



ELSEVIER

www.intl.elsevierhealth.com/journals/jneo

What influence does experience play in heel prick blood sampling?

Ashley Jill Shepherd*, Ann Glenesk, Catherine Niven

Department of Nursing and Midwifery, University of Stirling, Stirling, Scotland FK9 4LA, UK

KEYWORDS

Heel prick blood sampling;
Guthrie test;
Midwifery;
Experience

Abstract The objective of this study was to investigate the role of 'experience' in performing the heel prick test. Babies ($n = 340$) were randomly allocated to be tested with either the Tenderfoot or Genie Lancet heel prick device. Testing was conducted by nine midwives ($n = 4$, experienced, more than 20 years qualified) who performed the heel prick procedure routinely and rotational midwives ($n = 5$, less experienced, 4–8 years qualified) who only performed the heel prick procedure when working in the community. Test technique outcomes investigated included (1) cleaning of heel, (2) babies position, (3) feeding at test, (4) use of soothing words. Other test outcomes (1) quality of the blood sample, (2) number of heel pricks required to take sample, (3) blood flow, (4) presence of bruising (5) time taken to collect sample, (6) time squeezing the heel and (7) time baby cried were also studied. The experienced midwives were more likely to hold the baby during testing but less likely to clean the infants heel prior to the incision. The experienced midwives collected a better quality sample, in less time and required fewer heel pricks than the less experienced midwifery group.

© 2006 Neonatal Nurses Association. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

The heel prick test is routinely taken within the first 10 days of life usually by the community midwife. Despite the relative ease of the heel prick procedure compared to other blood sampling methods, problems still exist including pain for the infant (Sheeran, 1997), anxiety for the parents (Meehan, 1998), complications arising from mild bruising and haematomas (Fleischman, 1992), calcaneal osteomyelitis (Abril et al.,

1999; Fleischman, 1992) and cost arising from the need to repeat the test (Grant and Muller, 1993).

The procedure used by midwives today is similar to that followed when the heel prick test was first introduced despite research findings which contradict many of the steps (Shepherd et al., 2004). New guidelines issued in April 2005 suggest that pre-warming of the foot is not essential and that the sample should be taken from a clean heel (UKNSPC, 2005).

A recent study has highlighted great variability in the heel prick technique among midwives

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +44 1786 466334; fax: +44 1786 466333.

E-mail address: ashley.shepherd@stir.ac.uk (A. Jill Shepherd).

(Cavanagh et al., 2005). One possible reason for this is that the procedure is predominantly taught by midwife mentors, who teach their own preferred method (Cavanagh et al., 2005). Due to this, the need for the heel prick test to be accredited and for midwives to obtain a certificate of competence has been voiced (Spiel, 1997).

Objective

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of two heel prick devices. An important aspect to the effectiveness of heel prick testing is the experience of the midwife conducting the test. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to determine the influence of midwives' experience of heel prick blood sampling on technique and a number of outcomes including the quality of the blood sample, the number of heel pricks required, blood flow, presence of bruising, time taken to collect the sample, time taken squeezing the heel and the time the baby cried. Preparation of the heel, position of baby during testing and the use of soothing words were also noted.

Participants and design

Approval was granted by the Ethics Committee of the Department of Nursing and Midwifery, University of Stirling, and the local NHS Research Ethics Committee. The sample was drawn from babies born between April and November 2003, in one NHS hospital in Scotland with approximately 1700 deliveries per year.

Healthy babies born at full-term (from 37 weeks gestation), including multiple births, were eligible for entry to the study. Parents were given an information sheet which detailed the study prior to discharge. Due to the introduction, 3 months into the study, of team midwifery in favour of community or hospital based midwives, the number of midwives conducting the heel prick test increased. This led to a reduction in the number of tests the researcher could observe. In order to maximize our sample number, the researcher followed which ever midwife had the largest caseload of tests that day. All parents approached ($n = 341$) had the opportunity to ask the researcher any questions before agreeing to participate and giving their signed consent ($n = 340$).

A randomisation series was computer-generated to allocate the babies into groups (Fig. 1). As the main purpose of the study was to evaluate

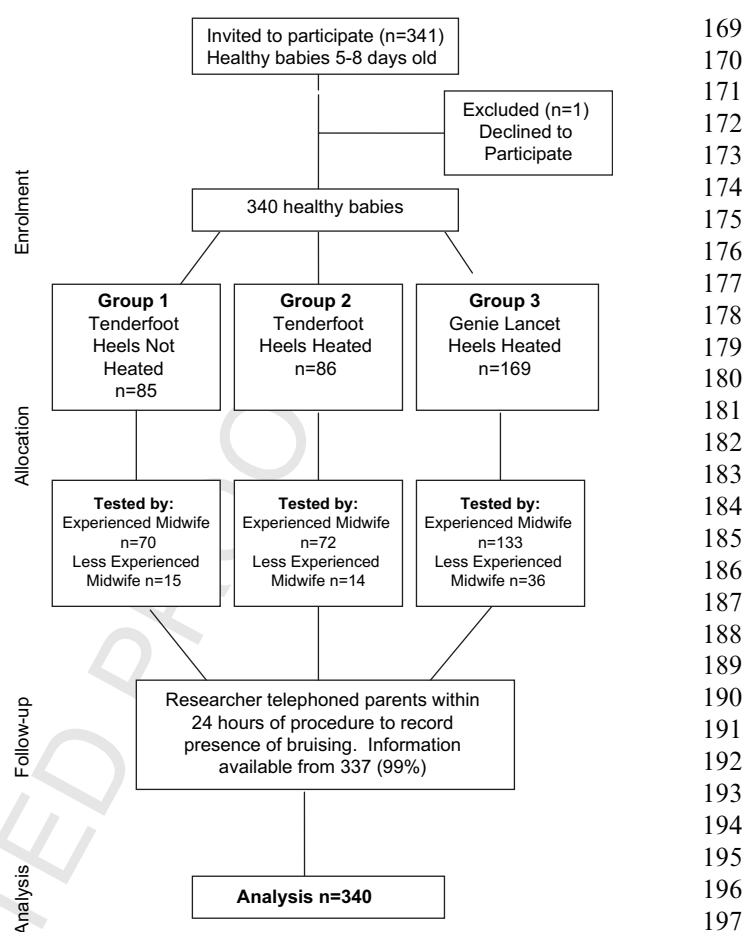


Figure 1 Study profile.

the effectiveness of two heel prick devices in relation to the quality of blood sample obtained, half of the babies were tested with the Genie Lancet device ($n = 169$) and half were tested with the Tenderfoot device ($n = 171$). To address the hypothesis that heel heating is not required when using the Tenderfoot device, half of these babies had their heels heated prior to the heel prick ($n = 86$) and the other half had no heel heating ($n = 85$). The randomisation scheme was independently prepared by the Computing Science and Mathematics Department of the University of Stirling and delivered to the research assistant in the form of sequentially numbered, sealed opaque envelopes which contained allocation to the appropriate group.

The nine midwives observed were categorised into two groups: community midwives ($n = 4$, experienced, more than 20 years qualified) who performed the heel prick procedure routinely and rotational midwives ($n = 5$, less experienced, 4–8 years qualified) who only performed the heel prick procedure when working in the community.

Main outcomes

All blood samples collected were graded (Table 1) in the Scottish Newborn Screening Laboratory, Yorkhill NHS Trust, Glasgow by one technician who was blind to the study group allocation and the midwife taking the sample. Time to collect the sample (from heel prick to midwife declaring the sample complete) and length of time squeezing (whether intermittent or constant) were measured using a stop-watch.

The number of heel pricks and any squeezing required were recorded at the time of the blood sampling. The pain expressed by the baby, was assessed by the duration of crying. The whole procedure was audio taped and the length of time the baby cried noted.

The researcher recorded if the midwife cleaned the baby's heel prior to the incision, and if so, what she used. She also noted if the midwife squeezed the heel and whether the blood flowed freely from the heel. The position of the baby during testing and whether the midwife encouraged feeding, skin-to-skin contact between mother and infant or used soothing words to the infant during testing was noted.

Data were collected by one research assistant who observed nine midwives undertake the test. Data were collected from 5 to 8 day old babies. Heel prick procedures for both devices were performed according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Once the parent consented to take part in the study, the baby was randomly allocated a group. Group two (Tenderfoot heated) and three (Genie Lancet) then had their heels heated for 10 min, using a baby gel heel warmer (WarmGel Infant Heel Warmer, Prism Technologies, Inc, San Antonio,

Texas) activated to a temperature of 40°C, folded around the foot and secured with tape. Audio taping started prior to the heel prick to measure the length of time the baby cried. The timing of the sample collection began immediately the heel prick was performed and ceased when the midwife declared the sample was sufficient for testing.

Parents were telephoned 1 day after testing and asked whether any bruising was present on the baby's heel at the puncture site. A more objective measure of bruising was precluded by time constraints.

Data analysis

SPSS (version 11) was used for all data analysis. Analysis was conducted using Chi-squared, Fisher's exact and Mann-Whitney *U* tests. Observed values for outcome variables are not completely independent as it was not possible to have a different midwife test each baby. As such, the data and observations collected from the nine individual midwives were assumed to be independent and for analysis, any potential clustering effect due to individual midwives was ignored.

Results

The researcher observed nine midwives ($n = 4$, experienced; $n = 5$ less experienced) undertake 340 heel prick procedures (Fig. 1).

Technique

Cleaning

Only 3.8% of babies ($n = 13$) had their heels cleaned (all with alcohol wipes) before the heel prick. A significant difference between experience groups and whether the heel was cleaned was noted ($p = 0.02$, Fisher's exact test). The experienced group cleaned 2.5% of babies heels ($n = 7$) compared with 9.2% of babies ($n = 6$) in the less experienced midwives group.

Baby's position

Chi-squared analysis indicated a significant difference between the baby's position and midwife experience group (Table 2). The experienced midwives were more likely to hold the baby during testing (62.5%) compared with asking the parent to hold the baby (14.2%) or for the baby to be tested in a pram/cot or on a mat (23.3%). The less experienced midwives were more likely to ask the parent to hold the baby (38.5%) than the experienced group.

Table 1 Classification of blood samples

| | |
|---------|---|
| Grade 1 | Insufficient blood to perform test, repeat sample required |
| Grade 2 | Sufficient to perform all current tests ^a |
| Grade 3 | Sufficient blood to perform all current tests, ^a plus sufficient blood to retest within SNSL, in case of technical fault or ambiguous result |
| Grade 4 | Sufficient blood to perform all tests, all retests, and sufficient blood to send to molecular laboratory for diagnosis of cystic fibrosis ^b |

^a Phenylketonuria (PKU), measured by phenylalanine; congenital hypothyroidism (CHT), measured by thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH); screening for cystic fibrosis (CF), measured by immuno reactive tripsinogen (IRT).

^b Samples with raised levels of IRT are forwarded for molecular analysis and diagnosis of CF.

Table 2 Midwifery group versus technique

| | Experienced midwives, n (%) | Less experienced midwives, n (%) |
|---|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <i>Baby's position</i> ($\chi^2 = 21.1$, $df = 2$, $p < 0.0001$) | | |
| Held by parent | 39 (14.2) | 25 (38.5) |
| Pram/cot/mat | 64 (23.3) | 14 (21.5) |
| Held by midwife | 172 (62.5) | 26 (40) |
| <i>Feeding at test</i> ($\chi^2 = 7.9$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.005$) | | |
| Yes | 29 (10.5) | 16 (24.6) |
| No | 246 (89.5) | 49 (75.4) |
| <i>Skin to skin contact</i> ($\chi^2 = 5.2$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.02$) | | |
| Yes | 25 (9.1) | 13 (20) |
| No | 250 (90.0) | 52 (80) |
| <i>Use of soothing words</i> ($\chi^2 = 2.6$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.1$) | | |
| Yes | 53 (19.3) | 19 (29.2) |
| No | 222 (80.7) | 46 (70.8) |
| <i>Position of heel in relation to body</i> ($\chi^2 = 37.7$, $df = 2$, $p < 0.0001$) | | |
| Higher than trunk | 39 (14.4) | 1 (1.5) |
| Lower than trunk | 15 (5.5) | 19 (29.2) |
| Level with trunk | 221 (80.4) | 45 (69.2) |
| <i>Heel squeezing</i> ($\chi^2 = 3.4$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.06$) | | |
| Yes | 160 (58.2) | 29 (44.6) |
| No | 115 (41.8) | 36 (55.4) |

A significant difference was also noted between the two midwifery groups and the position of the baby's heel (Table 2). Only 5.5% ($n = 15$) of the babies tested by the experienced midwives had their heels lower than their trunks compared with 29.2% ($n = 19$) of babies tested by the less experienced midwives.

Feeding at time of test

Chi-squared analysis indicated a significant difference between the two midwifery groups and whether the baby was feeding while being tested (Table 2). Babies in the less experienced midwifery group were more likely to be feeding (24.5%) than those tested by the more experienced midwifery group (10.5%). This is likely to relate to the use of mother–baby skin-to-skin contact which was evident in 20% of the babies in the less experienced midwife group compared with 9.1% of the more experienced midwife group. This difference was shown to be statistically significant (Table 2).

Use of soothing words

No statistically significant difference was noted between midwifery groups and their use of

soothing words. It is interesting to note however, that almost 30% of the less experienced midwives used soothing words compared with 19% of the more experienced midwives (Table 2).

Heel squeezing

No statistically significant difference was noted between midwifery groups and whether the baby's heel was squeezed (Table 2).

Other outcomes

There was no significant difference between the midwifery group and the device used. Therefore, all further analysis includes infants tested with both the Tenderfoot and Genie Lancet devices.

No tests had to be repeated (grade 1). Chi-squared analysis (combining quality of samples grades 2 and 3) indicated a significant difference in the quality of sample obtained and midwifery group with a higher percentage of samples from the experienced midwives in grade 4 (Table 3). Initial chi-squared analysis (combining all those who required more than one heel prick) indicated a significant difference in the number of heel pricks required at each test and the midwifery group with the less experienced midwives requiring significantly more heel pricks (Table 3).

No significant difference was noted between midwifery groups and whether the blood flowed freely from the incision or whether the midwife had to touch the heel with the card (Table 3).

Table 3 Midwifery group versus outcomes

| | Experienced midwives, n (%) | Less experienced midwives, n (%) |
|---|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <i>Quality of sample</i> ($\chi^2 = 5.3$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.02$) | | |
| Grade 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Grade 2 | 3 (1.1) | 2 (3.1) |
| Grade 3 | 25 (9.1) | 12 (18.5) |
| Grade 4 | 247 (89.8) | 51 (78.5) |
| <i>No heel pricks</i> ($\chi^2 = 31.9$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.0001$) | | |
| 1 | 244 (88.7) | 38 (58.5) |
| 2 | 30 (10.9) | 19 (29.2) |
| 3 | 0 | 5 (7.7) |
| 4 | 1 (0.4) | 2 (3.1) |
| 5 | 0 | 1 (1.5) |
| <i>Blood flow</i> ($\chi^2 = 0.2$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.6$) | | |
| Free flowing | 124 (45.1) | 32 (49.2) |
| Touching card | 151 (54.9) | 33 (50.8) |
| <i>Bruising</i> ($p = 0.78$ Fisher's exact test) | | |
| Yes | 17 (6.3) | 3 (4.6) |
| No | 255 (93.8) | 62 (95.4) |

The presence of any bruising post heel prick was noted by parents who were contacted by the researcher 24 h after the test. Data were available for 337 (99%) babies (three families were not contactable by telephone after the test).

The number of babies with bruising present is shown in Table 3. No statistically significant difference between midwifery groups and the presence of bruising was noted.

As the following data were not normally distributed and could not be transformed to normality, the Mann–Whitney *U* test was conducted.

The mean time to complete the sample was significantly different between midwifery groups with the less experienced midwives taking significantly longer. No difference was noted between midwifery groups and the length of time the heel was squeezed and the length of time the infant cried (Table 4).

Discussion

The main aim of this study was to compare the effectiveness of two heel prick devices. The results presented here explore an important aspect to this study, that being the role of 'experience' in performing such a skill.

Our study has indicated that the less experienced midwives followed the guidelines provided (NHS Scotland, 2003), more closely. For example, these midwives were more likely to ask the mother to hold the infant, or to encourage feeding or use of skin-to-skin contact during testing. However, the outcomes in relation to the quality of sample, number of heel pricks and time to complete the sample were all in favour of the more experienced midwifery group.

One obvious limitation to this study is the difference in the number of samples undertaken by the two midwifery groups. This is however due

to the fact that the less experienced midwives are undertaking fewer tests and in this particular study, we had no control over which midwife we were observing.

Step-by-step instructions (e.g. NHS Scotland, 2003) for heel prick sampling are provided on the dried blood spot cards. The empirical evidence behind each of these steps is questionable.

The majority of procedure instructions (Meehan, 1998; Meites, 1988; Moxley, 1989) suggest that the puncture site should be cleaned with an alcohol wipe and either dried with a sterile gauze or left to dry for 30 s. Others suggest that the risk of alcohol contamination in the blood sample should be entirely avoided and that the puncture site should only be cleaned with warm water (Baston, 2002). The United Kingdom Newborn Screening Programme Centre (2004) recommend that the sample be taken from a 'clean' heel and highlight that any sample contaminated with faeces will have unduly high levels of immuno-reactive tripsinogen (measured for cystic fibrosis).

In this study, only 3.8% of babies had their heels cleaned and all were cleaned with alcohol wipes even though NHS Scotland (2003) advises midwives should use soap and water. The reason for cleaning is presumably to prevent infection but infection rates from heel pricks have not been documented and therefore the need to clean the heel has not been fully justified.

A significant difference was noted between midwifery groups and the position of the baby during testing. NHS Scotland (2003) guidelines suggest the mother cuddles the baby on her knee during testing as this supposedly assists the midwife and comforts the baby. This technique was favoured by the less experienced midwives as it allowed them the freedom to organise the equipment necessary without the added pressure of holding the baby. This may also be the reason for more babies in the less experienced midwifery group (24.5%, as opposed to 10.5% in the experienced group) feeding at the time of testing and using mother–infant skin-to-skin contact (less experienced group 20%, experienced group 9.1%).

A number of studies have advocated the analgesic effect of breast feeding during painful procedures (Carbajal et al., 2003; Gray et al., 2002). Carbajal et al. (2003) studied 180 babies undergoing venepuncture and found that breastfeeding during the procedure significantly reduced the infant's apparent pain. Gray et al. (2000) in a small study of 30 infants reported that 10–15 min of skin to skin contact only between mothers and infants reduced crying, grimacing, and heart rate during heel lance procedures. Carbajal et al. (2003)

Table 4 Midwifery group and time to complete sample, time squeezing and time infant cried

| | Experienced midwives, mean (SD) | Less experienced midwives, mean (SD) |
|---|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Time to complete sample (s), $p < 0.0001$ | 94.6 (71.3) | 218.9 (209.2) |
| Time squeezing (s), $p = 0.7$ | 31.3 (55.6) | 67.5 (131.9) |
| Time infant cried (s), $p = 0.2$ | 39.8 (57.7) | 80.35 (149.7) |

561 detected no reduction in response to pain in infants
562 (dressed) who were simply held in their mother's
563 arms.

564 The only measure of pain recorded in this study
565 was length of time crying. No significant difference
566 was noted between groups. This may be due to the
567 small number of infants either feeding or having
568 skin-to-skin interaction during the procedure.

569 A significant difference between midwifery
570 groups was noted in both the quality of sample
571 obtained and the number of heel pricks required to
572 obtain the sample. On both counts the experi-
573 enced midwives appeared more efficient.

574 Very few studies have considered the experi-
575 ence of the health professional undertaking the
576 test. Spiel (1997) observed seven heel pricks from
577 midwives of different experiences. The less experi-
578 enced midwife was seen twisting the blade, mak-
579 ing a second puncture and vigorously squeezing the
580 infants' heel. Spiel (1997) observed that the more
581 experienced midwives appeared more efficient in
582 obtaining a good blood flow, did not twist the
583 blade or make more than one puncture and com-
584 pared to the less experienced midwives were
585 a lot less forceful in squeezing the infants heel. Al-
586 though Spiel's study is very limited as such a small
587 number of heel prick procedures were observed, it
588 is interesting to note that, as in our study, the ex-
589 perience midwives were more successful in ob-
590 taining a good quality sample without the need
591 for more than one puncture.

592 Although no significant differences were noted
593 in the present study, it is interesting to observe
594 that the experienced midwives did squeeze the
595 heel as often as the less experienced but not for as
596 long. This may have important consequences as
597 others have noted that excessive squeezing of the
598 heel is the most painful part of the heel prick
599 procedure (Baston, 2002; Lindh et al., 1999).

600 The question is of course, what exactly is it that
601 the experienced midwives do to ensure they
602 collect a sample in the most efficient manner
603 possible. From our previously published study
604 (Shepherd et al., 2006), it is clear that the device
605 used by the midwife plays a major role. However,
606 the differences noted in technique and outcome
607 between experienced and less experienced mid-
608 wives should not be ignored. Our research would
609 tend to indicate that the position of the baby dur-
610 ing testing is important. Also, it appears that the
611 experienced midwives paid less attention to the
612 'pain relieving' measures such as cuddling and
613 use of soothing words but were more 'skilled' in
614 the procedure. This may suggest that the experi-
615 enced midwives approach the infant in a more con-
616 fident manner and the infant remains relaxed,

617 whereas the infant displays discreet responses to
618 the action of the more tentative midwife. More re-
619 search is obviously required to fully investigate
620 this further.

Acknowledgements

621 Funding for this study was provided by the Chief
622 Scientist's Office, Scottish Executive, Grant no
623 CZG/2/78.

References

- 624
625
626
627
628
629
630
631
632
633
634
635
636
637
638
639
640
641
642
643
644
645
646
647
648
649
650
651
652
653
654
655
656
657
658
659
660
661
662
663
664
665
666
667
668
669
670
671
672
- Abril, M.J.C., Aquilar, R., Albinana, C.J., 1999. Flatfoot and cal-
caneal deformity secondary to osteomyelitis after neonatal
heel puncture. *Journal of Pediatric Orthopedic Surgery* 8,
122–124.
- Baston, H., 2002. The Guthrie test. *The Practicing Midwife* 5,
32–35.
- Carbajal, R., Veerapen, S., Couderc, S., et al., 2003. Analgesic
effect of breast feeding in term neonates: randomised con-
trolled trial. *British Medical Journal* 326, 7379.
- Cavanagh, C., Coppinger, C., Franck, L., 2005. A survey of new-
born blood screening practices. *British Journal of Midwifery*
13, 160–164.
- Fleischman, A.R., 1992. Clinical considerations for infant heel
blood sampling. *Neonatal Intensive Care* 5, 62–68.
- Grant, M.E., Muller, R., 1993. The financial and clinical impact
of redraws due to inadequate heelstick. *Neonatal Intensive
Care* 6, 23–26.
- Gray, L., Miller, L.W., Philipp, B.L., et al., 2002. Breastfeeding
in analgesic in healthy newborns. *Pediatrics* 109, 590–593.
- Gray, L., Watt, K., Blass, E.M., 2000. Skin-to-skin contact is an-
algesic in healthy newborns. *Pediatrics* 105, E14.
- Lindh, V., Wiklund, U., Hakansson, S., 1999. Heel lancing in
term new-born infants: an evaluation of pain by frequency
domain analysis of heart rate variability. *Pain* 80, 143–148.
- Meehan, R.M., 1998. Heelsticks in neonates for capillary blood
sampling. *Neonatal Network* 17, 17–24.
- Meites, S., 1988. Skin-puncture and blood collecting technique
for infants: update and problems. *Clin Chem.* 34,
1890–1894.
- Moxley, S., 1989. Neonatal heel puncture. *The Canadian Nurse*
January;25–27.
- Scotland, N.H.S., 2003. *A Guide for Health Professionals Under-
taking Newborn Screening for Phenylketonuria, Congenital
Hypothyroidism & Cystic Fibrosis.* NHS.
- Sheeran, M., 1997. Pain in infants: a literature review. *Journal
of Neonatal Nursing* 3, 13–18.
- Shepherd, A.J., Glenesk, A., MacKenzie, J., et al., 2006. A
Scottish study of heel prick blood sampling in newborn
babies. *Midwifery* in press.
- Shepherd, A.J., Glenesk, A., Niven, C., 2004. Evidence-based
approaches to neonatal screening. *British Journal of
Midwifery* 12, 762–766.
- Spiel, J., 1997. Capillary blood collection for neonatal screening
tests should require a certificate of competence. *Australian
College of Midwives Incorporated* 10, 8–13.
- United Kingdom Newborn Screening Programme Centre, 2005.
*Newborn Blood Spot Screening in the UK: Health Profes-
sionals Handbook.* Department of Health, UK.