) pandemic in Singapore - public health control measures implemented and lessons learnt. *Ann. Acad. Med. Singapore.* 2010.
- 3 Keck F. Avian preparedness: simulations of bird diseases and reverse scenarios of extinction in Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Singapore. *J R Anthropol Inst* Published Online First: 2018. doi:10.1111/1467-9655.12813
- 4 Saurabh S, Prateek S. Role of contact tracing in containing the 2014 Ebola outbreak: A review. *Afr Health Sci* Published Online First: 2017. doi:10.4314/ahs.v17i1.28
- 5 Hellmich TR, Clements CM, El-Sherif N, *et al.* Contact tracing with a real-time location system: A case study of increasing relative effectiveness in an emergency department. *Am J Infect Control* Published Online First: 2017. doi:10.1016/j.ajic.2017.08.014
- 6 Chang YT, Syed-Abdul S, Tsai CY, *et al.* A novel method for inferring RFID tag reader recordings into clinical events. *Int J Med Inform* Published Online First: 2011. doi:10.1016/j.ijmedinf.2011.09.006
- 7 Kamel Boulos MN, Berry G. Real-time locating systems (RTLS) in healthcare: A condensed primer. *Int. J. Health Geogr.* 2012. doi:10.1186/1476-072X-11-25
- 8 Yao W, Chu CH, Li Z. The adoption and implementation of RFID technologies in healthcare: A literature review. In: *Journal of Medical Systems.* 2012. doi:10.1007/s10916-011-9789-8
- 9 Ho HJ, Zhang ZX, Huang Z, *et al.* Use of a real-time locating system for contact tracing

- 1
2
3 of health care workers during the COVID-19 pandemic at an infectious disease center
4 in singapore: Validation study. *J Med Internet Res* 2020;**22**. doi:10.2196/19437
5
6
7
8
9 10 Lee C, Annathurai A, Pek J. Contact tracing of staff in the emergency department during
10 the COVID-19 pandemic. *Singapore Med J* 2021;:1–11. doi:10.11622/smedj.2021013
11
12
13 11 Stübig T, Zeckey C, Min W, *et al*. Effects of a WLAN-based real time location system
14 on outpatient contentment in a Level I trauma center. *Int J Med Inform* Published Online
15 First: 2014. doi:10.1016/j.ijmedinf.2013.10.001
16
17
18
19
20
21 22 12 Huang Z, Guo H, Lee YM, *et al*. Performance of digital contact tracing tools for COVID-
23 19 response in Singapore: Cross-sectional study. *JMIR mHealth uHealth* 2020;**8**.
24 doi:10.2196/23148
25
26
27
28
29 30 13 Klompas M, Baker MA, Rhee C. Coronavirus Disease 2019's Challenges to Infection
31 Control Dogma Regarding Respiratory Virus Transmission. *Clin Infect Dis* 2022;:2019–
32 21. doi:10.1093/cid/ciac204
33
34
35
36
37 38 14 Rahman HS, Aziz MS, Hussein RH, *et al*. The transmission modes and sources of
39 COVID-19: A systematic review. *Int J Surg Open* 2020;**26**:125–36.
40 doi:10.1016/j.ijso.2020.08.017
41
42
43
44 45 15 Tang G, Westover K, Jiang S. Contact Tracing in Healthcare Settings During the
46 COVID-19 Pandemic Using Bluetooth Low Energy and Artificial Intelligence—A
47 Viewpoint. *Front Artif Intell* 2021;**4**:2–4. doi:10.3389/frai.2021.666599
48
49
50
51 52 16 Greiner AL, Angelo KM, McCollum AM, *et al*. Addressing contact tracing challenges-
53 critical to halting Ebola virus disease transmission. *Int. J. Infect. Dis.* 2015.
54 doi:10.1016/j.ijid.2015.10.025
55
56
57
58
59 17 Leis JA, Shojania KG. A primer on PDSA: Executing Plan-do-study-act cycles in

1
2
3 practice, not just in name. *BMJ Qual. Saf.* 2017. doi:10.1136/bmjqs-2016-006245
4
5

- 6 18 Ogrinc G, Davies L, Goodman D, *et al.* Standards for QQuality Improvement Reporting
7 Excellence 2.0: revised publication guidelines from a detailed consensus process. *J Surg*
8
9 *Res* Published Online First: 2016. doi:10.1016/j.jss.2015.09.015
10
11
12
13 19 Goodman D, Ogrinc G, Davies L, *et al.* Explanation and elaboration of the SQUIRE
14 (Standards for Quality Improvement Reporting Excellence) Guidelines, V.2.0:
15 Examples of SQUIRE elements in the healthcare improvement literature. *BMJ Qual. Saf.*
16
17
18
19
20
21 2016. doi:10.1136/bmjqs-2015-004480
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

TABLES

Table 1 Comparison of contact list breakdown identified by real-time location system (RTLS) and electronic medical record (EMR). Table created by authors.

| Role | RTLS | EMR | | Total |
|-------------------------------|------|--------|----------|-------|
| | | Tagged | Untagged | |
| Healthcare Workers | 157 | 27 | 110 | 137 |
| - Doctors | 8 | 2 | 39 | 41 |
| - Nurses | 149 | 25 | 19 | 44 |
| - Allied Health Professionals | 0 | 0 | 11 | 11 |
| - Ancillary Staff | 0 | 0 | 41 | 41 |
| Patients | 69 | 55 | 0 | 55 |
| Visitors | 0 | 0 | 96 | 96 |
| Total | 226 | 82 | 206 | 288 |

Table 2 Comparison of contact list between RTLS and EMR (Tagged) by role only, and by location/role. Table created by authors.

| Role | RTLS | EMR (Tagged) | RTLS (but not EMR) | Both RTLS & EMR | EMR (but not RTLS) | Total unique contacts | RTLS increase over EMR (%) |
|---------------------------------|------|--------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| Healthcare Workers | 157 | 27 | 136 | 21 | 6 | 163 | 503.7 |
| - Doctors | 8 | 2 | 7 | 1 | 1 | 9 | 350.0 |
| - Nurses | 149 | 25 | 129 | 20 | 5 | 154 | 516.0 |
| Patients | 69 | 55 | 42 | 27 | 28 | 97 | 76.4 |
| Total | 226 | 82 | 178 | 48 | 34 | 260 | 217.1 |
| ^a Detection rate (%) | 86.9 | 31.5 | | | | 100 | 175.6 |
| Location / Role | RTLS | EMR (Tagged) | RTLS (but not EMR) | Both RTLS & EMR | EMR (but not RTLS) | Total unique contacts | RTLS increase over EMR (%) |
| Emergency Department | 114 | 47 | 90 | 24 | 23 | 137 | 191.5 |
| - Staff (doctors & nurses) | 94 | 10 | 87 | 7 | 3 | 97 | 870.0 |
| - Patients | 20 | 37 | 3 | 17 | 20 | 40 | 8.1 |
| Operating Theatre | 12 | 9 | 6 | 6 | 3 | 15 | 66.7 |
| - Staff (doctors & nurses) | 5 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 400.0 |
| - Patients | 7 | 8 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 10 | 25.0 |
| Ward (Inpatient) | 101 | 30 | 79 | 22 | 8 | 109 | 263.3 |
| - Staff (doctors & nurses) | 54 | 16 | 41 | 13 | 3 | 57 | 256.3 |
| - Patients | 47 | 14 | 38 | 9 | 5 | 52 | 271.4 |

^a Detection rate = [(Contacts detected by either methods)/(Total unique contacts)]*100%

Table 3 Comparison of time taken, manpower required, and manpower-hours required between RTLS and EMR. Table created by authors.

| RTLS | | | | EMR | | | |
|--|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|--|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Process | ^a Elapsed time (h) | ^b Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) | Process | ^a Elapsed time (h) | ^b Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) |
| Index case identified | 0 | 0 | 0.0 | Index case identified | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Activity map: Generate activity map via SmartSense | 0.1 | 1 | 0.1 | Activity map: SAP check (hospital registration system) | 0.1 | 1 | 0.1 |
| Activity map: Sort data and fill of MOH activity map template | 0.5 | 1 | 0.4 | Activity map: Contact OT (OT journey) | 0.5 | 1 | 0.4 |
| | | | | Activity map: SCM check (EMR) | 0.6 | 1 | 0.6 |
| | | | | Activity map: Contact ED (ED journey) | 0.8 | 1 | 0.3 |
| | | | | Activity map: Verify data and fill of MOH activity map template | 1.5 | 2 | 0.8 |
| | | | | Contact list: Contact MI (list of exposed patients) | 1.7 | 1 | 0.2 |
| | | | | Contact list: Email all stakeholders - ED, OT, Ward, AHP (13dept), Anc staff (5dept) | 1.9 | 1 | 1.1 |
| Contact list: Generate contact list via SmartSense | 0.6 | 1 | 0.1 | Contact list: Contact AVMS (list of exposed visitors) | 2.2 | 2 | 0.4 |
| | | | | Contact list: Sort MI data (list of exposed patients) | 3.9 | 1 | 0.2 |
| | | | | Contact list: Contact IHIS (author list of EMR) | 4 | 1 | 0.2 |
| | | | | Contact list: Sort IHIS data (author list of EMR) | 7.2 | 1 | 0.5 |
| Contact list: Review and sort contact tracing data, and fill MOH contact list template | 0.9 | 1 | 0.3 | Contact list: Compile data, call and clarify non-response / missing data, and fill MOH contact list template | 23.7 | 2 | 12.0 |
| | ^a 0.9 | ^b 1 | 0.9 | | ^a 23.7 | ^b 2 | 16.4 |
| Downstream Departments | | Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) | Downstream Departments | | Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) |
| None | | 0 | 0.0 | Emergency Department | | 1 | 1.3 |
| | | | | Operating Theatre | | 1 | 1.0 |
| | | | | Ward 19 | | 1 | 1.0 |
| | | | | Management Information - eHints | | 1 | 0.5 |
| | | | | AVMS dept | | 4 | 2.5 |
| | | | | Integrated Health Information Systems | | 2 | 1.5 |
| | | | | Audiology | | 1 | 0.2 |
| | | | | Clinical Measurement Centre | | 1 | 0.1 |
| | | | | Dietetics | | 1 | 0.1 |
| | | | | Medical Social Services | | 1 | 0.2 |

| | | | | | | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| | | | | Occupational Therapy | 1 | 0.3 | |
| | | | | Pathology | 1 | 0.1 | |
| | | | | Pharmacy | 2 | 0.7 | |
| | | | | Physiotherapy | 3 | 1.2 | |
| | | | | Podiatry | 2 | 0.5 | |
| | | | | Psychology | 1 | 0.3 | |
| | | | | Radiology | 1 | 0.5 | |
| | | | | Respiratory Therapy | 1 | 0.8 | |
| | | | | Speech Therapy | 1 | 0.2 | |
| | | | | Environmental Services | 6 | 1.8 | |
| | | | | Facilities Management & Engineering | 1 | 2.0 | |
| | | | | General Services | 2 | 1.2 | |
| | | | | Materials Management | 1 | 0.8 | |
| | | | | Security | 3 | 0.3 | |
| | | | 0 | | 40 | 18.9 | |
| | | | | | | | |
| | ^a Elapsed time (h) | ^b Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) | | ^a Elapsed time (h) | ^b Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) |
| Total | a 0.9 | b 1 | 0.9 | Total | a 23.7 | b 42 | 35.3 |
| Decrease over EMR (%) | 96.2 | 97.6 | 97.5 | | | | |

^a Elapsed time refers to the amount of time that has passed since the start of the exercise at the point of completion of a process, hence the total elapsed time is not a simple sum of the above cells.

^b Manpower required is the number of staff it took to perform the process. Many of the processes were performed by the same staff, and hence the total manpower required is not a simple sum of the above cells.

Table 4 Comparison of cost between RTLS and EMR. Table created by authors.

| Cost | RTLS | EMR |
|---|-----------|-----------|
| ^a Equipment cost (for first three years) | \$653,594 | \$0 |
| ^b Manpower cost (for each contact tracing episode) | \$62 | \$2,125 |
| Case scenarios | | |
| 36 contact tracing episodes in 3 years | \$655,826 | \$76,500 |
| 156 contact tracing episodes in 3 years | \$663,266 | \$331,500 |
| 317 contact tracing episodes in 3 years | \$673,248 | \$673,625 |

^a Equipment cost (RTLS) = cost of RTLS platform + cost of staff tags

^b Manpower cost = (manpower-hours of Staff 1 * norm cost of Staff 1) + (manpower-hours of Staff 2 * norm cost of Staff 2) + ... + (manpower-hours of Staff N * norm cost of Staff N)

FIGURES

Figure 1 Comparison of RTLS vs EMR (tagged) broken down into: (a) total - staff & patients, (b) total - staff (doctors & nurses), (c) total - patients, (d) ED - staff (doctors & nurses), (e) ED - patients, (f) OT - staff (doctors & nurses), (g) OT - patients, (h) Ward - staff (doctors & nurses), and (i) Ward - patients. Figure created by authors.

For peer review only

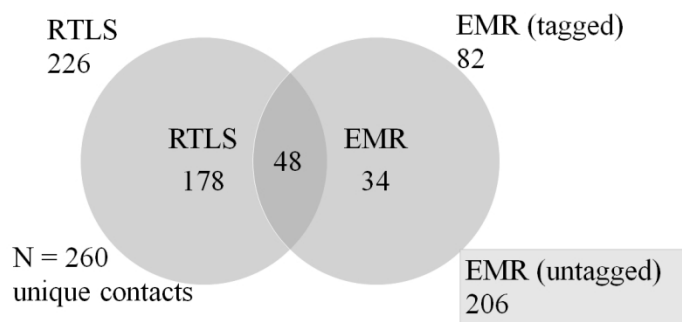
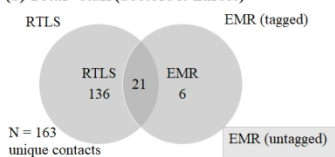
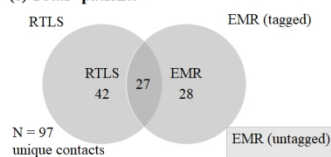
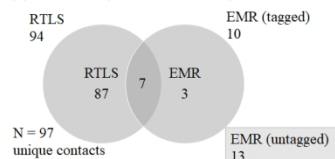
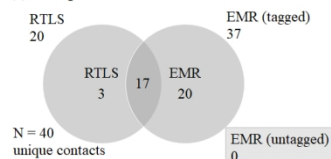
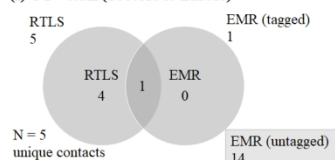
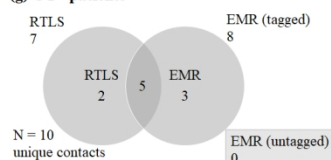
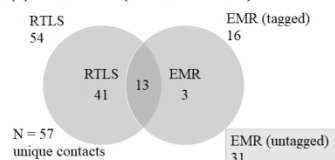
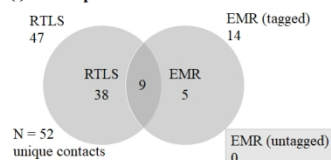
(a) Total - staff & patients**(b) Total - staff (doctors & nurses)****(c) Total - patients****(d) ED - staff (doctors & nurses)****(e) ED - patients****(f) OT - staff (doctors & nurses)****(g) OT - patients****(h) Ward - staff (doctors & nurses)****(i) Ward - patients**

Figure 1 Comparison of RTLS vs EMR (tagged) broken down into: (a) total - staff & patients, (b) total - staff (doctors & nurses), (c) total - patients, (d) ED - staff (doctors & nurses), (e) ED - patients, (f) OT - staff (doctors & nurses), (g) OT - patients, (h) Ward - staff (doctors & nurses), and (i) Ward - patients. Figure created by authors.

618x1060mm (47 x 47 DPI)

**Revised Standards for Quality Improvement Reporting Excellence (SQUIRE 2.0)
September 15, 2015**

| Text Section and Item Name | Section or Item Description | |
|---|---|-------|
| Notes to authors | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The SQUIRE guidelines provide a framework for reporting new knowledge about how to improve healthcare • The SQUIRE guidelines are intended for reports that describe system level work to improve the quality, safety, and value of healthcare, and used methods to establish that observed outcomes were due to the intervention(s). • A range of approaches exists for improving healthcare. SQUIRE may be adapted for reporting any of these. • Authors should consider every SQUIRE item, but it may be inappropriate or unnecessary to include every SQUIRE element in a particular manuscript. • The SQUIRE Glossary contains definitions of many of the key words in SQUIRE. • The Explanation and Elaboration document provides specific examples of well-written SQUIRE items, and an in-depth explanation of each item. • Please cite SQUIRE when it is used to write a manuscript. | |
| Title and Abstract | | Page |
| 1. Title | Indicate that the manuscript concerns an initiative to improve healthcare (broadly defined to include the quality, safety, effectiveness, patient-centeredness, timeliness, cost, efficiency, and equity of healthcare) | 1 |
| 2. Abstract | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Provide adequate information to aid in searching and indexing b. Summarize all key information from various sections of the text using the abstract format of the intended publication or a structured summary such as: background, local problem, methods, interventions, results, conclusions | 3 - 4 |
| Introduction | <i>Why did you start?</i> | |
| 3. Problem Description | Nature and significance of the local problem | 5 |
| 4. Available knowledge | Summary of what is currently known about the problem , including relevant previous studies | 6 - 7 |

| | | | |
|--|---|--|---------|
| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | 5. Rationale | Informal or formal frameworks, models, concepts, and/or theories used to explain the problem , any reasons or assumptions that were used to develop the intervention(s) , and reasons why the intervention(s) was expected to work | 7 |
| 8 9 | 6. Specific aims | Purpose of the project and of this report | 7 |
| 10 11 | Methods | <i>What did you do?</i> | |
| 12 13 14 | 7. Context | Contextual elements considered important at the outset of introducing the intervention(s) | 8 |
| 15 16 17 | 8. Intervention(s) | a. Description of the intervention(s) in sufficient detail that others could reproduce it b. Specifics of the team involved in the work | 9 - 10 |
| 18 19 20 21 | 9. Study of the Intervention(s) | a. Approach chosen for assessing the impact of the intervention(s) b. Approach used to establish whether the observed outcomes were due to the intervention(s) | 9 - 10 |
| 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 | 10. Measures | a. Measures chosen for studying processes and outcomes of the intervention(s) , including rationale for choosing them, their operational definitions, and their validity and reliability b. Description of the approach to the ongoing assessment of contextual elements that contributed to the success, failure, efficiency, and cost c. Methods employed for assessing completeness and accuracy of data | 9 |
| 29 30 31 32 33 | 11. Analysis | a. Qualitative and quantitative methods used to draw inferences from the data b. Methods for understanding variation within the data, including the effects of time as a variable | 10 |
| 34 35 36 37 | 12. Ethical Considerations | Ethical aspects of implementing and studying the intervention(s) and how they were addressed, including, but not limited to, formal ethics review and potential conflict(s) of interest | 10 |
| 38 39 | Results | <i>What did you find?</i> | |
| 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 | 13. Results | a. Initial steps of the intervention(s) and their evolution over time (e.g., time-line diagram, flow chart, or table), including modifications made to the intervention during the project b. Details of the process measures and outcome c. Contextual elements that interacted with the intervention(s) d. Observed associations between outcomes, interventions, and relevant contextual elements e. Unintended consequences such as unexpected benefits, problems, failures, or costs associated with the intervention(s) . f. Details about missing data | 11 - 12 |
| 51 52 | Discussion | <i>What does it mean?</i> | |
| 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 | 14. Summary | a. Key findings, including relevance to the rationale and specific aims b. Particular strengths of the project | 13 |

| | | |
|---------------------------|---|---------|
| 15. Interpretation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Nature of the association between the intervention(s) and the outcomes b. Comparison of results with findings from other publications c. Impact of the project on people and systems d. Reasons for any differences between observed and anticipated outcomes, including the influence of context e. Costs and strategic trade-offs, including opportunity costs | 13 - 15 |
| 16. Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Limits to the generalizability of the work b. Factors that might have limited internal validity such as confounding, bias, or imprecision in the design, methods, measurement, or analysis c. Efforts made to minimize and adjust for limitations | 15 - 16 |
| 17. Conclusions | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Usefulness of the work b. Sustainability c. Potential for spread to other contexts d. Implications for practice and for further study in the field e. Suggested next steps | 16 - 17 |
| Other information | | |
| 18. Funding | Sources of funding that supported this work. Role, if any, of the funding organization in the design, implementation, interpretation, and reporting | 17 |

Table 2. Glossary of key terms used in SQUIRE 2.0. This Glossary provides the intended meaning of selected words and phrases as they are used in the SQUIRE 2.0 Guidelines. They may, and often do, have different meanings in other disciplines, situations, and settings.

Assumptions

Reasons for choosing the activities and tools used to bring about changes in healthcare services at the [system](#) level.

Context

Physical and sociocultural makeup of the local environment (for example, external environmental factors, organizational dynamics, collaboration, resources, leadership, and the like), and the interpretation of these factors (“sense-making”) by the healthcare delivery professionals, patients, and caregivers that can affect the effectiveness and [generalizability](#) of [intervention\(s\)](#).

Ethical aspects

The value of [system](#)-level [initiatives](#) relative to their potential for harm, burden, and cost to the stakeholders. Potential harms particularly associated with efforts to improve the quality, safety, and value of healthcare services include [opportunity costs](#), invasion of privacy, and staff distress resulting from disclosure of poor performance.

Generalizability

The likelihood that the [intervention\(s\)](#) in a particular report would produce similar results in other settings, situations, or environments (also referred to as external validity).

Healthcare improvement

Any systematic effort intended to raise the quality, safety, and value of healthcare services, usually done at the [system](#) level. We encourage the use of this phrase rather than “quality improvement,” which often refers to more narrowly defined approaches.

Inferences

The meaning of findings or data, as interpreted by the stakeholders in healthcare services – improvers, healthcare delivery professionals, and/or patients and families

Initiative

A broad term that can refer to organization-wide programs, narrowly focused projects, or the details of specific interventions (for example, planning, execution, and assessment)

Internal validity

Demonstrable, credible evidence for efficacy (meaningful impact or change) resulting from introduction of a specific intervention into a particular healthcare [system](#).

Intervention(s)

The specific activities and tools introduced into a healthcare [system](#) with the aim of changing its performance for the better. Complete description of an intervention includes its inputs, internal activities, and outputs (in the form of a logic model, for example), and the mechanism(s) by which these components are expected to produce changes in a [system's](#) performance.

Opportunity costs

1
2
3 Loss of the ability to perform other tasks or meet other responsibilities resulting from the diversion
4 of resources needed to introduce, test, or sustain a particular [improvement](#) initiative
5
6

7 **Problem**

8 Meaningful disruption, failure, inadequacy, distress, confusion or other dysfunction in a healthcare
9 service delivery [system](#) that adversely affects patients, staff, or the [system](#) as a whole, or that
10 prevents care from reaching its full potential
11

12 **Process**

13 The routines and other activities through which healthcare services are delivered
14
15

16 **Rationale**

17 Explanation of why particular [intervention\(s\)](#) were chosen and why it was expected to work, be
18 sustainable, and be replicable elsewhere.
19

20 **Systems**

21 The interrelated structures, people, [processes](#), and activities that together create healthcare services
22 for and with individual patients and populations. For example, systems exist from the personal self-
23 care system of a patient, to the individual provider-patient dyad system, to the microsystem, to the
24 macrosystem, and all the way to the market/social/insurance system. These levels are nested within
25 each other.
26
27

28 **Theory or theories**

29 Any “reason-giving” account that asserts causal relationships between variables (causal theory) or
30 that makes sense of an otherwise obscure [process](#) or situation (explanatory theory). Theories come
31 in many forms, and serve different purposes in the phases of [improvement](#) work. It is important to
32 be explicit and well-founded about any informal and formal theory (or theories) that are used.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

BMJ Open

Contact Tracing using Real-Time Location System (RTLS): A Simulation Exercise in a Tertiary Hospital in Singapore

| | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Journal: | <i>BMJ Open</i> |
| Manuscript ID | bmjopen-2021-057522.R2 |
| Article Type: | Original research |
| Date Submitted by the Author: | 20-Aug-2022 |
| Complete List of Authors: | Ng, Guan Yee; Duke-NUS Medical School, Ong, Biauwei Chi; Sengkang General Hospital |
| Primary Subject Heading: | Epidemiology |
| Secondary Subject Heading: | Health informatics, Health policy, Health economics, Health services research, Infectious diseases |
| Keywords: | Health policy < HEALTH SERVICES ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT, Health informatics < BIOTECHNOLOGY & BIOINFORMATICS, EPIDEMIOLOGY, Infection control < INFECTIOUS DISEASES, COVID-19, HEALTH ECONOMICS |
| | |

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts



I, the Submitting Author has the right to grant and does grant on behalf of all authors of the Work (as defined in the below author licence), an exclusive licence and/or a non-exclusive licence for contributions from authors who are: i) UK Crown employees; ii) where BMJ has agreed a CC-BY licence shall apply, and/or iii) in accordance with the terms applicable for US Federal Government officers or employees acting as part of their official duties; on a worldwide, perpetual, irrevocable, royalty-free basis to BMJ Publishing Group Ltd ("BMJ") its licensees and where the relevant Journal is co-owned by BMJ to the co-owners of the Journal, to publish the Work in this journal and any other BMJ products and to exploit all rights, as set out in our [licence](#).

The Submitting Author accepts and understands that any supply made under these terms is made by BMJ to the Submitting Author unless you are acting as an employee on behalf of your employer or a postgraduate student of an affiliated institution which is paying any applicable article publishing charge ("APC") for Open Access articles. Where the Submitting Author wishes to make the Work available on an Open Access basis (and intends to pay the relevant APC), the terms of reuse of such Open Access shall be governed by a Creative Commons licence – details of these licences and which [Creative Commons](#) licence will apply to this Work are set out in our licence referred to above.

Other than as permitted in any relevant BMJ Author's Self Archiving Policies, I confirm this Work has not been accepted for publication elsewhere, is not being considered for publication elsewhere and does not duplicate material already published. I confirm all authors consent to publication of this Work and authorise the granting of this licence.

1
2
3 Contact Tracing using Real-Time Location System (RTLS): A Simulation Exercise in a
4
5 Tertiary Hospital in Singapore
6
7

8 Corresponding Author

9 Full Name: NG, Guan Yee
10 Postal Address: 8 College Road Singapore 169857
11 Email: davegyng@gmail.com
12 Telephone: +65-81818614
13 Fax: Nil
14
15

16
17 Co-authors

18 Full Name: ONG, Biauwei Chi
19 Postal Address: Sengkang General Hospital, 110 Sengkang East Way, Singapore 544886
20 Email: ong.biauwei.chi@singhealth.com.sg
21 Telephone: +65-69305000
22 Fax: Nil
23
24

25
26 Keywords/phrases: contact tracing; real-time location system (RTLS); communicable disease
27
28 control; infection control; epidemiology; health policy; health informatics; information
29
30 technology
31
32

33 Word count: 3298
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

ABSTRACT

Objective: We aim to assess the effectiveness of contact tracing using real-time location system (RTLS) compared to the conventional (electronic medical records (EMR)) method via an emerging infectious disease (EID) outbreak simulation exercise. The aims of the study are: (1) to compare the time taken to perform contact tracing and list of contacts identified for RTLS vs EMR; (2) to compare manpower and manpower-hours required to perform contact tracing for RTLS vs EMR; (3) to extrapolate the cost incurred by RTLS vs EMR.

Design: Prospective case study.

Setting: Sengkang General Hospital (SKH), a 1000-bedded public tertiary hospital in Singapore.

Participants: 1000 out of 4000 staff wore staff tags in this study.

Interventions: A simulation exercise to determine and compare the list of contacts, time taken, manpower, and manpower-hours required between RTLS and conventional methods of contact tracing. Cost of both methods were compared.

Primary and Secondary Outcome Measures: List of contacts, time taken, manpower required, manpower-hours required, and cost incurred.

Results: RTLS identified almost three times the number of contacts compared to conventional methods, while achieving that with a 96.2% reduction in time taken, 97.6% reduction in manpower required, and 97.5% reduction in manpower-hours required. However, RTLS incurred significant equipment cost and might take many contact tracing episodes before providing economic benefit.

Conclusion: Albeit costly, RTLS is effective in contact tracing. RLTS might not be ready at present time to replace conventional methods, but with further refinement, RTLS has the

1
2
3 potential to be the gold standard in contact tracing methods of the future, particularly in the
4
5 current pandemic.
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For peer review only

ARTICLE SUMMARY

Strengths and limitations of this study

Strengths

1. Detailed quantification of contacts identified, and time elapsed/taken by RTLS and EMR
2. Detailed quantification of manpower, manpower hours, manpower cost, equipment cost by both methods

Limitations

1. Lack of validation study/gold standard in identifying true contacts, hence unable to perform statistical analysis nor calculate sensitivity and specificity
2. Study based on one simulation exercise in one institution
3. Impact & cost savings of halting disease transmission earlier not studied

INTRODUCTION

Densely populated metropolitan cities like Singapore receiving high volumes of international visitors are highly susceptible to emerging infectious disease (EID) outbreaks as evident by the recent coronavirus disease of 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic. As such, Singapore needs to continually strengthen its defences against EID outbreaks[1]. Founded on the experiences of previous outbreaks, Singapore took a “whole-of-government approach” towards implementing pandemic control measures[2]. To test these measures, the Ministry of Health (MOH) requires all public hospitals to participate every two years in a national simulation exercise[1,3], and be validated in the management of an infectious disease case. A key assessment criterion of the exercise is contact tracing.

Contact tracing, a systematic process of identification, assessment, and management of people exposed to the disease, is a critical element in containing any outbreak[4]. Current methods of contact tracing involve retrospective review of multiple databases, such as electronic medical records (EMR) entered by healthcare workers, hospital registration systems capturing patient journeys in the hospital, and visitor management systems capturing registered visitors to the hospital. After a preliminary list of potential exposures, also known as contacts, is compiled, individual interviews are carried out to identify any other contacts that were not included by the above systems. These conventional methods are time consuming, heavily manpower dependent, and fail to capture a significant number of contacts[5]. This is because the databases used were not primarily designed to identify contacts between individuals[6] and do not provide enough detail to accurately derive a list of contacts. Failure to trace contacts in a timely and accurate manner can lead to continued transmission of diseases, preventing effective control of EID outbreaks.

Radio frequency identification (RFID) technology, which involves fixed readers receiving signals from small ID tags[7], is widely used in many industries such as commerce and logistics.

1
2
3 Tagged items can be identified, tracked and managed in real-time through a centralised
4 database and a compatible device[7]. RFID technology is increasingly being adopted for many
5 uses in healthcare settings such as asset and equipment tracking, staff and patient identification,
6 sensing, intervention, and alerts and triggers[8]. These applications provide improvement in
7 patient safety, reduction in medical errors, time and cost savings and improved medical
8 processes[8]. Another potential application of the RFID technology is a real-time location
9 system (RTLS) allowing tracking of interactions among individuals[5]. The use of RTLS in
10 the inference of contact history between healthcare staff and patients has been studied and
11 validated. The National Centre for Infectious Disease (NCID) in Singapore found that RTLS
12 had a sensitivity of 72.2% and a specificity of 87.7%[9]. An intensive care unit in Taiwan found
13 that RTLS had a sensitivity of 81.4%, specificity of 78.8%, and accuracy of 80.7%[6]. An
14 emergency department in the United States found that RTLS doubled the number of contacts
15 identified compared with EMR review[5].

16
17 To date, few studies have evaluated the manpower and economic impact of contact tracing
18 using RTLS compared to conventional methods. RTLS has been found to be an accurate and
19 effective way to perform contact tracing. However, little is known as to whether the accuracy
20 and efficacy of RTLS provides any manpower and monetary cost savings.

21
22 In this study, we aim to assess the effectiveness of contact tracing using RTLS compared to the
23 conventional (EMR) method via an EID outbreak simulation exercise in Sengkang General
24 Hospital, Singapore. The aims of the study are:

- 25 1. To compare the time taken to perform contact tracing and list of contacts identified for
26 RTLS vs EMR.
- 27 2. To compare manpower and manpower-hours required to perform contact tracing for
28 RTLS vs EMR.

- 1
- 2
- 3 3. To extrapolate the cost incurred by RTLS vs EMR.
- 4
- 5

6 We hypothesised that contact tracing using RTLS would allow us to identify contacts in a
7
8 timelier and more accurate fashion. We also hypothesized that contact tracing using RTLS
9
10 would confer benefits in manpower and manpower-hours reduction, translating to cost savings
11
12 for the hospital.
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For peer review only

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Context

This study was held in Sengkang General Hospital (SKH), a 1000-bedded public acute hospital in Singapore with a staff of 4000. This study was conducted in Feb 2019, at a point when SKH was receiving 3149 admissions and 8172 emergency department visits per month. The study was conducted during the biennial national simulation exercise on EID outbreaks. In this exercise, a surgical patient with a three-day inpatient stay was selected as the simulated Middle East Respiratory Coronavirus (MERS-CoV) index case. This patient was admitted through the emergency department, underwent surgery in the operating theatre on Day 1, and spent three days in an inpatient ward.

Equipment

The RTLS used for contact tracing in our hospital was based on SmartSense Solutions infrastructure and SmartSense RTLS platform provided by Cadi Scientific[10]. Staff tags and patient tags were deployed. The staff tags were additionally equipped with an antenna that captured tag interactions within a two-metre radius of itself. Tag signals were picked up by the campus-wide network of in-ceiling wireless receivers and exciters. Our RTLS was tested and operational prior to the data collection. In this study, 1000 out of 4000 staff wore staff tags. The selected 1000 staff included doctors and nurses working in high risks areas such as the Emergency Department and the inpatient wards. The rest of the staff, including the remaining doctors, nurses, allied health professionals, ancillary staff, and students were not equipped with staff tags. All patients wore patient tags from registration to discharge. Our RTLS platform captured two forms of contact: (1) tag-to-tag based, and (2) location based. A tag-to-tag based contact was registered when any tags (staff or patient) were detected within a two-metre radius of a staff tag for at least a one-minute duration. A location based contact was registered when

1
2
3 any tags were detected within the same location for at least a one-minute duration. Location of
4
5 tags were determined via WiFi triangulation and chokepoint tracking[7,11].
6
7

8 **Measures**

9
10
11 A prospective case study was conducted during the biennial national simulation exercise in
12
13 Sengkang General Hospital on 28 Feb 2019 to determine the list of contacts, time taken,
14
15 manpower required, and manpower-hours required to perform contact tracing via both RTLS
16
17 and the conventional method of databases review (EMR). The date of the exercise was
18
19 unannounced, with the contact tracing team activated only at the point of the exercise itself.
20
21 All staff involved in contact tracing were briefed prior to the exercise to record the amount of
22
23 time spent on performing the work of contact tracing.
24
25
26
27

28 **Intervention**

29
30
31 During the simulation exercise, two concurrent contact tracing team performed contact tracing,
32
33 one via conventional method (EMR), and the other via RTLS. The hospital contact tracing
34
35 team, which comprised nurse leadership in coordination with hospital infection control,
36
37 performed contact tracing via conventional methods as per existing hospital contact tracing
38
39 protocol. Firstly, an activity map of the index case, comprising the journey within the hospital,
40
41 was derived after reviewing the EMR. Subsequently, a list of contacts comprising healthcare
42
43 workers, other patients, and hospital visitors, was compiled via various databases. The EMR
44
45 identified any healthcare workers who documented their interactions with the patient, the
46
47 hospital registration system identified other patients who were in the same location as the index
48
49 case, and the visitor management system identified visitors who registered to visit the location
50
51 of the index case.
52
53
54
55

56
57 Concurrently, the other team generated the activity map and the list of contacts using the RTLS
58
59 platform. The activity map showed the entire journey within the hospital, depicting each
60

1
2
3 location and the duration the index case visited. The list of contacts was then derived for each
4
5 of these locations, depicting the time and duration of each staff and patient the index case came
6
7 in contact with.
8
9

10 **Analysis**

11
12
13 Between the two methods used for contact tracing, we compared the time taken, manpower
14
15 required, manpower-hours required, and the list of contacts identified. Between the two contact
16
17 lists, we compared the number of contacts, and the roles of these contacts (doctors, nurses,
18
19 allied health workers, ancillary staff, patients, or visitors). As a significant proportion of the
20
21 existing staff were not equipped with the staff tags at that point of the study, the comparison
22
23 between the lists was done primarily on staff equipped with the tags. Descriptive statistics were
24
25 used to compare the two methods.
26
27
28
29

30 **Patient and Public Involvement**

31
32
33 It was not appropriate or possible to involve patients or the public in the design, or conduct, or
34
35 reporting, or dissemination plans of our research.
36
37

38 **Ethical Considerations**

39
40
41 This study involves human participants, but the SingHealth Centralised Institutional Review
42
43 Board (CIRB) reviewed and exempted this study. CIRB Ref: 2018/3093
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

RESULTS

Simulation Exercise

The index case had a length of stay of three days and seven minutes and visited three main locations in the hospital: emergency department, operating theatre, and inpatient ward. RTLS identified 226 unique contacts, of which there were 157 staff and 69 patients. EMR identified 288 unique contacts, of which 82 (27 staff and 55 patients) were tagged (Table 1). For a better comparison of results, untagged staff were excluded, and subsequent comparisons were made using only tagged staff and patients.

Out of a total of 260 unique contacts, RTLS identified 226 while EMR (tagged) identified 82, with an overlap of 48 (Table 2 & Figure 1). RTLS yielded an additional 178 contacts over the 82 contacts EMR (tagged) yielded, giving an additional 217.1% unique contacts. Out of all the unique contacts, RTLS detected 86.9% while EMR detected 31.5%.

The comparison is further broken down into the three locations visited by the index case, namely the emergency department (ED), the operating theatre (OT) and the inpatient ward. RTLS yielded the highest increase of 263.3% in unique contacts in the ward, and lowest increase of 66.7% in the OT (Table 2 & Figure 1). Interestingly, RTLS yielded an increase of 870.0% unique staff contacts over EMR in the ED.

Comparing the time taken, manpower, and manpower-hours required, RTLS took 0.9h, 1 manpower, and 0.9 manpower-hours while EMR took 23.7h, 42 manpower, and 35.3 manpower-hours (Table 3). RTLS provided a 96.2% reduction in time taken, 97.6% reduction in manpower, and 97.5% reduction in manpower-hours required. By RTLS, only one staff was required to acquire the activity map and contact list. Conversely, by EMR, two staff from the infection control department were needed to lead the contact tracing efforts, involving 24 additional departments and 40 other staff in the process.

1
2
3 In terms of hospital costs, RTLS required an equipment cost (RTLS platform and staff tags) of
4 \$653,594 for the first three years to purchase and maintain the system, whereas EMR method
5
6 required no additional equipment cost. In terms of manpower costs computed over the
7
8 simulation exercise, RTLS method incurred a manpower cost of \$62 per contact tracing episode,
9
10 whereas EMR method incurred a manpower cost of \$2,125. We computed the expected
11
12 expenditure over three years to evaluate the long-term cost between RTLS and EMR, as the
13
14 staff tags had an estimated lifespan of three years. We found that at least 317 contact tracing
15
16 episodes were needed in the three-year period to obtain cost benefit for RTLS (Table 4).
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

DISCUSSION

Summary

Overall, RTLS identified almost three times the number of contacts compared to EMR, while achieving that with significantly less time, manpower, manpower-hours, and manpower cost.

One caveat to RTLS that may be prohibitive to its implementation is its high cost of entry as the equipment cost incurred can be significant and might take many contact tracing episodes to occur before providing economic benefit.

Interpretation

Similar to the study in Mayo Clinic [5], our study found that RTLS identified more contacts than EMR. Interestingly, RTLS identified an unproportionally large increase of unique contacts in the ED, which was later discovered to be false positive due to off-duty staff keeping their tags in ED lockers. The other RTLS contacts within the ED, the OT, and the ward were found to otherwise be largely accurate. They were identified by RTLS but not EMR for reasons such as doctors and nurses reviewing patients other than the index case, but physically within proximity to the index case. RTLS also detected nurses who chaperoned patients other than the index case to the OT and came in proximity to the index case. Other instances found patients who were physically within the ED as detected by RTLS but omitted by EMR as they were logged as already “discharged” within the EMR system. The value proposition of the RTLS is its capability in detecting such contacts which would otherwise be difficult to establish in the current systems.

The study in Taiwan and Singapore found RTLS to have good sensitivity, specificity and accuracy[6,9]. In our study, RTLS proved to be effective in the identification of contacts as it possibly has better sensitivity than EMR as shown by the identification of contacts that went undetected by EMR, and better specificity by showing some contacts detected by EMR to be

1
2
3 false positives due to the subdivision of locations in the RTLS platform. However, non-
4 compliance to tag charging and wearing proved to limit the effectiveness of RTLS. To
5
6 circumvent such limitations, more staff education and training can be implemented to
7
8 emphasize the appropriate usage of staff tags. Future tags designs could also be integrated into
9
10 existing staff cards, which are required for staff to gain access into hospital compound and
11
12 staff-restricted areas within the campus, thus resolving some of the compliance issues faced in
13
14
15
16
17 this study.

18
19
20 During the COVID pandemic, Singapore deployed a Bluetooth-based contact tracing app
21
22 TraceTogether to augment contact tracing capabilities[10]. A validation study comparing the
23
24 Bluetooth-based app against RTLS by the National Centre for Infectious Disease (NCID) in
25
26 Singapore found that RTLS has a sensitivity of 95.3% as compared to 6.5% for the Bluetooth-
27
28 based TraceTogether app[12], suggesting RTLS to be a more effective contact tracing tool in
29
30 the hospital setting. Despite the better sensitivity, there is still a role for Bluetooth-based
31
32 contact tracing apps in the community as RTLS would be challenging to implement.
33
34
35

36
37 Since the start of COVID-19 till now, much has evolved on the understanding of the disease
38
39 transmission. It is now known that COVID-19 spread primarily via oral and respiratory
40
41 aerosols, as compared to large respiratory droplets contaminated with the virus as initially
42
43 believed[13,14]. Although RTLS does not possess the fidelity to differentiate between low-risk
44
45 and high-risk clinical activities, we were able to define RTLS contacts based on the duration
46
47 of exposure (defined at 1min in our study). This can also be redefined based on the
48
49 transmissibility of the specific disease with each subsequent contact tracing episodes.
50
51
52

53
54 Aligned with the study in Mayo Clinic that estimated RTLS to take <5 minutes while EMR to
55
56 take 30-60 minutes[5], our study found RTLS provided significant time, manpower, and
57
58 manpower-hour savings. RTLS can consistently deliver similar results regardless of the index
59
60

1
2
3 case's length of stay, number of locations visited, number of departments involved (e.g. allied
4 health professionals' involvement), or day of contact tracing (weekday vs weekend). Although
5
6 not specifically measured, contact tracing was swiftly and effectively performed with our
7
8 RTLS system for 1401 COVID-10 patients in our institution within the first seven months of
9
10 the COVID-19 pandemic[10]. With EMR, anecdotal evidence revealed that longer lengths of
11
12 stay, larger numbers of locations visited, larger numbers of departments involved, as well as
13
14 contact tracing over a weekend can all result in significant delays in contact tracings. Moreover,
15
16 should all staff in the hospital be tagged, the objective data provided by RTLS would reduce
17
18 the subsequent work of verification and interview with each contact. Perhaps, the RTLS
19
20 platform can also be designed to coordinate with other hospital communication systems to
21
22 trigger automated text messages or emails to be sent to the affected individuals, further
23
24 reducing the downstream workload of the contact tracing team.
25
26
27
28
29

30
31 Our cost computations found that initial investment on the RTLS equipment can prove to be
32
33 costly and present a significant barrier to entry, requiring about two contact tracing episodes
34
35 per week for RTLS to warrant the investment, while an average of two contact tracing episodes
36
37 occurred monthly in our hospital (pre-COVID). It is found in other studies that RTLS can be
38
39 justified in large urban healthcare institutions with diverse patient populations, but not so in
40
41 small community healthcare institutions[5]. Further studies are required to evaluate and justify
42
43 the cost of RTLS in Singapore. Alternatively, future studies can look into the cost-benefit
44
45 analysis of tagging certain groups of the healthcare staff over the others, hence lowering the
46
47 equipment cost of RTLS.
48
49
50

51
52 Privacy concerns can pose significant barrier to adoption and compliance to RTLS tags[12,15].
53
54 For privacy reasons, the RTLS data collected is only within the hospital compound and is only
55
56 stored for a required period (currently set at 3 months). The data obtained retrieved solely for
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 the purposes of contact tracing and is only available to authorised personnel tasked to perform
4
5 contact tracing work in the hospital.
6
7

8 **Limitations**

9
10
11 The results of our study are based on one simulation exercise in our institution, hence limiting
12
13 generalisability. Factors such as index case length of stay, number of locations visited, number
14
15 of departments involved, or the day contact tracing was performed could all influence the
16
17 results and necessitate further investigations. Despite the absence of any prior notice, the
18
19 simulation exercise was held within a month of two prior rehearsals. As such, heightened sense
20
21 of awareness among hospital staff that an exercise was about to occur, coupled with a possible
22
23 Hawthorne effect of a simulation exercise, could have resulted in shorter than usual response
24
25 time. As contacts of the index case were not observed prior to contact tracing, there were no
26
27 definitive means of determining the true positives and negatives of both methods, though the
28
29 RTLS was tested and deemed operational prior to the data collection. Hence, we were not able
30
31 to perform any statistical analysis, nor calculate sensitivity or specificity for our data obtained.
32
33 Therefore, descriptive statistics were used to describe and compare the contacts derived by
34
35 RTLS and EMR. Also, only 1000 permanent staff deemed working in high-risk areas were
36
37 tagged. However, our EMR contacts revealed significant untagged populations such as junior
38
39 doctors on six-month rotations, allied health professions, and ancillary staff providing meals,
40
41 cleaning, and porter services. These groups of people were under-represented in this study and
42
43 their inclusion may result in different contact activities.
44
45
46
47
48
49

50
51 Early recognition and mitigation of an EID is paramount in impeding the multiplicative effect
52
53 of any outbreak, potentially limiting its transmission towards a widespread epidemic. Other
54
55 studies showed contact tracing to be critical in halting disease transmission[16], and further
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 studies possibly with computational models can more accurately show the clinical benefits
4
5 conferred by performing contact tracing with RTLS.
6
7

8 Current cost computations consist of only equipment and manpower costs, without
9
10 considerations on the economic impact of reducing disease transmission. Future studies taking
11
12 into account the economic impact of reducing disease transmission, particularly in COVID-19,
13
14 might show RTLS to confer greater economic benefits than presented in this study.
15
16

17 **Conclusion**

18
19
20 Compared to EMR, we found that RTLS identified contacts in a timelier and more accurate
21
22 fashion, required fewer manpower and manpower-hours, and has the potential to limit disease
23
24 transmission. Despite the advantages, high equipment cost is incurred with RTLS and might
25
26 present significant barrier to adoption. RLTS might be at a nascent stage and not be ready to
27
28 completely replace conventional methods in contact tracing. However, with subsequent cycles
29
30 of plan-do-study-act (PDSA)[17] and further studies taking into account the economic impact
31
32 of reducing disease transmission, RTLS has the potential to be the gold standard in contact
33
34 tracing methods of the future.
35
36
37
38

39
40 This study explicitly examines the time, manpower, manpower-hours, reduction in disease
41
42 transmission, and cost of performing contact tracing between RTLS and other conventional
43
44 means. Our findings hold implications for hospital administrators and healthcare regulators,
45
46 especially within the country, to relook at how existing standards of contact tracing can be
47
48 improved.
49
50

51
52 * This article was written using Standards for QQuality Improvement Reporting Excellence
53
54 (SQUIRE) guidelines[18,19].
55
56
57
58
59
60

DECLARATION

Contributorship Statement

Submitting & Corresponding Author: NG, Guan Yee

- Substantial contributions to the conception or design of the work; or the acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data for the work; AND
- Drafting the work or revising it critically for important intellectual content; AND
- Final approval of the version to be published; AND
- Agreement to be accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved.

Principal Investigator & Co-author: ONG, Biauwei Chi

- Substantial contributions to the conception or design of the work; or the acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data for the work; AND
- Drafting the work or revising it critically for important intellectual content; AND
- Final approval of the version to be published; AND
- Agreement to be accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved.

Competing Interests

There are no competing interests for any authors.

Funding

This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial or not-for-profit sectors.

Data Sharing Statement

All data relevant to the study are included in the article.

Ethics Statement

This study involves human participants, but the SingHealth Centralised Institutional Review Board (CIRB) reviewed and exempted this study. CIRB Ref: 2018/3093

Acknowledgements

I would like to Dr Ng Tong Yong and Sister Sharon Wong from Department of Infection and Prevention Control, as well as Ms Lee Puay Chuan and Ms Ng Mei Jie from Department of Strategic Projects, from Sengkang General Hospital for their expertise and assistance throughout all aspects of our study.

1
2
3 **REFERENCES**
4

- 5 1 Lum LHW, Badaruddin H, Salmon S, *et al.* Pandemic preparedness: Nationally-led
6 simulation to test hospital systems. *Ann Acad Med Singapore* 2016.
7
8
9
10
11 2 Tay J, Ng YF, Cutter J, *et al.* Influenza a (H1N1-2009) pandemic in Singapore - public
12 health control measures implemented and lessons learnt. *Ann. Acad. Med. Singapore.*
13 2010.
14
15
16
17
18 3 Keck F. Avian preparedness: simulations of bird diseases and reverse scenarios of
19 extinction in Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Singapore. *J R Anthropol Inst* Published Online
20 First: 2018. doi:10.1111/1467-9655.12813
21
22
23
24
25
26 4 Saurabh S, Prateek S. Role of contact tracing in containing the 2014 Ebola outbreak: A
27 review. *Afr Health Sci* Published Online First: 2017. doi:10.4314/ahs.v17i1.28
28
29
30
31 5 Hellmich TR, Clements CM, El-Sherif N, *et al.* Contact tracing with a real-time location
32 system: A case study of increasing relative effectiveness in an emergency department.
33 *Am J Infect Control* Published Online First: 2017. doi:10.1016/j.ajic.2017.08.014
34
35
36
37
38 6 Chang YT, Syed-Abdul S, Tsai CY, *et al.* A novel method for inferring RFID tag reader
39 recordings into clinical events. *Int J Med Inform* Published Online First: 2011.
40 doi:10.1016/j.ijmedinf.2011.09.006
41
42
43
44
45
46 7 Kamel Boulos MN, Berry G. Real-time locating systems (RTLS) in healthcare: A
47 condensed primer. *Int. J. Health Geogr.* 2012. doi:10.1186/1476-072X-11-25
48
49
50
51 8 Yao W, Chu CH, Li Z. The adoption and implementation of RFID technologies in
52 healthcare: A literature review. In: *Journal of Medical Systems.* 2012.
53 doi:10.1007/s10916-011-9789-8
54
55
56
57
58
59 9 Ho HJ, Zhang ZX, Huang Z, *et al.* Use of a real-time locating system for contact tracing
60

- 1
2
3 of health care workers during the COVID-19 pandemic at an infectious disease center
4 in singapore: Validation study. *J Med Internet Res* 2020;**22**. doi:10.2196/19437
5
6
7
8
9 10 Lee C, Annathurai A, Pek J. Contact tracing of staff in the emergency department during
10 the COVID-19 pandemic. *Singapore Med J* 2021;:1–11. doi:10.11622/smedj.2021013
11
12
13 11 Stübig T, Zeckey C, Min W, *et al*. Effects of a WLAN-based real time location system
14 on outpatient contentment in a Level I trauma center. *Int J Med Inform* Published Online
15 First: 2014. doi:10.1016/j.ijmedinf.2013.10.001
16
17
18
19
20
21 22 12 Huang Z, Guo H, Lee YM, *et al*. Performance of digital contact tracing tools for COVID-
23 19 response in Singapore: Cross-sectional study. *JMIR mHealth uHealth* 2020;**8**.
24 doi:10.2196/23148
25
26
27
28
29 30 13 Klompas M, Baker MA, Rhee C. Coronavirus Disease 2019's Challenges to Infection
31 Control Dogma Regarding Respiratory Virus Transmission. *Clin Infect Dis* 2022;:2019–
32 21. doi:10.1093/cid/ciac204
33
34
35
36 37 14 Rahman HS, Aziz MS, Hussein RH, *et al*. The transmission modes and sources of
38 COVID-19: A systematic review. *Int J Surg Open* 2020;**26**:125–36.
39 doi:10.1016/j.ijso.2020.08.017
40
41
42
43
44 45 15 Tang G, Westover K, Jiang S. Contact Tracing in Healthcare Settings During the
46 COVID-19 Pandemic Using Bluetooth Low Energy and Artificial Intelligence—A
47 Viewpoint. *Front Artif Intell* 2021;**4**:2–4. doi:10.3389/frai.2021.666599
48
49
50
51 52 16 Greiner AL, Angelo KM, McCollum AM, *et al*. Addressing contact tracing challenges-
53 critical to halting Ebola virus disease transmission. *Int. J. Infect. Dis.* 2015.
54 doi:10.1016/j.ijid.2015.10.025
55
56
57
58
59 17 Leis JA, Shojania KG. A primer on PDSA: Executing Plan-do-study-act cycles in

1
2
3 practice, not just in name. *BMJ Qual. Saf.* 2017. doi:10.1136/bmjqs-2016-006245
4
5

- 6 18 Ogrinc G, Davies L, Goodman D, *et al.* Standards for QQuality Improvement Reporting
7
8 Excellence 2.0: revised publication guidelines from a detailed consensus process. *J Surg*
9
10
11 *Res* Published Online First: 2016. doi:10.1016/j.jss.2015.09.015
12
13
14 19 Goodman D, Ogrinc G, Davies L, *et al.* Explanation and elaboration of the SQUIRE
15
16 (Standards for Quality Improvement Reporting Excellence) Guidelines, V.2.0:
17
18 Examples of SQUIRE elements in the healthcare improvement literature. *BMJ Qual. Saf.*
19
20
21 2016. doi:10.1136/bmjqs-2015-004480
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

TABLES

Table 1 Comparison of contact list breakdown identified by real-time location system (RTLS) and electronic medical record (EMR). Table created by authors.

| Role | RTLS | EMR | | Total |
|-------------------------------|------|--------|----------|-------|
| | | Tagged | Untagged | |
| Healthcare Workers | 157 | 27 | 110 | 137 |
| - Doctors | 8 | 2 | 39 | 41 |
| - Nurses | 149 | 25 | 19 | 44 |
| - Allied Health Professionals | 0 | 0 | 11 | 11 |
| - Ancillary Staff | 0 | 0 | 41 | 41 |
| Patients | 69 | 55 | 0 | 55 |
| Visitors | 0 | 0 | 96 | 96 |
| Total | 226 | 82 | 206 | 288 |

Table 2 Comparison of contact list between RTLS and EMR (Tagged) by role only, and by location/role. Table created by authors.

| Role | RTLS | EMR (Tagged) | RTLS (but not EMR) | Both RTLS & EMR | EMR (but not RTLS) | Total unique contacts | RTLS increase over EMR (%) |
|---------------------------------|------|--------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| Healthcare Workers | 157 | 27 | 136 | 21 | 6 | 163 | 503.7 |
| - Doctors | 8 | 2 | 7 | 1 | 1 | 9 | 350.0 |
| - Nurses | 149 | 25 | 129 | 20 | 5 | 154 | 516.0 |
| Patients | 69 | 55 | 42 | 27 | 28 | 97 | 76.4 |
| Total | 226 | 82 | 178 | 48 | 34 | 260 | 217.1 |
| ^a Detection rate (%) | 86.9 | 31.5 | | | | 100 | 175.6 |
| Location / Role | RTLS | EMR (Tagged) | RTLS (but not EMR) | Both RTLS & EMR | EMR (but not RTLS) | Total unique contacts | RTLS increase over EMR (%) |
| Emergency Department | 114 | 47 | 90 | 24 | 23 | 137 | 191.5 |
| - Staff (doctors & nurses) | 94 | 10 | 87 | 7 | 3 | 97 | 870.0 |
| - Patients | 20 | 37 | 3 | 17 | 20 | 40 | 8.1 |
| Operating Theatre | 12 | 9 | 6 | 6 | 3 | 15 | 66.7 |
| - Staff (doctors & nurses) | 5 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 400.0 |
| - Patients | 7 | 8 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 10 | 25.0 |
| Ward (Inpatient) | 101 | 30 | 79 | 22 | 8 | 109 | 263.3 |
| - Staff (doctors & nurses) | 54 | 16 | 41 | 13 | 3 | 57 | 256.3 |
| - Patients | 47 | 14 | 38 | 9 | 5 | 52 | 271.4 |

^a Detection rate = [(Contacts detected by either methods)/(Total unique contacts)]*100%

Table 3 Comparison of time taken, manpower required, and manpower-hours required between RTLS and EMR. Table created by authors.

| RTLS | | | | EMR | | | |
|--|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|--|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Process | ^a Elapsed time (h) | ^b Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) | Process | ^a Elapsed time (h) | ^b Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) |
| Index case identified | 0 | 0 | 0.0 | Index case identified | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Activity map: Generate activity map via SmartSense | 0.1 | 1 | 0.1 | Activity map: SAP check (hospital registration system) | 0.1 | 1 | 0.1 |
| Activity map: Sort data and fill of MOH activity map template | 0.5 | 1 | 0.4 | Activity map: Contact OT (OT journey) | 0.5 | 1 | 0.4 |
| | | | | Activity map: SCM check (EMR) | 0.6 | 1 | 0.6 |
| | | | | Activity map: Contact ED (ED journey) | 0.8 | 1 | 0.3 |
| | | | | Activity map: Verify data and fill of MOH activity map template | 1.5 | 2 | 0.8 |
| | | | | Contact list: Contact MI (list of exposed patients) | 1.7 | 1 | 0.2 |
| | | | | Contact list: Email all stakeholders - ED, OT, Ward, AHP (13dept), Anc staff (5dept) | 1.9 | 1 | 1.1 |
| Contact list: Generate contact list via SmartSense | 0.6 | 1 | 0.1 | Contact list: Contact AVMS (list of exposed visitors) | 2.2 | 2 | 0.4 |
| | | | | Contact list: Sort MI data (list of exposed patients) | 3.9 | 1 | 0.2 |
| | | | | Contact list: Contact IHIS (author list of EMR) | 4 | 1 | 0.2 |
| | | | | Contact list: Sort IHIS data (author list of EMR) | 7.2 | 1 | 0.5 |
| Contact list: Review and sort contact tracing data, and fill MOH contact list template | 0.9 | 1 | 0.3 | Contact list: Compile data, call and clarify non-response / missing data, and fill MOH contact list template | 23.7 | 2 | 12.0 |
| | ^a 0.9 | ^b 1 | 0.9 | | ^a 23.7 | ^b 2 | 16.4 |
| Downstream Departments | | Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) | Downstream Departments | | Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) |
| None | | 0 | 0.0 | Emergency Department | | 1 | 1.3 |
| | | | | Operating Theatre | | 1 | 1.0 |
| | | | | Ward 19 | | 1 | 1.0 |
| | | | | Management Information - eHints | | 1 | 0.5 |
| | | | | AVMS dept | | 4 | 2.5 |
| | | | | Integrated Health Information Systems | | 2 | 1.5 |
| | | | | Audiology | | 1 | 0.2 |
| | | | | Clinical Measurement Centre | | 1 | 0.1 |
| | | | | Dietetics | | 1 | 0.1 |
| | | | | Medical Social Services | | 1 | 0.2 |

| | | | | | | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| | | | | Occupational Therapy | 1 | 0.3 | |
| | | | | Pathology | 1 | 0.1 | |
| | | | | Pharmacy | 2 | 0.7 | |
| | | | | Physiotherapy | 3 | 1.2 | |
| | | | | Podiatry | 2 | 0.5 | |
| | | | | Psychology | 1 | 0.3 | |
| | | | | Radiology | 1 | 0.5 | |
| | | | | Respiratory Therapy | 1 | 0.8 | |
| | | | | Speech Therapy | 1 | 0.2 | |
| | | | | Environmental Services | 6 | 1.8 | |
| | | | | Facilities Management & Engineering | 1 | 2.0 | |
| | | | | General Services | 2 | 1.2 | |
| | | | | Materials Management | 1 | 0.8 | |
| | | | | Security | 3 | 0.3 | |
| | | | 0 | | 40 | 18.9 | |
| | | | | | | | |
| | ^a Elapsed time (h) | ^b Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) | | ^a Elapsed time (h) | ^b Manpower required | Manpower-hours required (h) |
| Total | a 0.9 | b 1 | 0.9 | Total | a 23.7 | b 42 | 35.3 |
| Decrease over EMR (%) | 96.2 | 97.6 | 97.5 | | | | |

^a Elapsed time refers to the amount of time that has passed since the start of the exercise at the point of completion of a process, hence the total elapsed time is not a simple sum of the above cells.

^b Manpower required is the number of staff it took to perform the process. Many of the processes were performed by the same staff, and hence the total manpower required is not a simple sum of the above cells.

Table 4 Comparison of cost between RTLS and EMR. Table created by authors.

| Cost | RTLS | EMR |
|---|-----------|-----------|
| ^a Equipment cost (for first three years) | \$653,594 | \$0 |
| ^b Manpower cost (for each contact tracing episode) | \$62 | \$2,125 |
| Case scenarios | | |
| 36 contact tracing episodes in 3 years | \$655,826 | \$76,500 |
| 156 contact tracing episodes in 3 years | \$663,266 | \$331,500 |
| 317 contact tracing episodes in 3 years | \$673,248 | \$673,625 |

^a Equipment cost (RTLS) = cost of RTLS platform + cost of staff tags

^b Manpower cost = (manpower-hours of Staff 1 * norm cost of Staff 1) + (manpower-hours of Staff 2 * norm cost of Staff 2) + ... + (manpower-hours of Staff N * norm cost of Staff N)

FIGURES

Figure 1 Comparison of RTLS vs EMR (tagged) broken down into: (a) total - staff & patients, (b) total - staff (doctors & nurses), (c) total - patients, (d) ED - staff (doctors & nurses), (e) ED - patients, (f) OT - staff (doctors & nurses), (g) OT - patients, (h) Ward - staff (doctors & nurses), and (i) Ward - patients. Figure created by authors.

For peer review only

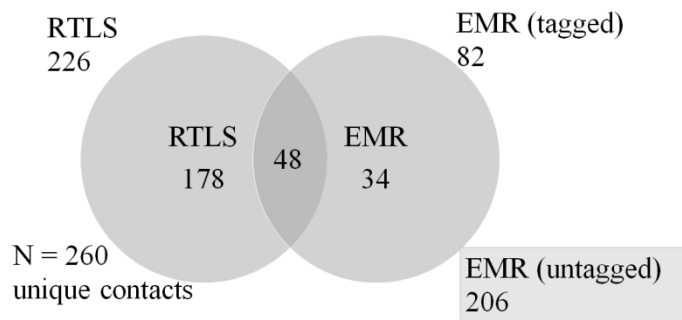
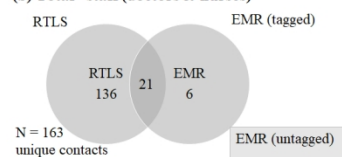
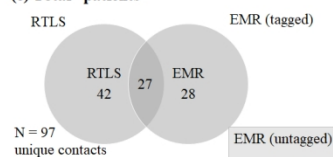
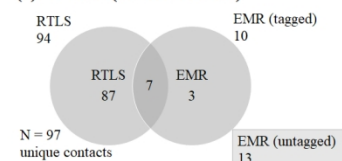
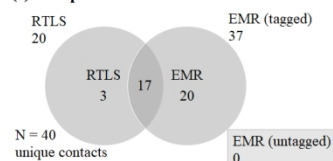
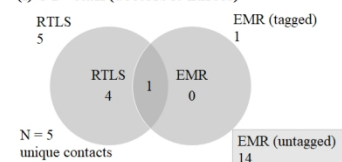
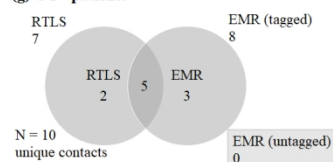
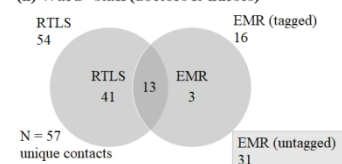
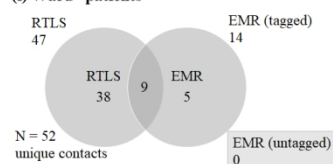
(a) Total - staff & patients**(b) Total - staff (doctors & nurses)****(c) Total - patients****(d) ED - staff (doctors & nurses)****(e) ED - patients****(f) OT - staff (doctors & nurses)****(g) OT - patients****(h) Ward - staff (doctors & nurses)****(i) Ward - patients**

Figure 1 Comparison of RTLS vs EMR (tagged) broken down into: (a) total - staff & patients, (b) total - staff (doctors & nurses), (c) total - patients, (d) ED - staff (doctors & nurses), (e) ED - patients, (f) OT - staff (doctors & nurses), (g) OT - patients, (h) Ward - staff (doctors & nurses), and (i) Ward - patients. Figure created by authors.

618x1060mm (47 x 47 DPI)

**Revised Standards for Quality Improvement Reporting Excellence (SQUIRE 2.0)
September 15, 2015**

| Text Section and Item Name | Section or Item Description | |
|---|---|-------|
| Notes to authors | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The SQUIRE guidelines provide a framework for reporting new knowledge about how to improve healthcare • The SQUIRE guidelines are intended for reports that describe system level work to improve the quality, safety, and value of healthcare, and used methods to establish that observed outcomes were due to the intervention(s). • A range of approaches exists for improving healthcare. SQUIRE may be adapted for reporting any of these. • Authors should consider every SQUIRE item, but it may be inappropriate or unnecessary to include every SQUIRE element in a particular manuscript. • The SQUIRE Glossary contains definitions of many of the key words in SQUIRE. • The Explanation and Elaboration document provides specific examples of well-written SQUIRE items, and an in-depth explanation of each item. • Please cite SQUIRE when it is used to write a manuscript. | |
| Title and Abstract | | Page |
| 1. Title | Indicate that the manuscript concerns an initiative to improve healthcare (broadly defined to include the quality, safety, effectiveness, patient-centeredness, timeliness, cost, efficiency, and equity of healthcare) | 1 |
| 2. Abstract | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Provide adequate information to aid in searching and indexing b. Summarize all key information from various sections of the text using the abstract format of the intended publication or a structured summary such as: background, local problem, methods, interventions, results, conclusions | 3 - 4 |
| Introduction | <i>Why did you start?</i> | |
| 3. Problem Description | Nature and significance of the local problem | 5 |
| 4. Available knowledge | Summary of what is currently known about the problem , including relevant previous studies | 6 - 7 |

| | | | |
|--|---|--|---------|
| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | 5. Rationale | Informal or formal frameworks, models, concepts, and/or theories used to explain the problem , any reasons or assumptions that were used to develop the intervention(s) , and reasons why the intervention(s) was expected to work | 7 |
| 8 9 | 6. Specific aims | Purpose of the project and of this report | 7 |
| 10 11 | Methods | <i>What did you do?</i> | |
| 12 13 14 | 7. Context | Contextual elements considered important at the outset of introducing the intervention(s) | 8 |
| 15 16 17 | 8. Intervention(s) | a. Description of the intervention(s) in sufficient detail that others could reproduce it b. Specifics of the team involved in the work | 9 - 10 |
| 18 19 20 21 | 9. Study of the Intervention(s) | a. Approach chosen for assessing the impact of the intervention(s) b. Approach used to establish whether the observed outcomes were due to the intervention(s) | 9 - 10 |
| 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 | 10. Measures | a. Measures chosen for studying processes and outcomes of the intervention(s) , including rationale for choosing them, their operational definitions, and their validity and reliability b. Description of the approach to the ongoing assessment of contextual elements that contributed to the success, failure, efficiency, and cost c. Methods employed for assessing completeness and accuracy of data | 9 |
| 29 30 31 32 33 | 11. Analysis | a. Qualitative and quantitative methods used to draw inferences from the data b. Methods for understanding variation within the data, including the effects of time as a variable | 10 |
| 34 35 36 37 | 12. Ethical Considerations | Ethical aspects of implementing and studying the intervention(s) and how they were addressed, including, but not limited to, formal ethics review and potential conflict(s) of interest | 10 |
| 38 39 | Results | <i>What did you find?</i> | |
| 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 | 13. Results | a. Initial steps of the intervention(s) and their evolution over time (e.g., time-line diagram, flow chart, or table), including modifications made to the intervention during the project b. Details of the process measures and outcome c. Contextual elements that interacted with the intervention(s) d. Observed associations between outcomes, interventions, and relevant contextual elements e. Unintended consequences such as unexpected benefits, problems, failures, or costs associated with the intervention(s) . f. Details about missing data | 11 - 12 |
| 51 52 | Discussion | <i>What does it mean?</i> | |
| 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 | 14. Summary | a. Key findings, including relevance to the rationale and specific aims b. Particular strengths of the project | 13 |

| | | |
|---------------------------|---|---------|
| 15. Interpretation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Nature of the association between the intervention(s) and the outcomes b. Comparison of results with findings from other publications c. Impact of the project on people and systems d. Reasons for any differences between observed and anticipated outcomes, including the influence of context e. Costs and strategic trade-offs, including opportunity costs | 13 - 15 |
| 16. Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Limits to the generalizability of the work b. Factors that might have limited internal validity such as confounding, bias, or imprecision in the design, methods, measurement, or analysis c. Efforts made to minimize and adjust for limitations | 15 - 16 |
| 17. Conclusions | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Usefulness of the work b. Sustainability c. Potential for spread to other contexts d. Implications for practice and for further study in the field e. Suggested next steps | 16 - 17 |
| Other information | | |
| 18. Funding | Sources of funding that supported this work. Role, if any, of the funding organization in the design, implementation, interpretation, and reporting | 17 |

Table 2. Glossary of key terms used in SQUIRE 2.0. This Glossary provides the intended meaning of selected words and phrases as they are used in the SQUIRE 2.0 Guidelines. They may, and often do, have different meanings in other disciplines, situations, and settings.

Assumptions

Reasons for choosing the activities and tools used to bring about changes in healthcare services at the [system](#) level.

Context

Physical and sociocultural makeup of the local environment (for example, external environmental factors, organizational dynamics, collaboration, resources, leadership, and the like), and the interpretation of these factors (“sense-making”) by the healthcare delivery professionals, patients, and caregivers that can affect the effectiveness and [generalizability](#) of [intervention\(s\)](#).

Ethical aspects

The value of [system](#)-level [initiatives](#) relative to their potential for harm, burden, and cost to the stakeholders. Potential harms particularly associated with efforts to improve the quality, safety, and value of healthcare services include [opportunity costs](#), invasion of privacy, and staff distress resulting from disclosure of poor performance.

Generalizability

The likelihood that the [intervention\(s\)](#) in a particular report would produce similar results in other settings, situations, or environments (also referred to as external validity).

Healthcare improvement

Any systematic effort intended to raise the quality, safety, and value of healthcare services, usually done at the [system](#) level. We encourage the use of this phrase rather than “quality improvement,” which often refers to more narrowly defined approaches.

Inferences

The meaning of findings or data, as interpreted by the stakeholders in healthcare services – improvers, healthcare delivery professionals, and/or patients and families

Initiative

A broad term that can refer to organization-wide programs, narrowly focused projects, or the details of specific interventions (for example, planning, execution, and assessment)

Internal validity

Demonstrable, credible evidence for efficacy (meaningful impact or change) resulting from introduction of a specific intervention into a particular healthcare [system](#).

Intervention(s)

The specific activities and tools introduced into a healthcare [system](#) with the aim of changing its performance for the better. Complete description of an intervention includes its inputs, internal activities, and outputs (in the form of a logic model, for example), and the mechanism(s) by which these components are expected to produce changes in a [system's](#) performance.

Opportunity costs

1
2
3 Loss of the ability to perform other tasks or meet other responsibilities resulting from the diversion
4 of resources needed to introduce, test, or sustain a particular [improvement](#) initiative
5
6

7 **Problem**

8 Meaningful disruption, failure, inadequacy, distress, confusion or other dysfunction in a healthcare
9 service delivery [system](#) that adversely affects patients, staff, or the [system](#) as a whole, or that
10 prevents care from reaching its full potential
11

12 **Process**

13 The routines and other activities through which healthcare services are delivered
14
15

16 **Rationale**

17 Explanation of why particular [intervention\(s\)](#) were chosen and why it was expected to work, be
18 sustainable, and be replicable elsewhere.
19

20 **Systems**

21 The interrelated structures, people, [processes](#), and activities that together create healthcare services
22 for and with individual patients and populations. For example, systems exist from the personal self-
23 care system of a patient, to the individual provider-patient dyad system, to the microsystem, to the
24 macrosystem, and all the way to the market/social/insurance system. These levels are nested within
25 each other.
26
27

28 **Theory or theories**

29 Any “reason-giving” account that asserts causal relationships between variables (causal theory) or
30 that makes sense of an otherwise obscure [process](#) or situation (explanatory theory). Theories come
31 in many forms, and serve different purposes in the phases of [improvement](#) work. It is important to
32 be explicit and well-founded about any informal and formal theory (or theories) that are used.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60