Impact of environmental hygiene interventions on healthcare-associated infections and patient colonization: a systematic review

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Abstract

Background: Healthcare-associated infections (HAI) are one of the gravest threats to patient safety worldwide. The importance of the hospital environment has recently been revalued in infection prevention and control. Though the literature is evolving rapidly, many institutions still do not consider healthcare environmental hygiene (HEH) very important for patient safety. The evidence for interventions in the healthcare environment on patient colonization and HAI with multidrug-resistant microorganisms (MDROs) or other epidemiologically relevant pathogens was reviewed.

Methods: We performed a systematic review according to the PRISMA guidelines using the PubMed and Web of Science databases. All original studies were eligible if published before December 31, 2019, and if the effect of an HEH intervention on HAI or patient colonization was measured. Studies were not eligible if they were conducted in vitro, did not include patient colonization or HAI as an outcome, were bundled with hand hygiene interventions, included a complete structural rebuild of the healthcare facility or were implemented during an outbreak. The primary outcome was the comparison of the intervention on patient colonization or HAI compared to baseline or control. Interventions were categorized by mechanical, chemical, human factors, or bundles. Study quality was assessed using a specifically-designed tool that considered study design, sample size, control, confounders, and issues with reporting. The effect of HEH interventions on environmental bioburden was studied as a secondary outcome.

Findings: After deduplication, 952 records were scrutinized, of which 44 were included for full text assessment. A total of 26 articles were included in the review and analyzed. Most studies demonstrated a reduction of patient colonization or HAI, and all that analyzed bioburden demonstrated a reduction following the HEH intervention. Studies tested mechanical interventions (n = 8), chemical interventions (n = 7), human factors interventions (n = 3), and bundled interventions (n = 8). The majority of studies (21/26, 81%) analyzed either *S. aureus*, *C. difficile*, and/or vancomycin-resistant enterococci. Most studies (23/26, 88%) reported a decrease of MDRO-colonization or HAI for at least one of the tested organisms, while 58% reported a significant decrease of MDRO-colonization or HAI for all tested microorganisms. Forty-two percent were of good quality according to the scoring system. The majority (21/26, 81%) of the studies were of good quality.
Background
Clean healthcare facilities look appealing, offer a sense of security and increase patient satisfaction [1]. Although visually clean facilities have become the standard of healthcare settings in high-income countries, cleanliness not only plays a role in quality of care, but in its safety. The microbiological aspect of cleanliness, healthcare environmental hygiene (HEH), has remained a neglected field, with little investment beyond what is considered the norm. Few high-quality studies link interventions in HEH to a reduction in either patient colonization with epidemiologically relevant pathogens or healthcare-associated infections (HAI). Though there are many reasons for this, one is the lack of literature critically evaluating the role of HEH in patient safety.

HAIs are acquired during hospital stay [2] and cause more deaths worldwide than malaria, tuberculosis, and AIDS combined, and the burden of the six main types of HAI is higher than the total burden of the 32 major communicable diseases [3, 4]. These infections also increase morbidity, prolong hospital stay, and are a major financial burden to healthcare systems [5, 6]. The total annual global cost for five of the most common types of HAI is estimated at $8.3–$11.5 billion [7]. Despite their ubiquity, still much is unknown about how to prevent HAI, and no single hospital or healthcare facility in the world can claim to be unaffected.

While HAIs are usually the result of an infection with the patient’s own flora, this flora can change due to colonization with hospital pathogens through HCWs’ hands or from the hospital environment. Definitively knowing whether an HAI came from the patient’s environment or from another source is difficult. Though it is known that some bacteria are more often transmitted through the patient environment than others, it is comparatively rare that extensive investigations are performed at the time of diagnosis. Usually such investigations are reserved for unusual infections or outbreak situations, in hospitals with sufficient resources to undertake them.

Over the past 25 years, best practice interventions such as hand hygiene in patient care have reduced the number of HAIs [8, 9]. Poor hand hygiene has been recognized as being one of the main drivers of HAIs among patients [9]. Even if such practices can reduce HAIs by up to 50%, there is still a remaining proportion that needs to be addressed and where HEH may play a role [10]. A prerequisite for addressing some of these challenges is to review the literature to evaluate whether HEH interventions have a direct effect on HAI and thus, on patient safety.

HEH is essential for all types of healthcare facilities, from hospitals and long-term care facilities to home care environments. Environmental hygiene builds on both technical and human components, and it includes all aspects of the healthcare environment that are not the patient or the HCWs themselves. The technical component includes cleaning and disinfection of surfaces, water management, air control, waste management, laundry, and sterilization and device reprocessing. The human component includes best practice implementation, staff management, and environmental services departments’ structural organization [11]. This component includes the evaluation of the cost and value of HEH interventions and programs, the training and monitoring of staff, their career development and workflow organization. Both of these components carry major implications for the well-being of patients, HCWs, the community and the larger natural environment.

Beyond the biological plausibility that the healthcare environment has a direct effect on patient safety, a number of reports over the last decades increasingly highlighted the potential impact of environmental hygiene on health [12, 13]. Most common healthcare-associated pathogens are known to survive on surfaces for hours or days, some for weeks and a few for over a year [14, 15]. It has been shown that hygiene failures correlate strongly with HAI in an ICU setting [16]. There is an increase of 150–500% in the chance of acquiring a pathogen if the prior room occupant was colonized with it [17].

This paper reviews the evidence-base for the ability of interventions in the hospital environment to reduce patient colonization with multidrug-resistant microorganisms (MDROs) and other epidemiologically relevant pathogens, and to prevent HAI. This exercise is difficult for a number of reasons. First, high-quality randomized
controlled trials in HEH are sparse. Secondly, the bulk of studies are retrospective or prospective before-and-after studies with limited methodological quality. Third, there is heterogeneity of the field about “clean environment” and how environmental hygiene is defined. Finally, HEH interventions are often combined with other infection prevention and control (IPC) interventions such as hand hygiene or a reorganization of patient care. These confounding factors can cause difficulty when determining whether outcomes are a direct effect of an HEH intervention.

**Methods**

We performed the systematic review protocol according to the PRISMA checklist [18], in both the PubMed and Web of Science databases. The full search strategies are available in the Additional file 1. The primary outcome is a comparison of the measure of patient colonization or HAI compared to baseline/control. HAI was defined according to the WHO definition [2].

The secondary outcome was environmental bioburden as defined as either cultured environmental samples or adenosine tri-phosphate (ATP) sampling. Although ATP sampling is technically a proxy measure of bioburden, it correlates closely with microbiological sampling in the literature [19]. Other proxy measures for bioburden such as the use of fluorescent dye were not included. Though the use of fluorescent techniques can show a measurable improvement in cleaning procedures, they do not necessarily demonstrate an impact on bioburden, depending on what is being used to remove the fluorescent dye. Therefore, studies that used improved cleaning practices or fluorescent marking as a proxy measure of bioburden were marked as “NA”.

All original studies were eligible if they were published before December 31, 2019, and if they measured the effect of an HEH intervention on HAI or patient colonization. Studies with an English abstract were eligible when published in English, French, German, or Spanish and only included if they were original research.

Studies were not eligible if they were conducted in vitro, did not include patient colonization or HAI as an outcome, were bundled with hand hygiene interventions, or were implemented during an outbreak. Outbreaks were excluded because outbreak management broadens the intervention, and it would not be possible to adjust for that effect. Complete structural rebuilds were excluded, because interventions such as renovating a building or replacing a plumbing system are not feasible HEH interventions in most contexts. There is also evidence that such interventions result in reduction of the studied pathogen for a limited time, after which the environment can become recolonized [20].

Interventions of interest were either mechanical, chemical, or they applied a human factors design. The standardized extraction forms included type of intervention, study title, authors, year of publication, study design, type of intervention(s), intervention(s), sample size or sample size proxy, control, microorganisms studied, outcome, whether the method is recommended for application by the authors, quality score and grade, reduction in bioburden, and comments.

Interventions were stratified into chemical, mechanical, human factors, and bundles of combining two or more of the aforementioned categories. Titles, abstracts and the full text of all potentially eligible studies were screened independently by at least two reviewers. Inclusions and exclusions were recorded following the PRISMA guidelines, and reasons for exclusion were detailed. Data were extracted by two authors. Any disagreement was resolved through discussion with a third author. Any missing data was requested from original study authors by email. Ethical approval was not required for this review.

As a wide variety of procedures and methodologies were identified, a descriptive analysis with a narrative synthesis was performed. Due to this heterogeneity, additional sub-group analyses by type of intervention, type of microorganism, and study quality were performed.

The study designs were divided into the following categories: randomized controlled trials (RCTs), quasi-experimental studies (prospective and retrospective), and before-and-after studies (prospective and retrospective). Sample sizes were categorized by ranges from less than 10 to more than 100,000 patients/patient-days/room cleanings. Presence of a study control was adjusted to include proxies for a control. The main confounding factors that were analyzed included hand hygiene compliance, antibiotic use, and the seasonality of certain HAI.

Available tools for analyzing study quality were assessed, and selected using the Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) checklist for conducting observational studies which had been previously used for such a review [21, 22]. The STROBE checklist was, however, difficult to apply to some HEH interventions, in particular when a study had no control, its primary outcome was laboratory-based or based on bioburden measurements. We therefore also constructed a specifically-designed quality scoring system which included what the reviewers deemed the most important elements in the studies. Obviously, this scoring system is only meant to compare this specific list of studies and is not applicable in other contexts. After discussion in a working group, the following five elements were included in the quality assessment: study design, sample size, control, confounders, and issues with reporting. Among issues with reporting,
| Scale                              | 0                                          | 1                                          | 2                                          | 3                                          | 4                                          |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|
| Study design                      | Before and after (retrospective, no control) | Before and after (prospective, no control) | Quasi experimental (retrospective, control) | Quasi experimental (prospective, control, not randomized) | Randomized controlled trial (prospective) |
| Sample size                       | Less than the above numbers/N/A           | Over 10 patients/over 100 patient-days/over 100 room cleanings | Over 100 patients/over 1000 patient-days/over 1000 room cleanings | Over 1000 patients/over 10,000 patient-days/over 10,000 room cleanings | Over 10,000 patients/100,000 patient-days/100,000 room cleans |
| Control                           | No                                         | N/A [1]                                    | Proxy control/not well-executed            | N/A                                        | Yes                                        |
| Adjusted for confounding factors  | Not at all                                  | N/A                                        | Somewhat                                   | N/A                                        | Yes                                        |
| Issues with reporting, including conflict of interest | Major COI and clear issues with data reporting | No/minor COI but clear issues with data reporting or major COI and minor issues with data reporting | No/minor COI but minor issues with data reporting or major COI and seemingly transparent data reporting | Minor COI and seemingly transparent data reporting | No COI and seemingly transparent data reporting |

Studies were scored from a possible total of 20 points. Grade A was given for 16–20 points, B for 11–15 points, C for 6–10 points, and D for 0–5 points.

N/A not available, COI conflict of interest

* Major COI referred to if over half of the study authors were funded by industry to conduct the study.
conflict of interest (COI) was defined as minor if less than half of the authors disclosed a COI, such as having worked for industry as a consultant in the same field, and major if more than half of authors were funded by industry for the study.

Table 1 summarizes the quality scoring scale used in the review. Studies were graded from 0 to 20 points. “High quality” studies referred to studies that received an A or B grade according to the quality scale (Table 1). Some studies that ranked lower on the quality scale were well-performed, but simply not designed or powered to determine significant changes in patient colonization or HAI.

Findings

Of the 952 retrieved and deduplicated studies, 44 were included for full-text review. A total of 26 studies were included in the final analysis (Fig. 1 and Table 2). Studies reported mechanical (n=8) [23–30], chemical (n=7) [31–37], human factors (n=3) [38–40], and bundled interventions (n=8) [41–48]. All of the studies that examined HAI only examined HAI in patients, not HCWs. Two studies were published before the year 1990 [25, 28], while the others (24/26) were published between 2013 and 2020. Of all of the 26 interventions, only five (19%) were not recommended for application by the study authors [23, 25, 30, 39, 42]. Among them, three were mechanical interventions [23, 25, 30], one was a human factors intervention [39], and one was a bundled intervention [42]. All of the chemical interventions were recommended for application by the study authors [31–37].

Five studies were RCTs [32, 37, 39, 47, 48]. The remaining studies had prospective quasi-experimental designs (n=3) [25, 33, 44], retrospective quasi-experimental design (n=1) [38], prospective before-and-after designs (n=11) [23, 24, 27, 28, 30, 31, 34, 41–43, 45], and retrospective before-and-after designs (n=6) [26, 29, 35, 36, 40, 46]. In total, only 31% (8/26) studies had a true control [25, 32, 37, 39, 42, 44, 47, 48].

Over half (15/26, 58%) of the studies demonstrated a significant decrease in patient colonization or HAI following the chosen intervention for all microorganisms tested [24, 26, 29, 31, 33, 35–38, 40, 41, 43–46]. In one study, the reduction was not significant for all patient groups [26]. If additional interventions that demonstrated a reduction in all microorganisms tested were included, whether significant or not, this increased to 69% [23, 28, 32]. If the additional interventions that demonstrated a reduction in at least one of the microorganisms tested (significant or not) were included, this increased to 88% [25, 27, 34, 47, 48].

Analysis by type of intervention (Table 2)

Of the eight studies that implemented mechanical interventions [23–30], 63% (5/8) reported statistically significant reductions in HAI or colonization for at least one tested microorganism [24–27, 29]. When all mechanical interventions showing any reduction in at least one of the microorganisms tested were included, including those not statistically significant, this increased to 88% (7/8) [23, 48]. Two of the three studies that implemented human factors interventions [38–40], showed a statistically significant reduction in HAI or colonization for all microorganisms tested [38, 40]. The remaining study demonstrated no reduction [39]. Of the seven studies that implemented chemical interventions [31–37], 86% (6/8) demonstrated statistically significant reductions for at least one of the microorganisms tested [38, 40]. If all the interventions that demonstrated a reduction (not significant) in all microorganisms tested were considered, this increased to 100%. Eight studies implemented bundled interventions, and 88% (7/8) demonstrated statistically significant reductions in HAI or colonization for at least one of the microorganisms tested [41, 43–48], although the study by Anderson et al. [48] only demonstrated significant reduction in one of the two test wards. The remaining study demonstrated no reduction [42].

Sub-group analyses were conducted for the most frequently implemented interventions (Table 3): ultraviolet-C light (UVC), hydrogen peroxide (both liquid and gaseous), and human factors. UVC interventions were implemented in six studies [23, 24, 27, 29, 30, 48]. Of these, one study was bundled [48]. The interventions were recommended for application by the authors in four (67%) of the studies [24, 27, 29, 48]. Reductions in colonization/HAI were significant in those same four studies, though not for all microorganisms tested [27, 48].

Five studies assessed the implementation of gaseous hydrogen peroxide [31, 35, 36, 45, 46]; two were bundled interventions [45, 46]. The interventions were recommended for application by authors in all studies, and all reductions were statistically significant. Three studies assessed liquid hydrogen peroxide [32, 33, 46]. The interventions were recommended in all studies, and the reductions in colonization/HAI were statistically significant in two studies [33, 46].

Human factors studies encompassed all interventions that included training and education, monitoring and feedback, and promotion of institutional safety climate. Nine studies assessed the implementation of human factors [38–42, 44–47]; six were bundled interventions [41, 42, 44–47]. The interventions were recommended by the authors in 78% (7/9) of the studies [38, 40, 41, 44–47], though one only recommended it for VRE [47].
Reductions in colonization/HAI were significant in those same studies.

One study performed a cost analysis. The installation of high efficiency particulate air (HEPA) filters was found to decrease the cost per patient; it is to note that these findings were significant in both $ and €, but did not reach the threshold for significance in Turkish Lira [26]. Another article suggested that gaseous hydrogen peroxide decontamination was cost-effective for *C. difficile*, based on the estimated minimum cost of nosocomial *C. difficile* infection per year [36].

**Analysis by microorganism (Table 2)**
Half of the studies (13/26) observed the impact of an intervention on methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) and/or *S. aureus* [25, 27, 29, 30, 32–34, 37, 41, 42, 46–48]. Of these, 62% (8/13) were recommended for application by the study authors [29, 32–34, 37, 41, 46, 48]. One study that recommended the
Table 2  Results of the environmental hygiene studies organized by type of intervention; systematic review; N = 26

| Type of intervention | Study title                                                                 | Year | Authors               | Study design                          | Interventions                                                                 | Sample size proxy | Sample size (patients) | Control | Microorganisms studied for colonization or HAI (same type) | Outcome: rate/reduction/cases | Method recommended* | Quality | Grade | Reduction in Bioburden | Comments                                                                 |
|----------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|-----------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|---------|-------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|---------|-------|----------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Mechanical           | Protective isolation in a burns unit: the use of plastic isolators and air curtains [25] | 1971 | Lowbury et al         | Prospective quasi experimental study  | Isolators for burn patients (plastic, ventilated, air curtains both open and closed topped, with pre-filter and main filter) | NA                | 84                      | Open wards | Coliform bacilli, *P. aeruginosa*, *Proteus* spp., *S. aureus* | Lower incidence of infection with *P. aeruginosa* with intervention. *Proteus* spp. and miscellaneous coliform bacilli appeared on burns at least as often in isolators as in the open ward | No                   | 12     | B       | Yes                  | Limited results for *P. aeruginosa*. other IPC measures are more important |
| Mechanical           | Lack of nosocomial spread of Varicella in a pediatric hospital with negative pressure ventilated patient rooms [28] | 1985 | Anderson et al        | Prospective before and after study   | Negative pressure ventilation NA                                                | 125               | No                      | H. zoster, V. zoster | No cases of nosocomial spread in the new facility; with infected patients put in negative pressure rooms | 6                           | C       | NA      | –                                  | In a preceding study in an isolation facility without negative pressure ventilation, nosocomial infections occurred in 7 out of 41 susceptible patients who were on the same ward as two patients with chickenpox |
| Mechanical           | Implementation and impact of ultraviolet environmental disinfection in an acute care setting [29] | 2014 | Haas et al            | Retrospective before and after study | Pulsed Xenon UVC disinfection in the operating rooms (daily), dialysis unit (weekly), and terminal disinfection for all burn unit discharges | 11,389         | No                      | N/A                  | C. difficile, MDR Gram-negative, MRSA, VRE | Significant reduction in both incidence rates and HAI for VRE, MRSA, resistant gram-negative bacteria and C. difficile | Yes                  | 9       | C       | NA                  | –                                                                         |
### Table 2 (continued)

| Type of intervention | Study title | Year | Authors | Study design | Interventions | Sample size proxy | Sample size (patients) | Control | Microorganisms studied for colonization or HAI (same type) | Outcome: rate/reduction/cases | Method recommended* | Quality Grade | Reduction in Bioburden | Comments |
|----------------------|-------------|------|---------|--------------|----------------|-------------------|------------------------|---------|-------------------------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------|---------------|------------------|---------|
| Mechanical           | A Quasi-Experimental Study Analyzing the Effectiveness of Portable High-Efficiency Particulate Absorption Filters in Preventing Infections in Hematology Patients during Construction [26] | 2016 | Özen et al | Retrospective: HEPA filters before and after study | NA | 413 | No | Invasive fungal infections | Reduction of the HAI rates and reduction of invasive fungal infections in all of the patients following the installation of the HEPA filters. Intervention was significantly protective against IFI infection for specific groups of patients | Yes | 10 | C | NA | Aspergillus was mentioned in abstract but not specifically analyzed. But initial assessment was on the infection rates of both bacteria and fungi. Economic results should be taken cautiously because patients’ bills are unclear and significance of results depends on exchange rates. |
| Mechanical           | Impact of pulsed xenon ultraviolet light on hospital-acquired infection rates in a community hospital [27] | 2016 | Vianna et al | Prospective before UVC terminal disinfection | > 4400 rooms | NA | No | C. difficile, MRSA, VRE | In non-ICU areas, significant reduction of C. difficile, no increased significant reduction of VRE, and significant increase of MRSA. In the ICU, reduction of all infections, but only a significant reduction for VRE | Yes, (though MRSA increased significantly) | 5 | D | NA | In non-ICU only C. difficile rooms received the intervention, which explains the results for the other pathogens |
Table 2 (continued)

| Type of intervention | Study title                                                                 | Year   | Authors       | Study design                        | Interventions                                                                 | Sample size proxy | Sample size (patients) | Control | Microorganisms studied for colonization or HAI (same type) | Outcome: rate/reduction/cases | Method recommended | Quality Grade | Grade | Reduction in Bioburden | Comments |
|----------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|---------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|---------|------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------|-------------|--------|------------------------|----------|
| Mechanical           | Pulsed xenon ultraviolet light disinfection in a burn unit impact on environmental bioburden, multidrug-resistant organism acquisition and healthcare associated infections [30] | 2017   | Green et al   | Prospective before and after study | Pulsed Xenon UVC terminal disinfection for *C. difficile* associated disease rooms, and same daily disinfection | 653 occupied bed days | NA                     | No      | *C. difficile*, *Extended spectrum beta-lactamase Enterobacteriaceae*, *MDR* *P. aeruginosa*, *MDR* *S. maltophilia* | No statistically significant impact on HAI or MDR organisms acquisition. After intervention the ICU experienced along interval without HAI-*C. difficile* infection | No                 | 8           | C             | Yes    | -                      | Intervention period too short to really measure effect on colonization and HAI; study was not designed for this |
| Mechanical           | Evaluation of an ultraviolet room disinfection protocol to decrease nursing home microbial burden, infection and hospitalization rates [24] | 2017   | Kovach et al  | Prospective before and after study | Pulsed Xenon UVC terminal disinfection and shared living spaces disinfection | 247               | NA                     | No      | N/A | Significant reductions in nursing home acquired relative to hospital-acquired infection rates for the total infections. Significant reduction of Hospitalizations for infection, with a notable reduction in hospitalization for pneumonia | Yes | 6 | C | Yes | - |
### Table 2 (continued)

| Type of intervention | Study title                                                                 | Year | Authors | Study design | Interventions                                    | Sample size proxy | Sample size (patients) | Control | Microorganisms studied for colonization or HAI (same type) | Outcome: rate/reduction/cases | Method recommended* | Quality | Grade | Reduction in Bioburden | Comments |
|----------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|---------|--------------|-------------------------------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|---------|----------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|---------|-------|------------------------|----------|
| Mechanical           | Effectiveness of ultraviolet disinfection in reducing hospital-acquired *Clostridium difficile* and vancomycin-resistant Enterococcus on a bone marrow transplant unit [23] | 2018 | Brite et al | Prospective before and after study | Pulsed Xenon UVC disinfection and active surveillance | NA                | 579                    | No                  | *C. difficile, VRE* | No significant reduction in the incidence of VRE or *C. difficile* after the intervention | No | 11 | 8 | NA | - |
| Chemical             | Impact of hydrogen peroxide vapor room decontamination on *Clostridium difficile* environmental contamination and transmission in a Health-care setting [31] | 2008 | Boyce et al | Prospective before and after study | Gaseous hydrogen peroxide terminal disinfection and intensive disinfection in high incidence wards | NA | No | *C. difficile* | Significant reduction of the nosocomial *C. difficile* incidence | Yes | 8 | C | Yes | Study was after an epidemic, once the strain had become endemic |
| Type of intervention | Study title                                                                 | Year | Authors               | Study design | Interventions                                                                 | Sample size proxy | Sample size (patients) | Control | Microorganisms studied for colonization or HAI (same type) | Outcome: rate/reduction/cases | Method recommended* | Quality | Grade | Reduction in Bioburden | Comments |
|----------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|----------------------|--------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|---------|----------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|---------|--------|-----------------------|----------|
| Chemical             | Implementation of hospital-wide enhanced terminal cleaning of targeted patient rooms and its impact on endemic *Clostridium difficile* infection rates [35] | 2013 | Manian et al         | Retrospect before gaseous hydrogen peroxide and after study | Gaseous hydrogen peroxide | 196,313 patient-days | NA | No | *C. difficile* | Significant reduction of the nosocomial *C. difficile* associated disease rate between the preintervention period and intervention period | Yes | 12 | B | NA | - |
| Chemical             | Copper surfaces reduce the rate of healthcare-acquired infections in the intensive care unit [37] | 2013 | Salgado et al        | Randomized controlled trial | Copper alloy-coated objects | NA | 431 | Rooms without copper | MRSA, VRE | Significant lower rate of HAI and colonization in ICU rooms with intervention | Yes | 10 | C | Yes | Over half of intervention group not exposed to all copper surfaces, and over 13% of patients assigned to noncopper rooms were exposed to the intervention |
| Chemical             | Use of a daily 2015 disinfectant cleaner instead of a daily cleaner reduced hospital-acquired infection rates [33] | 2015 | Alfa et al           | Prospective quasi experimental study | Hydrogen peroxide disinfectant/detergent in disposable wipes | NA | Similar hospital which only used detergent except for in *C. difficile* isolation rooms | *C. difficile*, MRSA, VRE | Significant reduction of all HAIs when cleaning compliance was high, and for VRE even when compliance was lower | Yes | 13 | B | NA | - |
| Type of intervention | Study title                                                                 | Year | Authors          | Study design                                                                 | Interventions                                                                 | Sample size proxy | Sample size (patients) | Control | Microorganisms studied for colonization or HAI (same type) | Outcome: rate/reduction/cases | Method recommended | Quality Grade | Reduction in Bioburden | Comments                                                                                           |
|----------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------|------------------------|---------|----------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------|---------------|---------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Chemical             | Reduction in Clostridium difficile infection associated with the introduction of hydrogen peroxide vapour automated room disinfection | 2016 | McCord et al     | Retrospective before and after study                                        | Gaseous hydrogen peroxide terminal disinfection                               | > 3000 patients  | NA                     | No      | C. difficile                                                    | Significant reduction of the C. difficile infection rate                         | Yes                    | 6             | NA            | Intervention is potentially cost saving                                                      |
| Chemical             | Prospective cluster controlled crossover trial to compare the impact of an improved hydrogen peroxide disinfectant and a quaternary ammonium-based disinfectant on surface contamination and health care outcomes | 2017 | Boyce et al      | Randomized controlled trial                                                 | Daily cleaning with liquid hydrogen peroxide, patient feedback to staff        | 22,231             | NA                     | NA      | Quaternary ammonium, C. difficile, MRSA, VRE (bleach for C. difficile rooms) | No significant reduction of the composite colonization and infection outcome (HAI and acquisition for VRE and MRSA, HAI for C. difficile) | Yes                    | 17            | A             | Method recommended because surface contamination was also significantly lower             |
| Type of intervention | Study title | Year | Authors | Study design | Interventions | Sample size proxy | Sample size (patients) | Control | Microorganisms studied for colonization or HAI (same type) | Outcome: rate/reduction/cases | Method recommended* | Quality | Grade | Reduction in Bioburden | Comments |
|----------------------|-------------|------|---------|-------------|---------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------|----------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------|---------|-------|----------------------|----------|
| Chemical             | Environmental disinfection with photocatalyst as an adjunctive measure to control transmission of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus: a prospective cohort study in a high-incidence setting [34] | 2018 | Kim et al | Before and after prospective | Photocatalyst antimicrobial coating (TiO2) | NA | 621 | No | A. baumannii, C. difficile, MRSA, VRE | Significant reduction in MRSA acquisition rate, and no significant reduction in the MRSA and C. difficile incidence rate. Significant reduction in incidence rate of hospital-acquired pneumonia, VRE and A. baumannii increased (not significantly) | Yes, for MRSA | 11 | B | Yes - | |
| Human factors        | Clostridium difficile infection incidence: impact of audit and feedback programme to improve room cleaning [40] | 2016 | Smith et al | Retrospective before and after study | Online training, monitoring, weekly feedback | NA | 392,875 patient days | No | C. difficile | Reduction of hospital-acquired C. difficile infection incidence following the intervention. After implementing the program, the rate of decline accelerated significantly | Yes | 10 | C | NA | Results may have been affected by confounding factors |
| Human factors        | A Multicenter Randomized Trial to Determine the Effect of an Environmental Disinfection Intervention on the Incidence of Healthcare-Associated Clostridium difficile infection [39] | 2017 | Ray et al | Randomized controlled trial | Training and monitoring of EVS personnel with feedback | NA | 1,683,928 patient days | Disposable bleach, C. difficile wipes for daily and terminal disinfection, bleach, regular monitoring | No reduction in the incidence of healthcare-associated C. difficile infection during the intervention and post-intervention periods | No | 15 | B | Yes | Environment was cleaner but no effect on C. difficile infection. No correlation between bioburden and HAI |
| Type of intervention | Study title | Year | Authors | Study design | Interventions | Sample size proxy | Sample size (patients) | Control | Microorganisms studied for colonization or HAI (same type) | Outcome: rate/reduction/cases | Method recommended* | Quality | Grade | Reduction in Bioburden | Comments |
|----------------------|-------------|------|---------|-------------|---------------|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------|---------|-------|-----------------------|----------|
| Human factors        | Environmental services impact on healthcare-associated Clostridium difficile reduction [38] | 2019 | Daniels et al | Retrospective quasi experimental design | Culture of safety with constructive feedback, education, auditing certifications, and accountability | 52,290 patients | NA Hospitals where this system was already in use | C. difficile | Significant reduction in healthcare-associated C. difficile infections | Yes | 15 | B | NA | - |
| Bundle: chemical, human factors (minor) | Comparison of the effect of detergent versus hypochlorite cleaning on environmental contamination and incidence of Clostridium difficile infection [44] | 2003 | Wilcox et al | Prospective quasi experimental study | Hypochlorite with NA training | NA | Detergent | C. difficile | Significant reduction in C. difficile infection associated with the use of hypochlorite in one of the study wards but not the other, where the C. difficile infection rate increased | Yes | 11 | B | Yes | - |
| Bundle: chemical, human factors | Controlling methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) in a hospital and the role of hydrogen peroxide decontamination: an interrupted time series analysis [46] | 2014 | Mitchell et al | Retrospective before and after study | Gaseous hydrogen peroxide and discharges, liquid hydrogen peroxide disinfection swabs, monitoring and feedback | 3600 discharges, 32,600 swabs | NA | MRSA | Significant reduction of the incidence of MRSA colonization and infection after the introduction of the disinfectant | Yes | 10 | C | Yes | Study showed HEH can reduce infections, it does not prove superiority of hydrogen peroxide disinfectant, as it was compared to detergent |
| Type of intervention | Study title | Year | Authors | Study design | Interventions | Sample size proxy | Sample size (patients) | Control | Microorganisms studied for colonization or HAI (same type) | Outcome: rate/reduction/cases | Method recommended* | Quality | Grade | Reduction in Bioburden | Comments |
|----------------------|-------------|------|---------|-------------|---------------|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|---------|-------|----------------------|----------|
| Bundle: chemical/human factors | A Successful Vancomycin-Resistant Enterococci Reduction Bundle at a Singapore Hospital [45] | 2016 | Fisher et al | Prospective before and after study | Training, gaseous hydrogen peroxide, workplace reminders (first part of study, before/during breakpoint), changed bleach cleaning solution, and automated alert system (later date, after reduction) | NA | 270,000 (at least) | No | VRE | Significant reduction in the VRE rate | Yes | 10 | C | NA | Active surveillance, automated system and change in manual cleaning solution was only implemented well after the breakpoint in the reduction, so not causal for it. Minimum sample size calculated from rate and total cases of VRE over 85 months is 270,000 patients | |
| Bundle: mechanical | Enhanced terminal room disinfection and acquisition and infection caused by multidrug-resistant organisms and Clostridium difficile [the Benefits of Enhanced Terminal Room Disinfection study]: a cluster-randomised multicentre crossover study [48] | 2017 | Anderson et al | Randomised controlled trial | UVC terminal room disinfection ± Bleach | NA | 21,395 | | C. difficile, MDR A. baumannii, S. aureus, VRE | Significant reduction of composite risk of colonization for all organisms except C. difficile. For VRE, only bleach and bleach + UVC interventions caused significant reductions in HAI. No statistically significant decrease was seen when using UVC with bleach vs bleach alone (in C. difficile rooms) | Yes, when used with quaternary ammonium compounds (except for C. difficile) | 19 | A | Yes | Composite risk reduction is due to the major significant reduction for VRE | |
| Type of intervention | Study title | Year | Authors | Study design | Interventions | Sample size proxy | Sample size (patients) | Control | Microorganisms studied for colonization or HAI (same type) | Outcome: rate/reduction/cases | Method recommended* | Quality | Grade | Reduction in Bioburden | Comments |
|----------------------|-------------|------|---------|-------------|---------------|------------------|-----------------------|---------|------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------|---------|-------|------------------------|----------|
| Bundle: chemical, mechanical, workflow | Control of endemic multidrug-resistant Gram-negative bacteria after removal of sinks and implementing a new water-safe policy in an intensive care unit [43] | 2018 | Shaw et al | Prospective before and after study | Deep cleaning and disinfection of drains and valves; antibacterial water filters in the taps; external cleaning with microfiber cloths and hypochlorite solution | NA | 35,909 patients-days | No | Klebsiella, Pseudomonas spp. | Significant reduction of the incidence rates of MDR-Gram-negative bacteria after the intervention | Yes | 10 | C | NA | Different IPC interventions implemented during the study period (UVC, sink removal, antibiotic stewardship, environmental cleaning changes). No major changes in hand hygiene compliance |
| Bundle: human factors, mechanical, workflow | Reducing healthcare-associated infections by implementing separated environmental cleaning management measures by using disposable wipes of four colors [42] | 2018 | Wong et al | Prospective before and after study | Training, education and awareness regarding cleaning and 4 color coded reusable wipes | NA | 635 | Reusable wipes soaked with hypochlorite solution, visual inspection | C. difficile, MRSA, VRE | No reduction in HAI density after intervention, but it was during the follow-up period | No | 7 | C | Yes | Calling the wipes “disposable” is misleading, wipes were disposed after a number of uses depending on the color/environment |
| Bundle: chemical (minor), human factors, mechanical (minor) | An environmental cleaning bundle and health-care-associated infections in hospitals (REACH): a multicentre, randomized trial [47] | 2019 | Mitchell et al | Randomized controlled trial | Training, auditing, 3,534,439 patient bed-days | NA | Periods where hospitals were not implementing the bundle | C. difficile, S. aureus, VRE | Significant reduction of VRE infections. No significant changes in the incidence of S. aureus bacteremia and of C. difficile infections | Yes, for VRE | 19 | A | NA | Not all hospitals used the wipes, and not all disinfected appropriately for C. difficile, which explains the results |
Table 2 (continued)

| Type of intervention | Study title | Year | Authors | Study design | Interventions | Sample size proxy | Sample size (patients) | Control | Microorganisms studied for colonization or HAI (same type) | Outcome: rate/reduction/cases | Method recommended* | Quality | Grade | Reduction in Bioburden | Comments |
|----------------------|-------------|------|---------|--------------|---------------|-------------------|------------------------|---------|---------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|---------|-------|-----------------------|----------|
| Bundle: human factors, workflow | Implementation of human factors engineering approach to improve environmental cleaning and disinfection in a medical center [41] | 2020 | Hung et al | Prospective before and after study | Education, feedback, redesigned workflow of terminal cleaning and disinfection, a regular method of bleach dilution, and a checklist-form reminder) | NA | NA | No | Carbapenem-resistant A. baumannii complex, MRSA, VRE | Significant reduction in total MDRO colonization, but no reduction in HAI | Yes | S | D | Yes | Very few results on HAI, results are technically correla- no information on specific pathogens for HAI, no adjustment for confounding factors. Authors recommend measures although HAI rates did not improve |

*Recommended by the study authors, a UVC ultraviolet-C light, b MDR multidrug resistant, c MRSA multidrug-resistant S. aures; d HAI Healthcare-associated infections; e ICU Intensive Care Unit; f VRE vancomycin-resistant ente-ro cocci, g IPC infection prevention and control, h HEPA high efficiency particulate air (filter)
intervention compared a disinfectant to a detergent [46], and one which did not recommend the intervention was not powered to demonstrate a reduction in HAI [30]. 46% of the interventions (6/13) demonstrated a significant decrease in HAI/colonization [29, 33, 34, 37, 41, 46]. In one study that did not, the rate of MRSA infection increased significantly, which is unsurprising, as the intervention was only implemented in C. difficile rooms in the arm of the study with the increase [27].

Sixty-five percent of studies (17/26) observed the impact of an intervention on C. difficile [23, 27, 29–36, 38–40, 42, 44, 47, 48]. Among these, 59% of the interventions (10/17) were recommended for application by the study authors [27, 29, 31–33, 35, 36, 38, 40, 44]. Of the seven studies that were not recommended, one was not powered to be able to show a reduction in HAI and not all hospitals disinfected appropriately for C. difficile in another [30, 47]. Fifty-three percent of the interventions (9/17) demonstrated a significant decrease in HAI/colonization [27, 29, 31, 33, 35, 36, 38, 40, 44].

Forty-six percent of studies (12/26) observed the impact of a HEH intervention on VRE [23, 27, 29, 32–34, 37, 41, 42, 45, 47, 48]. Of these, 75% (9/12) recommended the intervention [27, 29, 32, 33, 37, 41, 45, 47, 48]. 58% of studies (7/12) demonstrated a significant decrease in HAI/colonization [29, 33, 37, 41, 45, 47, 48]. One study demonstrated that the intervention reduced the rate of colonization but not of HAI [41]. One study demonstrated that VRE colonization was reduced even when compliance to the intervention was lower than necessary for significantly reducing other pathogens [33].

Seven studies assessed the effect of interventions on Gram negative bacteria [25, 29, 30, 34, 41, 43, 48]. Three studies observed the impact of an intervention on A. baumannii (including carbapenem-resistant and multidrug-resistant strains) [34, 41, 48], and three on Pseudomonas (two on P. aeruginosa and one on Pseudomonas spp.) [25, 30, 43]. Klebsiella, extended spectrum beta-lactamase Enterobacteriaceae, S. maltophilia, Proteus sp. and coliform bacilli were each analyzed by only one study [25, 30, 43]. Fifty-seven percent of interventions (4/7) were recommended for application by the authors, each of which demonstrated a significant decrease in HAI/colonization [29, 41, 43, 48]. One older study [28] evaluated the role of negative air pressure rooms to prevent Varicella zoster and Herpes zoster infection. Although statistical significance was not calculated, there were no new cases after the intervention and the method was recommended by the authors [28]. Another study demonstrated the effect of air control to prevent invasive fungal infections during construction and showed an effect among oncology-haematology patients [26].

### Table 3

| Interventions                                                                 | Number | Type                                      |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|-------------------------------------------|
| UVC* [23, 24, 27, 29, 30, 48]                                                  | 6      | Mechanical                                |
| Training, monitoring, feedback [38–40]                                        | 3      | Human factors                             |
| Gaseous hydrogen peroxide [31, 35, 36]                                        | 3      | Chemical                                  |
| Liquid hydrogen peroxide [32, 33]                                             | 2      | Chemical                                  |
| Negative pressure ventilation system [28]                                     | 1      | Mechanical                                |
| Isolators and air curtains [25]                                               | 1      | Mechanical                                |
| HEPA* filters [26]                                                            | 1      | Mechanical                                |
| TiO₂ antimicrobial surface coating [34]                                        | 1      | Chemical                                  |
| Copper antimicrobial surface coating [37]                                      | 1      | Chemical                                  |
| Training and education and color-coded wipes [42]                             | 1      | Bundle: human factors and mechanical     |
| Training and education, monitoring and feedback and workflow changes [41]     | 1      | Bundle: human factors and workflow       |
| External cleaning with microfiber and hypochlorite, water filters, and deep cleaning [43] | 1 | Bundle: chemical and mechanical and workflow |
| Hypochlorite with training [44]                                               | 1      | Bundle: chemical and human factors (minor) |
| Gaseous hydrogen peroxide, change in bleach cleaning solution, training and education, monitoring and feedback, increased surveillance, and workplace reminders [45] | 1 | Bundle: chemical and human factors       |
| Gaseous hydrogen peroxide, liquid hydrogen peroxide, monitoring and feedback [46] | 1 | Bundle: chemical and human factors       |
| Training and education, monitoring and feedback, enhanced cleaning practices, disposable wipes [47] | 1 | Bundle: human factors, chemical (minor), mechanical (minor) |

* UVC ultraviolet-C light, HEPA high efficiency particulate air, TiO₂ titanium dioxide
| Study title                                                                 | Study design | Sample size | Control | Adjusted for confounding factors | Conflict of interest and reporting | Final grade |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------|-------------|---------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------|
| Prospective cluster controlled crossover trial to compare the impact of an improved hydrogen peroxide disinfectant and a quaternary ammonium-based disinfectant on surface contamination and health care outcomes [32] | 4            | 2           | 4       | 4                                | 3                                  | A           |
| Enhanced terminal room disinfection and acquisition and infection caused by multidrug-resistant organisms and *Clostridium difficile* (the Benefits of Enhanced Terminal Room Disinfection study): a cluster-randomised, multicentre, crossover study [48] | 4            | 4           | 4       | 4                                | 3                                  | A           |
| An environmental cleaning bundle and health-care-associated infections in hospitals (REACH): a multicentre, randomised trial [47] | 4            | 4           | 4       | 4                                | 3                                  | A           |
| Effectiveness of ultraviolet disinfection in reducing hospital-acquired *Clostridium difficile* and vancomycin-resistant Enterococcus on a bone marrow transplant unit [23] | 1            | 2           | 0       | 4                                | 4                                  | B           |
| Environmental disinfection with photocatalyst as an adjunctive measure to control transmission of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*: a prospective cohort study in a high-incidence setting [34] | 1            | 2           | 0       | 4                                | 4                                  | B           |
| Comparison of the effect of detergent versus hypochlorite cleaning on environmental contamination and incidence of *Clostridium difficile* infection [44] | 3            | 0           | 4       | 2                                | 2                                  | B           |
| Protective isolation in a burns unit: the use of plastic isolators and air curtains [25] | 3            | 1           | 4       | 2                                | 2                                  | B           |
| Implementation of hospital-wide enhanced terminal cleaning of targeted patient rooms and its impact on endemic *Clostridium difficile* infection rates [35] | 0            | 4           | 0       | 4                                | 4                                  | B           |
| Use of a daily disinfector cleaner instead of a daily cleaner reduced hospital-acquired infection rates [33] | 3            | 0           | 2       | 4                                | 4                                  | B           |
| Environmental services impact on healthcare-associated *Clostridium difficile* reduction [38] | 2            | 3           | 2       | 4                                | 4                                  | B           |
| A Multicenter Randomized Trial to Determine the Effect of an Environmental Disinfection Intervention on the Incidence of Healthcare-Associated *Clostridium difficile* Infection [39] | 4            | 4           | 4       | 0                                | 3                                  | B           |
| Lack of nosocomial spread of Varicella in a pediatric hospital with negative pressure ventilated patient rooms [28] | 1            | 1           | 2       | 0                                | 2                                 | C           |
| Evaluation of an ultraviolet room disinfection protocol to decrease nursing home microbial burden, infection and hospitalization rates [24] | 1            | 2           | 0       | 0                                | 3                                  | C           |
| Reduction in *Clostridium difficile* infection associated with the introduction of hydrogen peroxide vapour automated room disinfection [36] | 1            | 2           | 0       | 0                                | 3                                  | C           |
| Reducing health care-associated infections by implementing separated environmental cleaning management measures by using disposable wipes of four colors [42] | 1            | 2           | 0       | 0                                | 4                                  | C           |
| Impact of hydrogen peroxide vapor room decontamination on *Clostridium difficile* environmental contamination and transmission in a healthcare setting [31] | 1            | 0           | 0       | 4                                | 3                                  | C           |
| Pulsed-xenon ultraviolet light disinfection in a burn unit: Impact on environmental bioburden, multidrug-resistant organism acquisition and healthcare associated infections [30] | 1            | 1           | 0       | 2                                | 4                                  | C           |
| Implementation and impact of ultraviolet environmental disinfection in an acute care setting [29] | 0            | 3           | 0       | 2                                | 4                                  | C           |
The quality scoring system (Table 1) considered study design, sample size, whether there was a control, how the study adjusted for confounding factors, and issues in reporting. Table 4 shows the detailed quality scoring system results for the 26 studies. Forty-two percent of the studies (11/26) were considered to be of high-quality (grade A or B, Table 4). All studies that were of quality “A” and 1 study of quality “B” were RCTs [32, 39, 47, 48]. 27% of high-quality study interventions (3/11) were not recommended for application by the authors [23, 25, 39]. The interventions in 64% (7/11) of these studies significantly reduced colonization/HAI [33–35, 38, 44, 47, 48]. In 43% (3/7) of these studies, the reduction was only significant for specific bacteria [34, 44, 47]. Fifty-eight percent of the studies (15/26) were of lower quality (grade of C or D, Table 4). Eighty-six percent of these (13/15) significantly reduced colonization/HAI [33–35, 38, 44, 47, 48]. In 43% (3/7) of these studies, the reduction was only significant for specific bacteria [27].

A further analysis was conducted which included only the higher quality studies that used a true control, and the most commonly studied microorganisms (S. aureus, C. difficile, and VRE), in order to assess whether there was a significant reduction per pairing of each microorganism and intervention (Table 5). This resulted in 15 of pairings from five studies [32, 39, 44, 47, 48]. The distribution included five interventions for each S. aureus, C. difficile, and VRE. Eighty-seven percent of the pairings (13/15) demonstrated a reduction in colonization or HAI [32, 44, 47, 48], but only 27% of them (4/15) demonstrated a significant reduction in patient colonization or HAI [44, 47, 48]. Studies were too heterogenous to perform any kind of metaanalysis, and in those high quality studies, no two interventions on the same microorganism were comparable. Future studies in the field should aim to calculate sample sizes and be adequately powered to be able to demonstrate such reductions.

Bioburden (Table 6)
Fifty percent (13/26) of studies observed the impact of HEH interventions on environmental bioburden [24, 25, 30–32, 34, 37, 39, 41, 42, 44, 46, 48]. 100% of them demonstrated that the interventions decreased environmental bioburden. Over half (7/13) of the studies demonstrated bioburden reductions paralleled directly with a significant reduction in colonization/HAI for at least one of the microorganisms of interest [31, 34, 37, 41, 44, 46, 48].
Table 5  Effects of healthcare environmental hygiene interventions on healthcare-associated infections and patient colonization

| Author                  | Micro-organism | Intervention       | Total reduction | Significant reduction | Effect of the HEH intervention |
|-------------------------|----------------|-------------------|-----------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|
| Wilcox et al. [44]      | *C. difficile*  | Hypochlorite      | Yes             | Yes                   | Rate of colonization: NA       |
|                         |                |                   |                 |                       | Rate of HAI for both wards combined: 12.4–10 |
|                         |                |                   |                 |                       | Unit of measure: 100 admissions RR: NA CI: NA P value: < 0.05 |
| Anderson et al. [48]    | *C. difficile*  | UV                | Yes             | No                    | Rate of colonization and rate of HAI (combined): 31.6–30.4 Unit of measure: 10,000 exposure days RR: 1.0 CI: 95%CI 0.57–1.75 P value: 0.997 |
| Boyce et al. [32]       | *C. difficile*  | Liquid hydrogen peroxide | Yes             | No                    | Rate of colonization and rate of HAI (combined): 1.0–0.56 Unit of measure: number of cases per 1000 patient days RR: NA CI: NA P value: NA Composite outcome (colonization + HAI rate of all microbes): 10.3–8.0 incidence rate ratio 0.77; P = 0.068; 95%CI 0.579–1.029 |
| Ray et al. [39]         | *C. difficile*  | Training, monitoring and feedback | No             | No                    | No data available for the intervention period. rate of colonization: NA rate of HAI for preintervention period only (intervention vs. control hospitals): 5.6–5.8 Unit of measure: 10,000 patient days RR: NA CI: NA P value: 0.8 |
| Mitchell et al. [47]    | *C. difficile*  | Bundle            | No              | No                    | Rate of colonization: NA       |
|                         |                |                   |                 |                       | Rate of HAI: 2.34–2.52          |
|                         |                |                   |                 |                       | Unit of measure: 10,000 occupied bed-days RR: 1.07 CI: 95%CI 0.88–1.30 P value: 0.4655 |
| Anderson et al. [48]    | *S. aureus*    | UV                | Yes             | No                    | Rate of colonization and rate of HAI (combined): 50.3–36.5 Unit of measure: 10,000 exposure days RR: 0.78 CI: 95%CI 0.58–1.05 P value: 0.104 |
| Anderson et al. [48]    | *S. aureus*    | Bleach            | Yes             | No                    | Rate of colonization and rate of HAI (combined): 50.3–48.2 Unit of measure: 10,000 exposure days RR: 1.00 CI: 95%CI 0.82–1.21 P value: 0.967 |
| Anderson et al. [48]    | *S. aureus*    | Bundle: UV+bleach | Yes             | No                    | Rate of colonization and rate of HAI (combined): 50.3–46.9 Unit of measure: 10,000 exposure days RR: 0.97 CI: 95%CI 0.78–1.22 P value: 0.819 |
| Boyce et al. [32]       | *S. aureus* (MRSA) | Liquid hydrogen peroxide | Yes             | No                    | Rate of colonization and rate of HAI (combined): 2.79–1.96 Unit of measure: number of cases per 1,000 patient days RR: NA CI: NA P value: NA Composite outcome (colonization + HAI rate of all microbes): 10.3–8.0 incidence rate ratio 0.77; P = 0.068; 95%CI 0.579–1.029 |
| Mitchell et al. [47]    | *S. aureus*    | Bundle            | Yes             | No                    | Rate of colonization: NA       |
|                         |                |                   |                 |                       | Rate of HAI: 0.97–0.80 Unit of measure: 10,000 occupied bed-days RR: 0.82 CI: 95%CI 0.60–1.12 P value:0.2180 |
| Anderson et al. [48]    | VRE            | UV                | Yes             | No                    | Rate of colonization and rate of HAI (combined): 63.4–29.4 Unit of measure: 10,000 exposure days RR: 0.41 CI: 95%CI 0.15–1.13 P value: 0.084 |
| Anderson et al. [48]    | VRE            | Bleach            | Yes             | Yes                   | Rate of colonization and rate of HAI (combined): 63.4–31.9 Unit of measure: 10,000 exposure days RR: 0.43 CI: 95%CI 0.19–1.00 P value: 0.049 |
Interpretation

This systematic review demonstrated that interventions in environmental hygiene were often associated with a reduction in HAI in a seemingly causal way. Over half of studies demonstrated a significant decrease in colonization or HAI for all of the microorganisms tested. These results are indicative of the importance of environmental hygiene in patient safety.

There were major issues with both the heterogeneity of the interventions and the settings, as well with the quality in a number of the studies, hence the sub analyses. There are relatively few high quality studies in HEH compared to other fields, and even the use of RCTs in the field is exceedingly rare [11]. One high-quality study [49] in particular would have been useful for the review, but was excluded due to a hand hygiene intervention. Often, the primary study outcome evaluated environmental bioburden. Though HAI or patient colonization was a secondary outcome obtained from hospital data, these studies were not necessarily designed and powered to analyze this outcome. The measurable impact of HEH is likely to be more apparent if future studies are sufficiently powered.

Most of the studies that did not show a statistically significant reduction in HAI or patient colonization nonetheless recommended their interventions for application because they did greatly reduce environmental bioburden [28, 32, 38]. Though eight studies had controls [25, 32, 37, 39, 42, 44, 47, 48], many had before-and-after study designs [23, 24, 26–31, 34–36, 40, 41, 43, 45, 46], and thus did not implement appropriate controls. Two used similar institutions as “proxy” controls [33, 38]. Often, studies used the baseline rate of colonization or HAI before the intervention was implemented, and attempted to account for some confounding factors such as hand hygiene, antimicrobial use, and seasonality of the diseases of interest. In retrospect, it may have been more useful to only analyze more recent studies, because the two that were published before 2000 [25, 28] (in 1971 and 1985, respectively) were exploring different research questions and microorganisms.

The success of the interventions also depended on which microorganisms were studied, and how successfully or not specific pathogens spread through the healthcare environment. For example, VRE, known to spread through the environment, was sometimes more successfully reduced than pathogens known to frequently spread through hands from patient to patient. One study [26] testing air filters gave further support to the fact that not all microorganisms are able to be transmitted by air, unlike what some manufacturers claim.

Considering the subset analysis targeted on specific pathogens, it is important to note that not all studies were designed to demonstrate the efficacy of a particular intervention on colonization/HAI, as this was not always the primary outcome. Some interventions were recommended by the authors for application because they demonstrated a significant reduction in some pathogens but not in others. Though these outcomes were often coupled with a significant decrease in environmental bioburden, some studies were not sufficiently powered to demonstrate that the reduction was statistically significant.

Overall, the selected studies were very heterogenous; both in terms of the types of interventions and their quality. The review attempts to address some of these limitations by performing subset analyses. However, the

| Author            | Micro-organism | Intervention                     | Total reduction | Significant reduction | Effect of the HEH intervention |
|-------------------|----------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Anderson et al. [48] | VRE            | Bundle: UV+bleach                | Yes             | Yes                    | Rate of colonization and rate of HAI (combined): 63.4–39.0 Unit of measure: 10,000 exposure days RR: 0.36 CI: 95% CI 0.18–0.70 P value: 0.003 |
| Boyce et al. [32]   | VRE            | Liquid hydrogen peroxide         | Yes             | No                     | Rate of colonization and rate of HAI (combined): 6.6–5.49 Unit of measure: number of cases per 1,000 patient days RR: NA CI: NA P value: NA Composite outcome (colonization + HAI rate of all microbes): 10.3–8.0 incidence rate ratio 0.77; P = 0.068; 95% CI 0.579–1.029 |
| Mitchell et al. [47] | VRE            | Bundle                           | Yes             | Yes                    | Rate of colonization: NA rate of HAI: 0.35–0.22 Unit of measure: 10,000 occupied bed-days RR: 0.63 CI: 95% CI 0.41–0.97 P value: 0.0340 |

Studies were selected if they had a quality rating of “A” or “B” (Table 4), used a control and if they studied the three most commonly-examined microorganisms.

Significance of individual experiments on commonly studied microorganisms per method of intervention; systematic review.
Table 6 Relation between the reduction in environmental bioburden and patient colonization or healthcare-associated infection following an environmental hygiene intervention; systematic review

| Authors            | Interventions                              | Bioburden measurement: ATP/culture | Microorganisms with significant reduction for colonization | Microorganisms with significant reduction for HAI | Total microorganisms evaluated for colonization or HAI |
|--------------------|--------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------|
| Lowbury et al. [25] | Isolators for burn patients                | Settle plates of S. aureus         | NA                                                       | NA                                              | Caliform bacilli, P. aeruginosa, Proteus sp, S. aureus |
| Wilcox et al. [44] | Hypochlorite, training                      | Culture of C. difficile            | NA                                                       | C. difficile                                   | C. difficile                                         |
| Boyce et al. [31]  | Gaseous hydrogen peroxide (HPV)            | Culture of C. difficile            | No                                                       | C. difficile                                   | C. difficile                                         |
| Salgado et al. [37] | Copper alloy-coating                        | Culture of MRSA, VRE, A. baumannii, P. aeruginosa, E. coli | Composite (MRSA, VRE) | Composite (MRSA, VRE)                          | VRE, MRSA, VRE                                      |
| Mitchell et al. [46] | Gaseous HP (HPV) and liquid HP, monitoring, feedback | Culture of MRSA | MRSA | VRE and composite (MDR A. baumannii, S. aureus, VRE) | VRE for bleach and bleach + UV arms | C. difficile, MDR A. baumannii, S. aureus, VRE |
| Anderson et al. [48] | UV-C terminal room disinfection ± Bleach   | Culture of MRSA, VRE, C. difficile, MDR A. baumannii | VRE and composite (MDR A. baumannii, S. aureus, VRE) | VRE for bleach and bleach + UV arms | C. difficile, MDR A. baumannii, S. aureus, VRE |
| Boyce et al. [32]  | Liquid HP, feedback                         | Culture of MRSA, VRE, C. difficile | No                                                       | No                                              | C. difficile                                         |
| Green et al. [30]  | Pulsed Xenon UV                            | Culture of (Bacillus spp., coagulase negative staphylococci, Micrococcus spp., Corynebacterium aurimucosum, Dietzia cinnamena, Moraxella osloensis, Sphingomonas paucimobilis, mold, other presumed environmental isolates (listed as large Gram-positive cocci, Gram-positive rods, or unknown/not described); gram negative rod, MDRO, C. difficile) | No | MRSA, VRE, C. difficile, ESBL, Enterobacteriaceae, MDR P. aeruginosa, MRSA, S. maltophilia |
| Kovach et al. [24] | Pulsed Xenon UV                            | ATP, culture of gram-positive cocci or rod, gram-positive bacilli | No                                                       | NA                                              | NA                                                   |
| Ray et al. [39]    | Training, monitoring, feedback             | ATP, culture of C. difficile       | No                                                       | No                                              | C. difficile                                          |
| Kim et al. [34]    | Photocatalyst antimicrobial coating (TiO2) | Culture of Staphylococcus spp., Bacillus spp. | MRSA | No | A. baumannii, C. difficile, MRSA, VRE |
| Wong et al. [42]   | Training, education, color-coded wipes     | ATP                               | NA                                                       | No                                              | C. difficile, MRSA, VRE                             |
| Hung et al. [41]   | Education, feedback, redesigned workflow   | ATP, aerobic colony counts (ACC) of unknown micro-organisms | Composite (CRABC, MRSA, VRE) | No | CRABC, MRSA, VRE |

ATP adenosine triphosphate, CRABC Carbapenem-resistant Acinetobacter baumannii complex, MRSA multidrug-resistant S. aureus, VRE vancomycin-resistant enterococci, N/A not available
results reflect the reality of this field; there is a significant amount of work left to be done. Though COVID-19 has generated an increased global interest in HEH, the bulk of newer studies were performed during a pandemic, and were not included in this review, as interventions conducted during outbreak situations were excluded.

Conclusion

Although more high quality studies are needed, this review demonstrates a strong relation between interventions to improve HEH and a reduction in both environmental bioburden and in patient colonization or HAI. Optimal HEH practices are an integral part of patient safety and a key component to improving infection prevention and control. Healthcare institutions may be able to lower their HAI rates by improving HEH practices. The domain of HEH deserves further and better-designed field research.

Abbreviations

ATP: Adenosine triphosphate; COI: Conflict of interest; HAI: Healthcare-associated infections; HCWs: Healthcare workers; HEH: Healthcare environmental hygiene; HEPA: High efficiency particulate air (filter); ICU: Intensive care unit; IPC: Infection prevention and control; MDR: Multidrug resistant; MRSA: Multidrug-resistant S. aureus; PRISMA: Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis; QAC: Quaternary ammonium compound; RCT: Randomized controlled trial; UVC: Ultraviolet-C light; VRE: Vancomycin-resistant enterococci; WHO: World Health Organization.

Supplementary Information

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Additional file 1: Full search strategy for the systematic review on the impact of environmental hygiene interventions on healthcare-associated infections and patient colonization.

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Authors’ contributions

AP, DP and WZ worked on the conceptualization of search strategy and review. AP and DL conducted the initial search strategy and did the title/abstract reviews. AP and MS performed the full text analysis. AP, MS, PP, JS, and MDK performed the data analysis and wrote the table. AP wrote the manuscript. All authors worked on editing the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Availability of data and materials

The datasets generated and/or analysed during the current study are available in PROSPERO repository, https://www.crd.york.ac.uk/PROSPEROFILES/204909_STRATEGY_20200908.pdf. All other data are all data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article and its Additional file 1.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Ethical approval was not needed for this review.

Consent for publication

All authors consent to publication of this paper.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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