# Microbiology Research Journal International



**30(7): 31-43, 2020; Article no.MRJI.59395 ISSN: 2456-7043** (Past name: British Microbiology Research Journal, Past ISSN: 2231-0886, NLM ID: 101608140)

# Epidemiology of Bacterial Contamination of Inert Hospital Surfaces and Equipment in Critical and Non-critical Care Units: A Brazilian Study

Dayane Otero Rodrigues<sup>1\*</sup>, Laís da Paixao Peixoto<sup>2</sup>, Erica Tatiane Mourao Barros<sup>2</sup>, Julianne Rodrigues Guimaraes<sup>2</sup>, Bruna Clemente Gontijo<sup>3</sup>, Jaisa Leite Almeida<sup>3</sup>, Lucas Guimaraes de Azevedo<sup>3</sup>, Julia Cristina Oliveira e Lima<sup>3</sup> and Deyse Silva Camara<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Centro de Ciências Biológicas e da Saúde, Universidade Federal do Oeste da Bahia, Barreiras, Bahia, Brazil. <sup>2</sup>Laboratório de Microbiologia, Curso de Biomedicina, Centro Universitário Luterano de Palmas, Palmas, Tocantins, Brazil. <sup>3</sup>Curso de Medicina, Centro de Ciências Biológicas e da Saúde, Universidade Federal do Oeste da Bahia, Barreiras, BA, Brazil.

#### Authors' contributions

All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Development of methodology, performing the experiments were performed by authors LPP, ETMB, JRG, BCG, LGA, JCOL, JLA and DSC under supervision of the author DOR. Material preparation, data collection and analysis were performed by all authors. The first draft of the manuscript was written by author DOR and all authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

#### Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/MRJI/2020/v30i730237 <u>Editor(s):</u> (1) Dr. Ana Cláudia Coelho, University of Trás-os-Montes and Alto Douro, Portugal. <u>Reviewers:</u> (1) Rachid AIT ADDI, Morocco. (2) Anmol Agarwal, Institute of Dental Studies and Technologies, India. Complete Peer review History: <u>http://www.sdiarticle4.com/review-history/59395</u>

> Received 20 May 2020 Accepted 25 July 2020 Published 06 August 2020

**Original Research Article** 

#### ABSTRACT

**Aims:** The hospital environment is an important reservoir of microorganisms, including multidrugresistant pathogens, which can cause in-patient contamination and healthcare-related infections. The objective of this study was to describe the epidemiology of bacterial contamination (contaminated sites, pathogen species and their antimicrobial susceptibility, and identifying of

\*Corresponding author: E-mail: dayotero@yahoo.com.br;

multidrug-resistant microorganisms - MDR) of inert hospital surfaces and medical equipment in two public hospitals in Northern Brazil.

**Methods:** This was a cross-sectional study with 243 samples (n = 208, from Hospital A; and n = 35, from Hospital B) collected by friction with humidified swabs from inert surfaces and equipment. Sequentially the samples were cultivated and bacterial species were identified by culture-based methods and tested for their susceptibility through agar diffusion assay according to the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI).

**Results:** Most inert surfaces and equipment analyzed presented bacterial contamination (95.5%). *Staphylococcus aureus* was the main pathogen of clinical significance detected both in Hospital A (61.8%) and B (68.6%). Hospital A showed higher rates of isolated MDR bacteria than Hospital B, especially in the Adult Intensive Care Unit, which included methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) (52.7%), Enterobacteria resistant to 4<sup>th</sup> generation cephalosporins (19.4%), and multidrug-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (2.8%).

**Conclusion:** The failures in the control of bacterial contamination of inert surfaces and equipment in the two hospitals analyzed reinforce the need for a revised protocol for cleaning and disinfection of the inert surfaces and equipment, and for regulation of antibiotic dispensing, mainly in the AICU of Hospital A, which was found to be a reservoir of MDR pathogens.

Keywords: Infections; pathogens; cross-transmission; reservoir.

#### **1. INTRODUCTION**

Healthcare-associated infections (HAI) are a major public health concern commonly associated with extended length of hospital stay, invasive procedures and antimicrobial resistance. HAI account for high hospital costs and contribute to increased morbidity and mortality of infected patients [1].

HAI are usually caused by pathogenic bacteria that may emerge from the patient's endogenous microflora during antibiotic therapy in approximately 70% of the cases [2,3]. HAI may acquired from the exogenous also be environment (30% of the cases) in that the hospital setting plays a significant role in contagion and transmission of the pathogens to patients [3,4]. Thus, epidemiological studies environmental contamination involving are important.

In the hospital setting, patients, staff and visitors represent the main reservoir of microorganisms. whereas secondary reservoirs include all environments where nutrients, moisture, and temperature are suitable for microbial survival, such as air humidifiers and nebulizers [5,6]. In addition, dry and inanimate surfaces can also serve as a reservoir of pathogens [3,5,7-9], as in mattresses and bed frames [4,10,11], door knobs [11,12], and even in medical equipment such as stethoscopes and ultrasound devices [7-11]. Contamination of these surfaces contributes to pathogen spreading and, as a result, development of infections by horizontal transmission [13-14].

Overall, surfaces can be directly contaminated by bacteria from colonized and/or infected patients or from the hands of health professionals [5,7]. Highly touched surfaces (e.g. bed frames, stethoscopes, bedside tables, and door knobs) [11-13] may be contaminated by common bacteria of the hand microbiota. More importantly, MDR bacteria have been detected on medical equipment and contact surfaces, especially in critical care units [10,15,16].

Studies carried out in Brazil and North America have reported contamination of hospital surfaces by bacteria resistant to antibiotics, especially methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) [4,17,18] and vancomycin-resistant enterococci [19,20]. These findings indicate that patients and staff are at risk of contamination by pathogens associated with high mortality rates against which treatment options are restricted.

Given the importance of in-hospital transmission. HAI studies have looked into the epidemiology of hospital-related bacterial contamination to propose preventive measures to reduce the contamination and dissemination of resistant pathogens [5]. This study aimed to describe the bacterial contamination epidemiology of (contaminated sites, pathogen species and their antimicrobial susceptibility, and identifying of multidrug-resistant microorganisms - MDR) of inert hospital surfaces and medical equipment in two public hospitals in Northern Brazil.

#### 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

This was a cross-sectional study carried out in the *Hospital Geral Público de Palmas* (HGPP) [Palmas Public General Hospital] (A) located in the state of Tocantins, Brazil, and in the *Hospital Municipal Eurico Dutra* [Eurico Dutra Municipal Hospital] (B) located in the city of Barreiras, Western Bahia, Brazil.

Hospital A is a large teaching hospital which provides tertiary care and is a reference center for medium and high complexity healthcare assistance. The hospital contains approximately 400 beds and is a major health center for the state of Tocantins and neighboring states in Brazil. It includes two intensive care units (ICUs) - a pediatric unit (PICU) with 3 rooms and 8 beds, and an adult unit (AICU) with 26 beds distributed among 18 rooms; pharmacy; laboratory; operating room (OR); elective and emergency surgery services; emergency room (ER) with three on-call specialties - orthopedics, internal medicine, and surgery; conventional hospital ward, and home care and outpatient facilities, with an average 3,500 appointments per month.

Hospital B is a medium-sized and medium complexity general hospital which provides services such as diagnostic and therapeutic support services, emergency and outpatient care. Patients are admitted through spontaneous and referred demand from the city of Barreiras and surrounding region. The hospital has a total of 10 beds in the Internal Medicine Ward (IMW), 29 beds in the Surgical Ward (SW) and 4 OR with 5 post-anesthesia recovery beds in the SW.

#### 2.1 Sample Collection

There was a substantial difference in the number of samples between the two hospitals because the Hospital A and B are the large and mediumsized, respectively. A total of 243 samples (n =208, Hospital A; n = 35, Hospital B) were collected from the following surfaces and medical equipment: Hospital A - ER (door knobs, n = 56); OR (door knobs, n = 20); AICU (heart monitors, n = 18; infusion pumps, n = 18; medication tables, n = 18; side bed frames, n = 18; with a total n =72); and PICU (side bed frames, n = 16; bed headboards, n = 8; bed frame feet, n = 8; mattresses, n = 8; bedside tables, n = 8; stethoscopes, n = 8; samples from the sinks, n =4; with a total n = 60; Hospital B - IMW (bed headboard, n = 3, mattresses, n = 2; side bed frame, n = 2; saline stand, n = 1; door knobs, n = 3, with a total n = 11); SW (bed headboard, n = 5, mattresses, n = 3; side bed frame, n = 1; saline stand, n = 3; countertops, n = 1; door knobs, n = 4; with a total n = 17); OR (surgical light, n = 4; stretcher, n = 3; with a total n = 7). The selected hospital areas included those with obtained access and represented the most important areas of hospital. The selected hospital surfaces included those highly touched or nearby patients.

Our team conducted the sampling and we ensure that everyone's sampling techniques were standardized. We collected on the touch-screen and buttons from the heart monitors, on the buttons from the infusion pumps, on the lateral from the mattress, and from the knobs sinks. We collected the samples with the patients in the room/bed at the time of sampling.

The samples were collected in the morning and afternoon from July to October 2018 (Hospital A) and April 2018 (Hospital B) by friction with sterile swabs moistened in broth Brain Heart Infusion (BHI, Oxoid, Basingstoke, Hampshire, England) from selected surfaces. The swabs were placed immediately into sterile tubes with broth BHI and transported in insulated boxes to the *Centro Universitário Luterano de Palmas* (CEULP) [Palmas Lutheran University Center] (Hospital A) and to the *Universidade Federal do Oeste da Bahia* (UFOB) [Federal University of Oeste da Bahia] (Hospital B) and incubated at 37 °C for 24 h.

#### 2.2 Bacterial Culture

After incubation, the samples in the tubes with broth BHI were vortexed and subcultured onto Mannitol MacConkey. Salt Agar, and Pseudomonas agar supplemented with blood to isolate S. aureus, coagulase-negative staphylococci (CoNS), and Gram-negative bacteria (Enterobacteriaceae family, nonthe fermenters). respectively, in aerobic conditions.

Next, clinically significant bacterial species [21] were identified by the classical approach as follows:

- *S. aureus* and CoNS: fermentation of Mannitol Salt Agar, Gram staining, catalase test, coagulase test, DNase Agar;
- Enterobacteriaceae family: growth on MacConkey agar, cytochrome oxidase,

Gram staining, lactose fermentation (Triple Sugar Iron Agar -TSI), biochemical tests (B Enterokit Probac of Brazil);

- Non-fermenter Bacilli (*Pseudomonas* aeruginosa): growth on Pseudomonas agar, odor, colony morphology, cytochrome oxidase, growth at 42°C, Gram staining, oxidation in Hugh Leifson medium;
- Micrococcus spp.: Gram staining, growth on Blood agar, no growth on Mannitol Salt Agar, catalase test, lysostapine resistance
- Gram-Positive Bacilli: Gram staining;

The bacterial strains were then tested for their antimicrobial susceptibility in vitro by the agar diffusion technique as recommended by the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute [22]. The tested antibiotics included imipenem (10 mcg), cefepime 30 (mcg), chloramphenicol (30 mcg), vancomycin (30 mcg), oxacillin (1 mcg), ciprofloxacin (5 mcg), co-amoxiclav (30/10 mcg), gentamicin (10 mcg), norfloxacin (10 mcg), cefoxitin (30 mcg), cefotaxim (30 mcg), amikacin (30 mcg), piperacillin (100 mcg), linezolid (30 mcg) and sulfamethoxazole (25 mcg).

Bacterial strains were considered as multidrugresistant (MDR) if showing resistance to at least three classes of antimicrobials [23,24] and associated phenotypes. Some examples included MRSA, Enterobacteria resistant to 4<sup>th</sup> generation cephalosporins and quinoloneresistant *P. aeruginosa*, according to definitions of the European Center for Disease Prevention and Control [23].

### 3. RESULTS

Bacterial contamination was detected in 94.7% of the 208 sampled surfaces and equipment in Hospital A. A total of 233 bacterial isolates were obtained and no microbial growth was observed on 11 surfaces sampled in the PICU. In Hospital B, all 35 surfaces that were sampled were identified with bacterial contamination.

The microbiological analysis of the surfaces in Hospital A showed a predominance of *S. aureus* (62.0%), common bacteria of the human flora, and nosocomial bacteria, such as Enterobacteria (24.0%) and *P. aeruginosa* (7%). In Hospital B, there was a predominance of environmental microorganisms, such as Gram-positive Bacilli (41%) and *Micrococcus* spp. (9.0%) (Fig. 1).

In Hospital A, the ER door knobs were mostly contaminated with *S. aureus* (53.3%), but also with enteric bacteria (30.4%), with a high frequency of samples contaminated with *P. aeruginosa* (64.7%) (Table 1). The AICU showed the highest frequency of *S. aureus* colonization, particularly on heart rate monitors (83.3%). Infusion pumps and side bed frames were mostly contaminated with *P. aeruginosa* (16.7%). The PICU was frequently contaminated not only with *S. aureus* on all stethoscopes analyzed, but also with CoNS. As shown in Table 1, 10 out of the 16 CoNS samples found throughout the study originated from the PICU.





Hospital units	Surfaces (N)	S <i>.aureus</i> N (%)	CoNS N (%)	Enterobacteria N (%)	P. aeruginosa N (%)	Total of bacteria (N)
ER	door knobs (56)	49 (53,3)	4 (4,3)	28 (30,4)	11 (11,9)	92
OR	door knobs (20)	12 (60,0)	2 (10,0)	5 (25,0)	1 (5,0)	20
AICU	heart monitors (18)	15 (83,3)	-	3 (16,7)	-	18
	infusion pumps (18)	13 (72,2)	-	3 (16,7)	2 (11,1)	18
	medication tables (18)	14 (77,8)	-	4 (22,2)	-	18
	side bed frames (18)	11 (61,1)	-	6 (33,3)	1 (5,6)	18
PICU	side bed frames (16)	8 (57,1)	1 (7,4)	5 (35,7)	-	14
	bed headboards (8)	3 (50,0)	2 (33,3)	1(16,7)	-	6
	bed frame feet (8)	3 (50,0)	2 (33,3)	-	1 (16,7)	6
	mattresses (8)	3 (75,0)	1 (25,0)	-	-	4
	bedside tables (8)	3 (42,8)	3(42,8)	1(14,3)	-	7
	stethoscopes (8)	8 (100,0)	-	-	-	8
	samples from the sinks (4)	2(50,0)	1(25,0)		1(25,0)	4
Total (N)	208	144 (61,8)	16 (6,9)	56 (24,0)	17 (7,3)	233

Table 1. Frequency of clinically important microorganisms isolated from inert surfaces and medical equipment in the Hospital Geral Público de Palmas -TO, Brazil (A).

N: total sample size; %: Percentage; ER: Emergency Room; OR: Operating Room; AICU: Adult Intensive Care Unit; PICU: Pediatric Intensive Care Unit; CoNS: Coagulase-Negative Staphylococci

Hospital units	Surfaces (N)	S. aureus N (%)	CoNS N (%)	Enterobacteria N (%)	<i>Micrococcus</i> N (%)	Total of bacteria (N)
IMW	bed headboard (3)	2 (66,7)	-	1 (33,3)	-	3
	mattresses (2)	1 (50,0)	-	-	1 (50,0)	2
	side bed frame (2)	1 (50,0)	-	-	1 (50,0)	2
	saline stand (1)	-	-	-	1 (100,0)	1
	door knobs (3)	2 (66,7)	-	1 (33,3)	-	3
SW	bed headboard (5)	3 (60,0)	1 (20,0)	1 (20,0)	-	5
	mattresses (3)	2 (66,7)	-	-	1(33,3)	3
	side bed frame (1)	1 (100,0)	-	-	-	1
	saline stand (3)	3 (100,0)	-	-	-	3
	countertops (1)	1 (100,0)	-	-	-	1
	door knobs (4)	2 (50,0)	1 (25,0)	-	1 (25,0)	4
OR	surgical light - BU (2)	2 (100,0)	-	-	-	2
	surgical light - AU (2)	2 (100,0)	-	-	-	2
	stretcher - BU (1)	1 (100,0)	-	-	-	1
	stretcher - AU (2)	1 (50,0)	1 (50,0)	-	-	2
Total (N)	35	24 (68,6)	3 (8,6)	3 (8,6)	4 (11,4)	35

Table 2. Frequency of clinically important microorganisms isolated from inert surfaces and medical equipment in the Hospital Municipal Eurico Dutra in the city of Barreiras, BA, Brazil (B)

N: total sample size; %: Percentage; IMW: Internal Medicine Ward; SW: Surgical Ward; OR: Operating Room; BU: Before Use; AU: After Use; CoNS: coagulase-negative staphylococci

Hospital	Hospital	Number	Culture	Microorganisms (N)	MDR* isolated
	units	of samples	positive		(Frequency)
Hospital A (Palmas-TO)	ER	56	92	S.aureus (49) CoNS (4) Enterobacteria (28) P.aeruginosa (11)	MRSA (28,3%) MR CoNS (4,3% ) Enterobacteria resistant to 4 <sup>th</sup> generation cephalosporins (8,7%) -
	OR	20	20	S.aureus (12) CoNS (2) Enterobacteria (5) P.aeruginosa (1)	MRSA (25,0%) MR CoNS (5,0%) - -
	AICU	72	72	S.aureus (53) Enterobacteria (16) <i>P.aeruginosa</i> (3)	MRSA (52,7%) Enterobacteria resistant to 4 <sup>th</sup> generation cephalosporins (19,44%) multi-resistant <i>P.aeruginosa</i> (2,78%)
	PICU	60	49	S.aureus (30) CoNS (10) Enterobacteria (7) P.aeruginosa (2)	MRSA (4,08%) MR CoNS (20,40%) Enterobacteria resistant to 4 <sup>th</sup> generation cephalosporins (6,12%) multi-resistant <i>P.aeruginosa</i> (2,04%)
Hospital B (Barreiras-BA)	IMW	11	11	S.aureus (6) Enterobacteria (2) Micrococcus. (3)	MRSA (27,27%) - -
	SW	17	17	S.aureus (13) CoNS (2) Enterobacteria (1) <i>Micrococcus</i> (1)	MRSA (29,4%) MR CoNS (5,88%) - -
	OR	7	7	S.aureus (6) CoNS (1)	MRSA (14,3%) -

Table 3. Multi-drug resistant microorganisms recovered from inert surfaces and equipment of hospitals located in Northern Brazil.

\*Multidrug-resistant pathogen; ER: Emergency Room; OR: Operating Room; AICU: Adult Intensive Care Unit; PICU: Pediatric Intensive Care Unit; IMW: Internal Medicine Ward; SW: Surgical Ward; MRSA: Methicillin-Resistant Staphylococcus aureus; MR-CoNS: Methicillin-Resistant Coagulase-Negative Staphylococci The surfaces of Hospital B were contaminated with *S. aureus* in the following sites: bed headboards (66.7%) in the IMW, saline stands (100.0%) in the SW and surgical lights (100.0%) in the OR (Table 2).

Hospital A showed higher rates of MDR bacteria recovered from surfaces than Hospital B, especially in the AICU, which included MRSA (52.7%), Enterobacteria resistant to 4<sup>th</sup> generation cephalosporins (19.4%) and multi-resistant *P. aeruginosa* (2.78%). The OR in both Hospital A and B had the lowest frequency of MDR bacteria, as shown in Table 3.

#### 4. DISCUSSION

Inert hospital surfaces and medical equipment can be a reservoir of MDR pathogens. Understanding the epidemiology of bacterial contamination in this setting is essential to prevent in-patient contamination and HAI development.

Bacterial pathogens can survive and remain viable on inert surfaces and equipment due to their ability to form biofilms and to environmental factors such as surface porosity and humidity [7,25]. This ability to adapt to environmental stress works as a major factor driving pathogen proliferation and dissemination. In this context, our results appointed that 94.7% (Hospital A) and 100.0% (Hospital B) of the inanimate surfaces analyzed (n = 243) in general hospitals located in Northern Brazil were contaminated with bacterial pathogens. The contamination of hospital surfaces is dependent on a number of factors including proximity of colonized and/or infected patients to the surfaces analyzed; the physical structure of the hospital; the adoption of antibiotic administration programs; as well as issues with the cleaning and disinfection protocols of surfaces and medical equipment. In the hospitals studied, routine disinfection and cleaning occurs 3 times a day in critical units (Operating Room, Adult Intensive Care Unit, Pediatric Intensive Care Unit) and 2 times a day in semi-critical units (Emergency Room, Internal Medicine Ward, Surgical Ward) using 70° alcohol. Terminal disinfection and cleaning that encompasses all horizontal and vertical surfaces, occurs after bed clearance, and usually occurs weekly in critical units and biweekly in n semi-critical units. While adopting nationally recommended cleaning and disinfection protocols. our results on environmental contamination corroborate those of national surveillance studies carried out in

ICUs in Center-Western [26] and Northern Brazil [15]. Consistent with this, international studies [2,5,27] have shown that only less than 50% of hospital surfaces are properly cleaned and disinfected with germicides [28-30]. These alarming findings strongly suggest that the hospital environment can act as a reservoir of pathogens and enable their cross-transmission to the patient.

While bacteria, viruses, and fungi can commonly thrive in environmental reservoirs [21,31,32], the etiology of microbial contamination in our study was specific to each hospital. Hospital A had surfaces and equipment contaminated with human pathogens, whereas Hospital B was contaminated with environmental bacterial contaminants. These differences may be explained by several factors [19,33] such as hospital size and cleaning/disinfecting regimens. Hospital A is a large hospital providing medium and high complexity healthcare assistance, with ICU demanding appropriate an cleaning/disinfection. In addition, admitted patients have an increased length of hospital stay and are often prescribed antibiotics indiscriminately. A combination of these circumstances may lead to selection of nosocomial pathogens such as MRSA, P. aeruginosa and Enterobacteria, which ultimately contaminate the surrounding environment. On the other hand. Hospital B is a medium-sized hospital providing medium complexity healthcare assistance, which does not present all the aggravating factors described for Hospital A. The medium complexity is based on ambulatory attending and is composed of actions and services aimed at attending the main health problems of the population, whose complexity of care in clinical practice demands the availability of specialized professionals and the use of technological resources for diagnostic support and treatment. As examples we cited The Reference Center for Men's Health and The Center for Children's Specialties in Campo Grande, Brazil. In Hospital B, admitted patients have a better prognosis and have not an increased length of hospital stay, so the presence of common bacterial contaminants on hospital surfaces (e.g., Gram-positive Bacilli and Micrococcus spp.), which are widely distributed in the environment, is justified [21]. The bacterial contamination present therein may result from the patient's transient skin microbiota, even though opportunistic infections may develop in immunocompromised individuals [21].

S. aureus was the main microorganism recovered from the surfaces and equipment of both Hospital A (61.8%) and B (68.6%). In Hospital A, there was a predominance of S. aureus on door knobs in the ER (53.3%), heart monitors (83.3%) and medication tables (77.8%) in the AICU, and stethoscopes (100.0%) and mattresses (75.0%) in the PICU. In Hospital B, S. aureus was the main pathogen recovered from door knobs and bed headboards (66.7%), saline stands (100.0%) and mattresses (66.7%). These percentages are similar to those reported in the national literature [4] for mattresses (72.0%) and higher than international percentages [34] for beds (34%) and door knobs (26.0%). These differences can be attributed to the greater effectiveness of international cleaning and disinfection protocols. Our data show that highly touched surfaces are prone to be contaminated with S. aureus, a microorganism commonly found on the skin. This suggests that the hands of health professionals, the patients themselves or visitors were the main vector of contamination of surfaces in the units analyzed, although this was not investigated. Surfaces and equipment can be contaminated and, if not are properly disinfected. re-contaminate sanitized hands during the interruption of patient care to touch the surfaces and equipment such as keyboards, tables, door knobs, stethoscopes etc. The surfaces can become persistently contaminated by pathogens [5,7,19] and the hospital environment turns into a reservoir of highly transmissible microorganisms.

In our study, surfaces of the PICU were found to be contaminated with CoNS (24,4%), as observed in the Neonatal Intensive Care Unit in the California, USA, where CoNS were the more abundant on the surfaces [35]. CoNS are main cause of late-onset sepsis in developed countries<sup>36</sup> and early neonatal infections in Canadá [36], USA [37] and Brazil [38]. Despite the fact that CoNS are not considered pathogenic under normal circumstances, their presence on objects with frequent manual contact (e.g., bedside tables and areas close to patients such as bed headboards and bed frame feet) may pose a risk of contamination and development of infection in hospitalized children. This fact requires attention by local health teams and indicates a need for revision of surface cleaning/disinfection protocols at the PICU in Hospital A.

Our findings showed a high percentage of methicillin-resistant isolates of CoNS and most *S*.

aureus. The frequency of MRSA recovered from the ER (28.3%) was similar to that reported in the literature [12] (20.0%), while the frequency of MRSA recovered from the AICU (52.7%) was higher than that found in Brazil [39] (41.8%) and lower than international rates [40] (67.3%). These differences in MRSA rates may be justified by adaptations in the methodology. The presence of MRSA in both hospitals analyzed reflects the importance of this pathogen in the environment [34], as observed in another tertiary hospital in the Middle East in five rooms and two nursing stations in the AICU and PICU. MRSA strains often exhibit multidrug resistance, including resistance to beta-lactam antibiotics, macrolides, fluorquinolones, and exhibit strong virulence as a result of a multiplicity of factors acting simultaneously to evade the host's defenses. Some of which include the production of enzymes and toxins, intracellular invasion and proliferation, dissemination into tissues and organs, and ability to form biofilms [4,27,41-43]. These virulence factors mediate bacterial adhesion to inert hospital surfaces and medical equipment, which may explain the high prevalence rates of MRSA found in this study, although biofilm production was not investigated herein.

The contamination of surfaces and equipment with Gram-negative bacilli is not as studied as the contamination with MRSA. VRE and C. difficile [3]. A study [44] reported the presence of MDR Enterobacteria in 22.2% of 18 sampled surfaces, which is consistent with our findings (19.44%) for the AICU of Hospital A. European data [45] showed a high level of contamination by P. aeruginosa in sink isolates and tap biofilms. In line with this, our study recovered P. aeruginosa from 25% of sink samples, which attests that this pathogen is commonly associated with humid sites in the hospital environment and is the main microorganism isolated in ICUs [46]. In contrast, from a total of seventeen P. aeruginosa isolates found in this study, eleven were non-MDR isolates from door knobs of the ER, which is not a humid environment. This may be associated with the presence of P. aeruginosa-infected patients in beds near contaminated door knobs. Once more, this reinforces the understanding that health professionals' hands work as a vector of pathogen transmission. In our study, MDR P. aeruginosa isolates were recovered at a low frequency from AICU (2.78%) and PICU (2.04%) facilities, which confirm from the literature showing (2,96%) [47] prevalence of MDR P. aeruginosa in transplantation unit in Germany.

Even so, our results confirm the imminent risk of contamination of critically ill patients.

In our study, we observed that the AICU of Hospital A was highly contaminated with MDR pathogens. This is in line with observational studies that recovered MDR microorganisms from critical care units [5,27,40]. The environmental contamination of ICUs has been a worrisome issue, since severely ill patients are prone to develop infections. It is fundamental to adopt standard measures to prevent and control hospital-acquired infection, considering the patients' risk of death, the proximity of the beds and the presence of monitoring and support equipment, which are highly touched and susceptible to contamination. It is also worth noting the widespread use of antibiotics in critical units, which select MDR clones both in the patient and in the environment, in addition to the fact that viable MDR bacteria have been isolated from biofilm surfaces and furniture after terminal cleaning of ICUs [5,48]. Evidence has suggested epicenters ICUs are that of MDR microorganisms, which was confirmed in our study.

Adding, these pathogens, mainly MRSA, were commonly (71.4%) isolated from oropharyngeal colonization of patients admitted to Hospital 2 [49] in a study conducted by our team.

## 5. CONCLUSION

Our results showed a high frequency of contaminated surfaces and equipment, with isolation of difficult-to-treat MDR phenotypes, e.g. MRSA, MR-CoNS, Enterobacteria resistant to 4<sup>th</sup> generation cephalosporins and MDR P. aeruginosa. These pathogens, mainly MRSA, commonly isolated were (71.4%) from oropharyngeal colonization of patients admitted to Hospital 2 in a study conducted by our team. In this investigation, we concluded that current antibiotic use, advanced age and, a previous hospitalization were statistically significant risk factors for the risk of colonization by multidrugresistant bacteria. The fact of the presence of the same pathogens phenotypes, (e.g., MRSA and others) detected in the patients and in the hospital environment in the same hospital validated our results, although to have disparity in the sample number in this study. These findings raise concern and point to the need to review the protocols of prevention and control of infections in the hospitals analyzed. The cleaning/sanitizing of inert surfaces and

equipment and antibiotic dispensing procedures should also be looked at in critical units, since antibiotics can act as a selective force of resistant bacterial strains. Routine and terminal disinfection of environmental surfaces and with medical equipment germicides is recommended in the literature [32] to decrease the frequency and level of contamination, especially highly touched surfaces near the patient. There is a need for greater attention into hand hygiene before and after contact with patients as much as with the close to them. These actions areas could reduce contamination together of hospital surfaces and equipment and the cross-transmission possibility of of pathogens while minimizing the risk of contamination of patients and the development of HAI.

Taken altogether, the association between environmental contamination and the epidemiology of HAI is complex. This study is the pioneer in the Northern region of Brazil, area that is lacking in scientific data, and presented limitations, e.g. absence of use molecular biology tools to identify species, to describe the Staphylococcal cassette chromosome mec (SCCMEC) type of MRSA and presence or absence of extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) among the Enterobacteria or P.aeruginosa isolates circulating within the hospital environment. The molecular biology would be useful to determine the similarity of strains recovered from surfaces, in order to track the circulation and origin of MDR pathogens during cross-infection. The absence of microbiota analysis from the hands of health professionals was other limitation of this study, since we tried to correlate environmental isolates with their possible sites of origin, e.g. hands of the health care, considering the knowledge of the literature. However, the development of this study established partnerships with hospitals and the possibility of futures researches, that can better understand the correlation of bacterial contamination with the underlying pathology of hospitalized patients close to contaminated surfaces using molecular biology tools. Our results showed a high frequency of contaminated surfaces and equipment, and critical care units acting as reservoir of MDR pathogens, including MRSA, MR-CoNS, Enterobacteria resistant to 4th generation cephalosporins and MDR P. aeruginosa. These results may assist health professionals of the analyzed hospitals in the adoption of preventive and control measures for

HAI and reveal the need for reflection on the indiscriminate use of antimicrobials and on the cleaning/sanitizing of inert surfaces and equipment.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank to board directors from *Hospital Geral Público de Palmas* (HGPP) [Palmas Public General Hospital], the board directors from *Hospital Municipal Eurico Dutra* [Eurico Dutra Municipal Hospital] for their institutional consent.

#### COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

#### REFERENCES

- Bonnet V, Dupont H, Glorion S, Aupée M, Kipnis E, Gérard JL, et al. Influence of bacterial resistance on mortality in intensive care units: a registry study from 2000 to 2013 (IICU Study). J Hosp Infect. 2019;102(3):317-24.
- Weber DJ, Rutala WA, Miller MB, Huslage K, Sickbert-Bennett E. Role of hospital surfaces in the transmission of emerging health care-associated pathogens: Norovirus, Clostridium difficile, and Acinetobacter species. Am J Infect Control. 2010;38(5):25-33.
- 3. Weber DJ, Rutala WA. Understanding and Preventing Transmission of Healthcare-Associated Pathogens Due to the Contaminated Hospital Environment. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol. 2013;34(5):449-52.
- Ferreira AM, Andrade D, Almeida MTG, Cunha KC, Rigotti MA. Colchões do tipo caixa de ovo: um reservatório de *Staphylococcus aureus* resistente à meticilina? Rev Esc Enferm. 2011;45:161-6.
- Russotto V, Cortegiani A, Raineri SM, Giarratano A. Bacterial contamination of inanimate surfaces and equipment in the intensive care unit. J Intensive Care. 2015;3:54-61.
- Trindade RC, Bonfim ACR, Resende MA. Conjuntivais flora microbiana de pessoas clinicamente normais que trabalham em um ambiente hospitalar. Braz J Microbiol. 2000;31(1):12-6.

- Russotto V, Cortegiani A, Fasciana T, Iozzo P, Raineri SM, Gregoretti C, et al. What Healthcare Workers Should Know about Environmental Bacterial Contamination in the Intensive Care Unit. Biomed Res Int. 2017;2017:6905450.
- 8. Boyce JM. Environmental contamination makes an important contribution to hospital infection. J Hosp Infect. 2007;65(2):50-4.
- Rossi D, Devienne KF, Raddi MSG. Influência de fluídos biológicos na sobrevivência de Staphylococcus aureus sobre diferentes superfícies secas. Rev Ciênc Farm Básica Apl. 2008;29:211-4.
- Adams CE, Smith J, Watson V, Robertson C, Dancer SJ. Examining the association between surface bioburden and frequently touched sites in intensive care. J Hosp Infect. 2017;95(1):76–80.
- Shams AM, Rose LJ, Edwards JR, Cali S, Harris AD, Jacob JT, et al. Assessment of the Overall and Multidrug-Resistant Organism Bioburden on Environmental Surfaces in Healthcare Facilities. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol. 2016;37(12):1426-32.
- Silva AS, Deuschle RAN, Garlet CCM. Pesquisa de Staphylococcus aureus nas maçanetas das portas dos quartos de um hospital na região Noroeste, Rio Grande do Sul Rev Saúde (Santa Maria). 2012;38(1):115-24.
- Oliveira AC, Damasceno QS. Superfícies do ambiente hospitalar como possíveis reservatórios de bactérias resistentes: uma revisão. Rev Esc Enferm. 2010;44(4):1118-23.
- Caetano JA, Lima MA, Miranda MC, Serufo JC, Ponte PRL. Identificação de contaminação bacteriana no sabão líquido de uso hospitalar. Rev Esc Enferm. 2011;45(1):153-60.
- Costa DM, Johani K, Melo DS, Lopes LK, Lima LKOL, Tipple AFV, et al. Biofilm contamination of high-touched surfaces in intensive care units: epidemiology and potential impacts. Lett Appl Microbiol. 2019;68(4):267-8.
- Galvin S, Dolan A, Cahill O, Daniels S, Humphreys H. Microbial monitoring of the hospital environment: why and how? J Hosp Infect. 2012;82(3):143-51.
- 17. Sexton T, Clark P, O'Neill E, Dillane T, Humphreys H. Environmental reservoirs of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus in isolation rooms: correlation with patient

isolates and implications for hospital hygiene. J Hosp Infect. 2006;62(2):187-94.

- Dancer CJ. Importance of the environment in methicillin resistant Staphylococcus aureus acquisition: the case for hospital cleaning. Lancet Infect Dis. 2008;8(2):101-13.
- Hayden MK, Blom DW, Lyle EA, Moore CG, Weistein RA. Risk of hand or glove contamination after contact with vancomycin resistant Enterococcus or the colonized patients environment. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol. 2008;29(2):149-54.
- Drees M, Snydman DR, Schmid CH, Barefoot L, Hansjosten K, Vue PM, et al. Prior environmental contamination increases the risk of acquisition of vancomycin-resistant enterococci. Clin Infect Dis. 2008;46(5):678-85.
- Koneman EW, Allen SD, Janda WM, Schreckenberger PC, Winn WC. Diagnóstico microbiológico: texto e atlas colorido. 8. ed. Rio de Janeiro: Guanabara Koogan. 2010;1565.
- 22. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI). M100-S24 Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing; Twenty-Fourth Informational Supplement; 2014.
- Siegel JD, Rhinehart E, Jackson M, Chiarello L. Management of multidrugresistant organisms in health care settings, 2006. Am J Infect Control. 2007;35(10-2):165-93.
- 24. Hidron AI, Edwards JR, Patel J, Horan TC, Sievert DM, Pollock DA. NHSN annual update: Antimicrobial-resistant pathogens associated with healthcare-associated infections: annual summary of data reported to the National Healthcare Safety Network at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2006–2007. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol. 2008;29(11):996-1011.
- Esteves DC, Pereira VC, Souza JM, Keller R, Simões RD, Winkelstroter Eller LK, et al. Influence of biological fluids in bacterial viability on different hospital surfaces and fomites. Am J Infect Control. 2016;44(3):311-4.
- 26. Moraes CL, Ribeiro NFG, Costa DM, Furlan VG, Palos MAP, Vasconcelos LSNOL. Contaminação de equipamentos e superfícies de unidades de terapia intensiva de uma maternidade pública por

Staphylococcus coagulase negativa. Rev Patol Trop. 2013;42(4):387-94.

- 27. Johani K, Abualsaudc D, Costa DM, Hua H, Whiteleye G, Deva A, et al. Characterization of microbial community composition, antimicrobial resistance and biofilm on intensive care surfaces. J Infect Public Health. 2018;11:418-24.
- Carling PC, Parry MF, von Beheren SM. Healthcare Environ-mental Hygiene Study Group. Identifying opportunities to enhance environmental cleaning in 23 acute care hospitals. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol. 2008;29(17):1-7.
- 29. Goodman ER, Platt R, Bass R, Onderdonk AB, Yokoe DS, Huang SS. Impact of environmental cleaning intervention on the presence of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus and vancomycinresistant enterococci on surfaces in intensive care unit rooms. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol. 2008;29:593-9.
- Rutala WA, Weber DJ. Healthcare Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee (HICPAC). Guideline for Disinfection and Sterilization in Healthcare Facilities, 2008. Department of health and human services – USA. Centers for diseases control. 2017;161.
- Lessa FC, Gould CV, McDonald LC. Current status of Clostridium difficile infection epidemiology. Clin Infect Dis. 2012;55(2):65-70.
- 32. Cortegiani A, Russotto V, Maggiore A, Attanasio M, Naro AR, Raineri SM, et al. Antifungal agents for preventing fungal infections in non-neutropenic critically ill patients. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews. 2016;004920.
- Ledwoch K, Dancer SJ, Otter JA, Kerr K, Roposte D, Rushton L, et al. Beware biofilm! Dry biofilms containing bacterial pathogens on multiple healthcare surfaces; a multi-centre study. J Hosp Infect. 2018;100(3):47-56.
- 34. Nkuwi EJ, Kabanangi F, Joachim A, Rugarabamu S, Majigo M. Methicillinresistant Staphylococcus aureus contamination and distribution in patient's care environment at Muhimbili National Hospital, Dar es Salaam-Tanzania. BMC Res Notes. 2018;11(1):484.
- 35. Heyba M, Ismaiel M, Alotaibi A, Mahmoud M, Baqer H, Safar A, et al. Microbiological contamination of mobile phones of clinicians in intensive care units and

neonatal care units in public hospitals in Kuwait. BMC Infect Dis. 2015;15:434-43.

- Sgro M, Shah PS, Campbell D, Tenuta A, Shivananda S, Lee SK. Early-onset neonatal sepsis: rate and organism pattern between 2003 and 2008. J Perinatol. 2011;31(12):794–8.
- Edwards RK, Jamie WE, Sterner D, Gentry S, Counts K, Duff P. Intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis and early-onset neonatal sepsis patterns. Infect Dis Obstet Gynecol. 2003;11(4):221-6.
- Pereira CA, Marra AR, Camargo LF, Pignatari AC, Sukiennik T, Behar PR, et al. Nosocomial Bloodstream Infections in Brazilian Pediatric Patients: Microbiology, Epidemiology, and Clinical Features. PLoS One. 2013;8(7):68144
- Campos GB, Souza SG, Lobão TN, Silva DCC, Sousa DS, Oliveira OS, et al. Isolation, molecular characteristics and disinfection of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus from ICU units in Brazil. New Microbiol. 2012;(35):183-90.
- 40. Tajeddina E, Rashidana M, Razaghi M, Javadi SSS, Sherafat SJ, Alebouyeha M, et al. The role of the intensive care unit environment and health-care workers in the transmission of bacteria associated with hospital acquired infections. J Infect Public Health. 2016;9:13-23.
- Rosenthal VD, Bijje H, Maki DG, Mehta Y, Apisarnthanarak A, Medeiros EA, et al. International Nosocomial Infection Control Consortium (INICC) report, data summary of 36 countries, for 2004-2009. Am J of Infect Control. 2012;40(5):396-407.
- 42. Laabei M, Recker M, Rudkin JK, Aldeljawi M, Gulay Z, Sloan TJ, et al. Predicting the virulence of MRSA from its genome sequence. Genome Res. 2014;24(5):839-49.

- 43. Heilmann C. Adhesion mechanisms of staphylococci. Adv Exp Med Biol. 2011;715:105-23.
- Judge C, Galvin S, Burke L, Thomas T, Humphreys H, Fitzgerald- Hughes D. Search and you will find: detecting extended-spectrum b-lactamase– producing Klebsiella pneumoniae from a patient's im-mediate environment. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol. 2013;34:534-6.
- 45. Abreu PM, Farias PG, Gabriel Silva Paiva GS, Almeida AM, Morais PV. Persistence of microbial communities including Pseudomonas aeruginosa in a hospital environment: a potential health hazard. BMC Microbiol. 2014;14:118-27.
- Ferrareze MVG, Leopoldo VC, Andrade D, Silva MFI, Haas VJ. Pseudomonas aeruginosa multirresistente em unidade de cuidados intensivos: desafios que procedem? Acta Paul Enferm. 2007;20(1):7-11.
- Oliveira C, Malheiros PS, Montagner M, Rossi EM, Brandelli A. Perfil de resistência a antimicrobianos de cepas Pseudomonas aeruginosa isoladas de ralos e pios de enfermarias hospitalares em Santa Catarina, Brasil. RBAC. 2011;43 (3):192-6.
- Vickery K, Deva A, Jacombs A, Allan J, Valente P, Gosbell I. Presence of biofilm containing viable multiresistant organisms despite terminal cleaning on clinical surfaces in an intensive care unit. J Hosp Infect. 2012;80(1):52-5.
- 49. Câmara DS, Rodrigues DO. Análise da colonização da orofaringe por patógenos multirresistentes em pacientes internados na enfermaria de adultos de um Hospital Geral em Barreiras-BA. Short Talks. Anais do II Congresso de Doenças Infecciosas e Parasitárias do Oeste da Bahia; 2019.

© 2020 Rodrigues et al.; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

> Peer-review history: The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here: http://www.sdiarticle4.com/review-history/59395