


Indiana University Health

Infection Prevention

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10/16/2011

Infection Prevention – top nine 2011



- Hand hygiene
- Device-related infections
 - Central line-associated bloodstream infections
 - Catheter-associated urinary tract infections
 - Ventilator-associated pneumonias
- Surgical site infections
- Problem pathogens
 - Clostridia difficile-associated disease
 - MDROs/antibiotic stewardship
- Viral respiratory pathogens/Hospital-acquired pneumonias
- Environmental cleaning issues
- Final thoughts

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Hospital-Acquired Infections



- Annual Healthcare-associated infections (HAI) in U.S. = 1.7 million
 - 4.5 infections per 100 admissions
- Deaths associated with HAIs

- Pneumonia	35,967
- Bloodstream infections	30,665
- Urinary Tract Infections	13,088
- Surgical Site Infections	8,205
- Other sites	11,062

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The Cost of Healthcare-associated Infections



- APIC analysis (2007)
 - Analyzed 1.69 million admissions from 77 hospitals
 - Estimated average reduction in inpatient net margins per infected patient of \$5,018
 - Determined average incremental direct **cost** for patient with HAI as \$8,832

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The Cost of Healthcare-associated Infections



- APIC analysis (2007): payer mix
 - Patients without infection
 - 36.7% Medicare
 - 28.1% Commercial
 - 13.7% Medicaid
 - 21.4% Other
 - Patients with infection
 - 57.2% Medicare*
 - 17.2% Commercial
 - 11.4% Medicaid
 - 14.2% Other

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The Cost of Healthcare-associated infections



- JSI Massachusetts study
 - Median cost by infection:

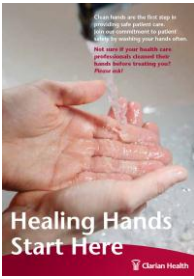
	xs-Cost	xs-LOS
• VAP	\$17,904	9.6
• BSI	\$15,153	12.0
• CABG-associated SSI	\$18,057	25.7
• UTI	\$ 1,257	n.e.
 - Increased resistance, increased cost

• MRSA bacteremia	\$ 6,916	2.2
• MRSA surgical infection	\$13,901	2.6
• VRE infection	\$12,766	6.2
• R-Pseudomonas infection	\$11,981	5.7
• R-Enterobacter infection	\$29,379	9.0

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Improvement Plan



- 2010 Marketing and communication Plan with increased emphasis of engaging the patient and family
 - Facility based teams to determine additional improvement strategies
 - Recommended Approaches
 - Use Targeted Solution Tool from JC
 - Leadership lead SWAT Team
 - Development of Unit Based Infection Control experts
 - Addressing the culture of safety and speaking up

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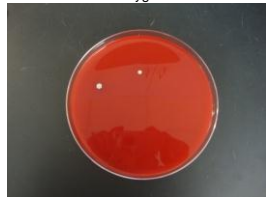
Why is Hand Hygiene important?



Actual IU Health Employee hand without hand hygiene



Actual IU Health Employee hand after hand hygiene



Hand Hygiene

- Save Lives
- Prevents patient harm
- Prevents us from taking germs home to our families

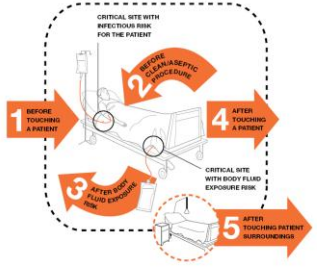
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Moments for Hand Hygiene



While **entry** and **exit** are "moments" for hand hygiene there are other times we should always perform hand hygiene:

1. Before clean or aseptic procedures such as handling a IV or foley
2. After exposure to body fluid exposure risk such as emptying a foley or urinal
3. After touching patient surroundings



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Measuring HCW Hand Hygiene Compliance: Emerging Technologies



- Observational surveys by trained personnel considered the “gold standard”
- Self-reporting
- Measuring product consumption
- Electronic hand hygiene monitoring systems
 - Dedicated hand hygiene monitoring systems
 - Real-time locating systems (RTLS) for tracking HCWs and hand hygiene events
 - HCWs badged, wireless systems
 - Video monitoring of hand hygiene activity

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Device-related infections



- Central line-associated bloodstream infections
- Catheter-associated urinary tract infections
- Ventilator-associated pneumonias

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CVL-BSI Independent risk factors (in 2 or more published studies)



- Prolonged hospitalization before catheterization
- Prolonged duration of catheterization
- Heavy microbial colonization at the insertion site
- Heavy microbial colonization of the catheter hub
- Internal jugular catheterization
- Neutropenia
- Prematurity (birth at an early gestational age)
- Total parenteral nutrition
- Substandard care of the catheter (excessive manipulation of the catheter or reduced nurse-to-patient ratio)

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Major organisms responsible for nosocomial infections



- CLABSI
 - Coag neg Staph 34%
 - Enterococcus sp. 16%
 - Candida sp. 12%
 - **Staphylococcus aureus** 10%
 - Klebsiella pneumoniae 5%
 - Enterobacter sp. 4%
 - Pseudomonas aeruginosa 3%
 - E. coli 3%
 - Acinetobacter baumannii 2%
 - Klebsiella oxytoca 1%
 - Other 10%

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Strategies to Prevent CVL-BSI: Before Insertion!



- **Educate** healthcare personnel:
 - Include indications for use, risks, and appropriate insertion and maintenance
 - Require an educational program of those performing insertion and maintenance of central line catheters
 - Require a credentialing process for those inserting a CVL to ensure competency before they independently insert a CVL
 - Periodically assess HCW knowledge of and adherence to preventive measures

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Strategies to Prevent CVL-BSI: At time of insertion



- Use a catheter checklist to ensure and document compliance with aseptic technique
 - HCWs empowered to stop procedure if breaches in aseptic technique are observed!
- Perform hand hygiene prior to catheter insertion or manipulation
- Avoid using femoral vein for CVL access
- Use an all-inclusive catheter cart or kit
- Use maximal sterile barrier precautions during CVC insertion
- Use chlorhexidine (CHG)-based antiseptic for skin preparation in patients older than 2 months of age (and allow to dry)

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Strategies to Prevent CVL-BSI: After insertion



- Disinfect catheter hubs, needleless connectors, and injection ports before accessing the catheter
- Using either alcohol-CHG or alcohol preparation
Remove nonessential catheters
Change dressings and perform site care with CHG-based antiseptic
- Every 5-7 days for transparent dressings or more frequently if dressing is soiled, loose or damp
- Every 2 days or more frequently if dressing is soiled, loose or damp
Replace administration sets not used for blood, blood products, or lipids at intervals no longer than 96 hrs
Perform surveillance for CVL-BSI,
- Unit-specific rates reported regularly to the units, physician and nursing leadership and hospital administrators overseeing the units

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Horizontal lines for notes

Strategies to Prevent CVL-BSI: accountability



- The hospital's CEO and senior management are responsible for ensuring that the healthcare system supports an infection control program and effectively prevents CVL-BSIs.
- Adequate number of infection control practitioners
- HCWs competent to perform job responsibilities
Direct HCWs are responsible for ensuring that appropriate infection prevention and control practices are used at all times
- Unit leadership to hold these individuals accountable
Infection control program leadership responsible for ensuring that an active program to identify CVL-BSIs is implemented, that data is analyzed and feedback provided.

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Horizontal lines for notes

Strategies to Prevent CVL-BSI: special approaches available



- Bathe ICU pts > 2 months of age with CHG daily
Use antiseptic or antimicrobial-impregnated CVLs for adult patients
Use of CHG-containing sponge dressings for CVLs in patients older than 2 months of age
Coated Luer-activated devices (needleless connectors) with impregnated alcohol/antimicrobials
Use antimicrobial locks for CVLs (consider only for the following):
- Prophylaxis for patients with limited venous access and history of recurrent CVL-BSIs
- Patients who are at heightened risk for severe sequelae from CVL-BSI (recently implanted intravascular devices)

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Horizontal lines for notes

Strategies to Prevent CVL-BSI: UNresolved issues



- Nurse-pt ratio and use of float nurses in ICUs
 - Observational studies suggest at least 2:1 ratio in ICUs where nurses are managing patients with CVLs, and that float nurses be minimized
- IV therapy teams
 - Studies show reduction in infection rates with peripheral vascular catheters, but few studies performed assessing CVL-BSIs.
- Surveillance of other types of catheters (arterial)
- Estimating catheter days for determining incidence density of CVL-BSIs (use with limited workforce)

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Performance Measures: CVL-BSI



- Process measures
 - Compliance with checklist in all hospital settings where CVLs are inserted
 - Compliance with documentation of daily assessment regarding need for continuing CVL access
 - Compliance with cleaning of catheter hubs and injection ports before they are accessed
 - Compliance with avoiding femoral vein site for CVC insertion in adults
- Outcome measures
 - CVL-BSI rates

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Central line bundle



- Hand hygiene
- Maximal barrier precautions
- Chlorhexidine (CHG) skin antisepsis
- Optimal catheter site selection, with the subclavian vein as the preferred site for non-tunneled catheters
- Daily review of line necessity, with prompt removal of unnecessary lines

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Ventilator-associated Pneumonia



- Pathophysiology: VAP arises when there is bacterial invasion of the pulmonary parenchyma in a patient receiving mechanical ventilation by
 - Aspiration of secretions, or
 - Colonization of the aerodigestive tract, or
 - Use of contaminated equipment or medications
- Risk Factors:
 - Prolonged intubation
 - Enteral feeding
 - Witnessed aspiration
 - Paralytic agents
 - Underlying illness
 - Extremes of age

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Major organisms responsible for nosocomial infections



- VAP

- Staphylococcus aureus	24%
- Pseudomonas aeruginosa	16%
- Enterobacter sp.	8%
- Acinetobacter baumannii	8%
- Klebsiella pneumoniae	8%
- E. coli	5%
- Candida sp.	3%
- Klebsiella oxytoca	2%
- Coag negative Staph	1%
- Enterococcus	1%
- Other	23%

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Strategies to Prevent VAP: General Measures



- Conduct active surveillance for VAP
- Adhere to hand hygiene guidelines
- Use non-invasive ventilation whenever possible
- Minimize the duration of ventilation
- Perform daily assessments of readiness to wean and use weaning protocols
- Education of HCWs who care for patients on mechanical ventilation about VAP

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Strategies to Prevent VAP:
Prevent Aspiration



- Maintain patients in a semi-recumbant position (elevate HOB 30-45 degrees) unless contraindicated
- Avoid gastric overdistention
- Avoid unplanned extubation and re-intubation
- Use a cuffed endotracheal tube with in-line or subglottic suctioning

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Strategies to Prevent VAP:
Reduce Colonization



- Orotracheal intubation preferred over nasotracheal intubation
- Avoid H2 blocking agents and proton pump inhibitors for patients who are not at high risk for developing a stress ulcer or stress gastritis
- Perform regular oral care with an antiseptic solution. Optimal frequency not established

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Strategies to Prevent VAP:
Minimize Contamination



- Use sterile water to rinse reusable respiratory equipment
- Remove condensate from ventilatory circuits, keeping the circuit closed
- Change the ventilatory circuit only when visibly soiled or malfunctioning
- Store and disinfect respiratory therapy equipment properly

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Performance Measures: VAP



- Process measures
 - Compliance with hand hygiene guidelines
 - Compliance with daily sedation interruption and assessment of readiness to wean
 - Compliance with regular antiseptic oral care
 - Compliance with semi-recumbent positioning or all eligible patients
- Outcome measures
 - VAP rates

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Vent bundle



- Elevation of head of bed 30-45 degrees
- Daily sedation vacation and daily assessment of readiness to extubate
- Peptic ulcer disease prophylaxis
- Deep vein thrombosis prophylaxis unless contraindicated

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The Burden of Catheter-associated Urinary Tract Infections (CAUTI)



- UTI – most common hospital-acquired infection
 - 80% are associated with an indwelling catheter
- 12-16% of hospitalized patients will have a urinary catheter sometime during their hospital stay
- Daily risk of acquiring a urinary tract infection is between 3-7% with an indwelling urinary catheter in place

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Major organisms responsible for nosocomial infections



- CAUTI
 - E. coli 21%
 - Candida sp. 21%
 - Enterococcus 15%
 - Pseudomonas aeruginosa 10%
 - Klebsiella pneumoniae 8%
 - Enterobacter sp. 4%
 - Coag negative Staph 3%
 - Staphylococcus aureus 2%
 - Acinetobacter baumannii 1%
 - Klebsiella oxytoca 1%
 - Other 14%

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Strategies to Prevent CAUTI



- Provide and implement written guidelines for catheter use, insertion and maintenance
- Ensure that only trained, dedicated personnel insert urinary catheters
- Ensure that supplies necessary for aseptic technique catheter insertion are available
- Implement a system for documenting the following information in the patient record:
 - Indication for catheter insertion
 - Date, time and person who inserted catheter
 - Date and time of catheter removal
- Ensure that there are sufficient trained personnel and technology resources to support surveillance of catheter use and outcomes

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Indications for the use of indwelling urethral catheters



- Peri-operative use for selected surgical procedures
- Urine output monitoring in critically ill patients
- Management of acute urinary retention and urinary obstruction
- Assistance in pressure ulcer healing for incontinent residents
- As an exception, at patient request, to improve comfort

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UNresolved issues in CAUTI



- Use of antiseptic solution vs. sterile saline for meatal cleaning before catheter insertion
- Use of antimicrobial catheters for selected patients at high risk of infection

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Performance Measures: CAUTI



- Process measures
 - Compliance with documentation of catheter insertion and removal dates
 - Compliance with documentation of indication for catheter placement
- Outcome measures
 - Rates of CAUTI

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Surgical Site Infections



- SSIs occur in 2-5% of patients undergoing inpatient surgery in the U.S. (approximately 500,000 SSIs/year)
- Each SSI is associated with approx 7-10 additional post-op hospital days.
- Patients with SSIs have a 2-11 times higher risk of death, compared with operative patients without an SSI.
 - 77% of deaths among patients with SSIs directly attributable to SSI
- Attributable costs of SSIs vary, depending on type of operative procedure and type of infecting pathogen; published estimates range from \$3,000 - 29,000.

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Major organisms responsible for nosocomial infections



- SSI
 - Staphylococcus aureus 30%
 - Coag neg Staph 14%
 - Enterococcus 11%
 - E. coli 10%
 - Pseudomonas aeruginosa 6%
 - Klebsiella pneumoniae 3%
 - Candida sp. 2%
 - Klebsiella oxytoca 1%
 - Acinetobacter baumannii 1%
 - Other 20%

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Major organisms causing nosocomial infections: SSIs



Abdominal		OB/GYN	
- E. coli 19%		- S. aureus 28%	
- Enterococcus 19%		- Coag neg Staph 12%	
- S. aureus 13%		- E. coli 10%	
Cardiac		Orthopedic	
- S. aureus 33%		- S. aureus 49%	
- Coag neg Staph 22%		- Coag neg Staph 15%	
- Ps. aeruginosa 7%		- Enterococcus 9%	
Neurological		Vascular	
- S. aureus 51%		- S. aureus 31%	
- Coag neg Staph 16%		- Ps. aeruginosa 9%	
- Enterobacter 5%		- E. coli 9%	

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Existing guidelines and recommendations to prevent SSIs



- **HICPAC 1999**
 - Intrinsic (patient-related) characteristics
 - Extrinsic, procedure-related factors
- **SIP collaborative (CMS) 2002**
 - Focused on 3 performance measures for quality improvement related to ATB prophylaxis (timing, choice and discontinuation), and 7 procedures (cardiac surgery, hip and knee arthroplasty, vascular surgery, colorectal surgery, abdominal and vaginal hysterectomy)
- **SCIP (extension of SIP) 2003 - IHI supported**
 - Added 3 additional performance measures (proper hair removal, blood glucose control on post op days 1 and 2, and maintenance of perioperative normothermia for patients undergoing colorectal surgery)

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Prevention of Surgical Site Infections



- Intrinsic, patient related
 - Unmodifiable (age)
 - Modifiable
 - Glucose control
 - Obesity
 - Smoking cessation
 - Immunosuppressive medications
- Extrinsic, procedure-related

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Prevention of Surgical Site infections



- **Extrinsic, procedure-related**
 - Preparation of the patient
 - Hair removal appropriate
 - Pre-op infections treated
 - Operative characteristics
 - Surgical scrub
 - Skin preparation
 - Antimicrobial prophylaxis (timing, choice and discontinuation)
 - Surgeon skill/techniques
 - Asepsis standards
 - Operative time
 - Operating room characteristics
 - Ventilation
 - Traffic
 - Environmental surfaces
 - Sterilization of surgical equipment

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Prevention of Surgical Site Infections



- **SCIP 1** antibiotic timing < 1 hr prior to incision
- **SCIP 2** appropriate antibiotic choice
- **SCIP 3** discontinuation of antibiotics within 24 hrs post-op (48 hrs for CV surgery)
- **SCIP 4** glucose control in CV patients

- **SCIP 6** appropriate hair removal (no razors)
- **SCIP 7** normothermia in colorectal surgery

- **SCIP 9** discontinuation of foley catheter by POD 2
- **SCIP 10** use of normothermia devices post-op

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Preventing Surgical Site Infections



- NEJM Jan 2010, Darouiche (6 centers in U.S.)
 - 849 pts undergoing clean-contaminated surgery, pre-op skin prep randomized to CHG-alcohol (**ChloroPrep**) vs. povidone-iodine with 30 day follow up.
- Overall SSI Results:
- CHG-Alcohol 9.5% **(60% reduction in SSIs)**
 - Pov-Iodine 16.1%

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Preventing Surgical Site Infections

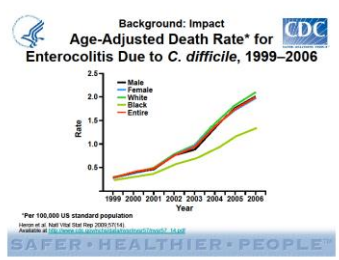


- NEJM Jan 2010, Bode (5 hospitals - Netherlands study group)
 - 6771 patients screened on admission with 1251 patients (18.8%) having + nasal swabs for *S. aureus*. 808 of these 1251 patients underwent a surgical procedure. Patients who were > 18 yrs old and anticipated to be hospitalized for 4 days or more and were colonized (but not actively infected) with *S. aureus* (918 pts) were randomized to receive either **nasal Mupirocin 2% BID + CHG daily x 5 days** vs. placebo with 6 wk follow up.
- Results:
- 49 patients (includes both surgery and non-surgery patients) developed nosocomial *S. aureus* infections
 - 17 in Mupirocin/CHG group (3.4%)
 - 32 in the placebo group (7.7%)
 - The majority of patients colonized with *S. aureus* underwent surgical procedures and deep and superficial surgical site infections occurred less often in those given mupirocin/CHG vs. those given placebo. **(> 40% reduction in SSIs)**
 - Mupirocin/CHG group 4 of 441 deep SSI (0.9%); 7 superficial SSI
 - Placebo group 16 of 367 deep SSI (4.4%); 13 superficial SSI

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Clostridia difficile



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C. Difficile



- Treatment
 - Discontinuing antibiotics that may be contributing to the problem (15-25% may resolve with this maneuver)
 - Metronidazole - 500mg TID x 2 wks for mild-mod dis
 - Vancomycin - 125 - 500mg QID QID x 2 wks for mod-severe disease (taper - pulse Rx for recurrences?)
 - Saccharomyces boulardii 500mg BID x 28 days ?
 - Rifaximin 200-400 mg BID-TID x 28 days
 - Fidaxomylin 200 mg BID x 10 days - appears to result in less recurrences
 - Toxin binders (cholestyramine)?
 - Immunoglobulins?
 - Fecal microbiota transplantation?

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Multidrug-resistant organisms (MDROs)



- ESKAPE
 - Enterococcus faecium (VRE)
 - Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA)
 - Klebsiella pneumoniae
 - Acinetobacter baumannii
 - Pseudomonas aeruginosa
 - Enterobacter species
- New mechanisms of resistance among GNRs
 - New Delhi metallo-B-lactamase

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MDR-GNRs: new strategies?

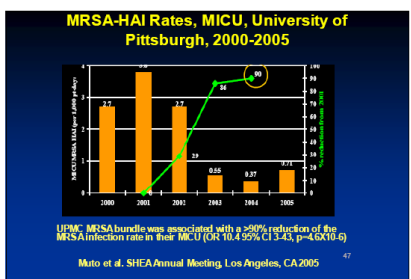


- Empiric combination therapy using a carbapenam with other antibiotic classes should be used first-line in critically ill patients at risk for MDR-GNR
- Pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic optimization of antibiotics with GNR activity can overcome resistance associated with MDR-GNRs
- Strategies to limit antibiotic exposure, such as shorter courses of antibiotics attenuates the emergence of MDR-GNRs
- Active surveillance of MDR-GNRs with isolation should be an active component of infection control bundles to prevent proliferation of MDR-GNRs

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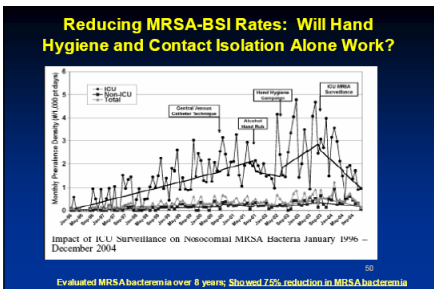
University Of Pittsburgh MRSA Control 2000-2005



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Harvard: Sequential Tools For MRSA Control 1996 – 2004



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Asymptomatic MRSA colonization: Is it important?



- Does it predict infection?
- Two 3-month study periods in 2000: 209 patients identified as newly colonized or infected with MRSA (BWH, Harvard) – followed for 18 months
 - 60 patients (29%) developed new MRSA infections within 18 months
 - 48 of 60 (80%) developed the next infection at a "new" site
 - 90 infections occurred in these 60 patients
 - 25 of 90 (28%) were bacteremias
 - 50 of 90 (56%) were pneumonias, soft tissue, or bone/joint infections (osteomyelitis or septic arthritis)
 - 44 of 90 (49%) became manifest after discharge from the hospital

Huang et al. CID 2003; 36:281-285

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Asymptomatic MRSA vs. MSSA Colonization: Is it important?



- Does it predict infection?
- Of 758 patients cultured at time of admission and followed for 18 months:
 - 3.4% colonized with MRSA → 19% subsequently developed infections
 - 21% colonized with MSSA → 1.5% subsequently developed infections
 - Davis et al. CID 2004; 39:776-782

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MRSA Colonization Is Important



- Of those that acquired colonization during their hospitalization:
 - if it was MRSA → 25% developed infection
 - if it was MSSA → 2% developed infection
- Davis et al. CID 2004; 39:776-782

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Is S. aureus nasal colonization important in ICU patients?



- Prospective Cohort Study: to determine whether MRSA colonized patients admitted to ICUs are more likely to develop any S. aureus infection in the ICU, compared with patients colonized with MSSA or not colonized with S. aureus, independent of predisposing risk factors. (note short follow up period)
- 24 bed SICU, 19 bed MICU, 1252 bed academic hospital (Barnes-Jewish) 2002 - 2007
- 9,523 patients swabbed on admission to units (98.9%)
 - 234 had S. aureus infection at time of admission (excluded)
 - 4,128 had ICU stay less than 48 hours (excluded)
 - 5,161 had ICU stay > 48 hours
 - No colonization
 - 674 colonized with MRSA (13.1%)
 - 759 colonized with MSSA (14.7%)

Honda et al, ICHE 2010; 31 (6):584-591

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CHG Bathing (“Source Control”)



- Vernon et al. Archives Internal Med 2006; 166:306-12
 - Decreased acquisition of VRE in Medical ICU
- Bleasdale et al. Archives Internal Med 2007; 167:2073-9
 - Decreased acquisition of CVL-BSI in Medical ICU where CHG daily bathing was used (crossover study between two units)

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CHG bathing in all ICU patients: impact on other patients



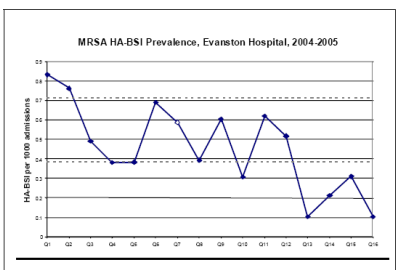
CDC epicenters program – initially reported at SHEA 2007.

- Daily CHG bathing in all ICU patients – 6 month study period at 5 major healthcare centers)
 - Reduced acquisition of MRSA by 32%
 - Reduced acquisition of VRE by 50%
 - Reduced incident CVL-BSIs by 21%

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NorthShore U Health System: ASC and CHG/decolonization



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Staphylococcus aureus colonization among HCWs



- **ICHE Dec, 2007 Johnston et al.**
 - **National estimates** 2001-2002 suggest that 32.4% of the general population is colonized with S. aureus, and only 0.8% of the population is colonized with MRSA
 - **HCW study:** 200 HCWs (MDs, nurses) followed for 6 months
 - Monthly nasal swabs, baseline and exit questionnaires describing risk factors
 - 58.5% never colonized with S. aureus
 - 13.5% were consistently colonized with S. aureus
 - 24% were found to be intermittently colonized with S. aureus
 - 4 HCWs colonized with MRSA at start of study, 4 HCWs acquired MRSA during the study. None were CA-MRSA and there were no MRSA infections in this group.
 - **Prevalence of MRSA among patients during the study**
 - Inpatient HIV was unit 33-37%
 - MICU was 21-28%

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How often do Asymptomatic HCWs cause MRSA outbreaks?



- **ICHE Oct 2006, Vonberg et al.**
- **Aug 30, 2005 Medline and PubMed search (1966-2005):** 191 outbreaks screened.
 - 11 studies provided strong evidence that a particular HCW had been the source of the nosocomial outbreak. In 8 studies, the strains of MRSA from the HCW and patients were indistinguishable.
 - In 8 of the 11 outbreaks, the implicated HCWs had an **ACTIVE INFECTION due to MRSA** (respiratory, or skin, particularly eczema).
 - In only 3 outbreaks (1.6%) was the implicated HCW asymptomatic

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VRSA: a perfect storm on the horizon?



- **MRSA** – first emerged in U.S. in the 1970s and by 1990s was endemic in most large urban medical centers
- **VRE** – first reported in a U.S. hospital in 1989 and has rapidly become a common cause of healthcare-associated infections
- 1992 Noble et al. demonstrated that conjugal transfer of the vanA gene (which mediates Vancomycin resistance) from VRE → MRSA on the skin surface of hairless mice could be achieved, creating Vancomycin-resistant S. aureus (VRSA)....

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VRSA:
a perfect storm on the horizon?



- 1997 – first case of Vancomycin-intermediate S. aureus (VISA) reported (Japan)
- June 2002 – first clinical case of VanA-mediated VRSA infection reported (Michigan)
- Since then, six additional cases confirmed by CDC
 - 1 from Pennsylvania
 - 1 from New York
 - 5 from Michigan

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VRSA:
A perfect storm on the horizon?



- Infection Control:
 - Once VRSA was identified, contact precautions were reinforced, and enhanced measures were instituted:
 - Private room, dedicated staff and equipment
 - New gloves and gowns for each patient contact
 - Masks with eye protection if deemed necessary (during wound care)
 - Thorough cleaning and disinfection of all patient rooms and equipment after each use and after discharge from hospital.
- Lab results:
 - 5 of the isolates were USA 100, 1 was USA 800, and 1 not defined
 - All isolates were susceptible to > 5 antimicrobial agents approved by FDA for treating S. aureus infections
 - All susceptible to TMP-SMX and Linezolid
 - 6 of 7 susceptible to Daptomycin and Quinupristin-dalfopristin

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VRSA:
A perfect storm on the horizon?



- The good news:
- No secondary transmission
 - Occurred in patients with underlying medical conditions, not healthy individuals
 - All 7 isolates remained susceptible to multiple antimicrobial agents
 - VRSA should be readily identified by the lab
- The bad news:
- These 7 isolates evolved through 3 distinct genetic mechanisms
 - S. aureus is continually seeking new pathways to Vancomycin resistance
 - Co-colonization of patients with MRSA and VRE is common, making the possibility of further VRSA strains developing very likely.....

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It looks clean, but is it really?



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Cleaning Practices Are Often Suboptimal



- Daily cleaning of surfaces near patients is often performed poorly
- Terminal cleaning of rooms after patient discharge is often inadequate
 - Carling et al. found that only 47% of surfaces targeted for terminal cleaning had been cleaned



Carling PC et al. Clin Infect Dis 2006;42:385
 Eckstein BC et al. BMC Infect Dis 2007;7:61

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Contaminated Surfaces Can Contribute to Transmission



- Patients admitted to a room formerly occupied by a patient with VRE or MRSA are at increased risk of acquiring the organism, suggesting that
 - terminal cleaning of rooms was inadequate
 - patients acquire the organism
 - directly from contaminated surfaces
 - from HCWs who contaminate their hands in the room

Martinez JA et al. Arch Intern Med 2003;163:1905
 Huang SS et al. Arch Intern Med 2006;166:1945
 Drees M et al. Clin Infect Dis 2008;46:678

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Does Increased Cleaning/Disinfection Help Reduce Transmission of Pathogens?

- A number of studies have shown that improved cleaning and disinfection of environmental surfaces can reduce transmission of pathogens such as *C. difficile*, vancomycin-resistant enterococci (VRE), and methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA)

Kaatz GW et al. Am J Epidemiol 1988;127:1289
 Mayfield JL et al. Clin Infect Dis 2000;31:995
 Hayden MK et al. Clin Infect Dis 2006;42:1552
 Boyce JM et al. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 2008;29:723
 Dancer SJ et al. BMC Med 2009;7:28

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Comparison of Cleaning Inspection Methods



Method	Advantages	Disadvantages
Visual inspection	Simple	Does not provide reliable assessment of cleanliness
Fluorescent marker system	Inexpensive Minimal equipment needed	Must mark surfaces before cleaning, and check them after cleaning
Aerobic colony counts	Relatively simple Detects presence of pathogens	More expensive Results not available for 48 hrs later
ATP bioluminescence assay systems	Provides quantitative measure of cleanliness Quick results	More expensive Requires special equipment New technology

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ATP Bioluminescence Assay Systems



Step 1

Use special swab to sample surface



Step 2

Place swab in reaction tube



Step 3

Place tube in luminometer
Results: Relative Light Units

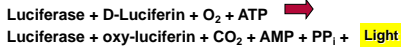
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Monitoring Cleaning Practices

- ATP bioluminescence methods have been used for years to monitor adequacy of cleaning procedures
 - in beverage and food processing industries
- Methods detect ATP from bacteria, human secretions, food



- Amount of light is proportional to concentration of ATP present

Griffith CL et al. J Hosp Infect 2000;45:19
 Malik RE et al. Am J Infect Control 2003;31:181
 Lewis T et al. J Hosp Infect 2008;69:156

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The Grading Project

- Team assembled to grade high touch surfaces in discharge clean rooms on three trial units
- Use of technology:
 - UV Pen- high touch surfaces marked with invisible ink pen and detected through UV light
 - Presence of marking after cleaning = dirty
 - ATP Device- surface is swabbed and device measures the amount of ATP (energy) that bacteria emits.
 - Any quantifiable number >30 = dirty
- High touch surfaces are graded using a combination of Pen/ATP.
 - Letter grade = Percentage of cleaned/total tested

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New Room Decontamination Methods 2011

- Adequacy of room cleaning and disinfection using chemical germicides, even post-intervention is 85% at best (focusing only on high-risk objects)...
 - Current IUHealth initiatives include
 - Infection Control practitioner embedded in the Environmental Services Dept x 6 months to assist in training/educating EVS personnel on the importance and implications of cleaning - patient safety
 - Immediate feedback (invisible markers, ATP pens, etc.) to improve cleaning techniques
 - Use of dilute bleach for all terminal cleans, daily cleaning on patients in isolation for C.difficile
- "No-touch" methods for room decontamination beginning to emerge
 - UV Irradiation
 - Hydrogen peroxide systems
 - Hydrogen peroxide/Peracetic acid system (Altapure)

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Ultraviolet Light Systems



Automated mobile UV light units that emit UV-C (254 nm range) can be placed in patient rooms after patient discharge and terminal cleaning had been performed

- Units can be set to kill vegetative bacteria or to kill spores
- Significantly reduce bacterial counts in patient rooms
- Easy to use and require relatively short cycle times



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Hydrogen Peroxide Vapor: HPV



- Ventilation ducts/doors must be taped shut
- HPV injected into empty room until defined dose delivered
- Catalytic converter converts HPV into oxygen & water vapor
- No toxic residuals
- Turn-around time for standard hospital room = ~ 2 hr 20 min
- Highly effective against Mtb, bacterial spores, fungi, viruses
- **Shown to reduce acquisition of C. difficile and VRE**

French GL et al. J Hosp Infect 2004;57:31
 Boyce JM et al. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 2008;30:723
 Otter JA et al. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 2009;30:574
 Passaretti CL et al. 48th ICAAC, 2008, Abstr K-4214b

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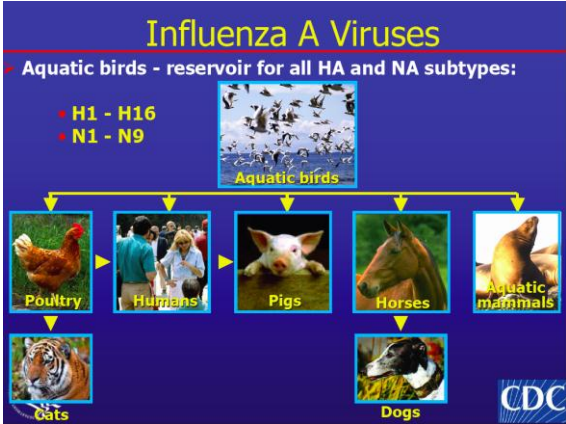
Comparison of UV and HP



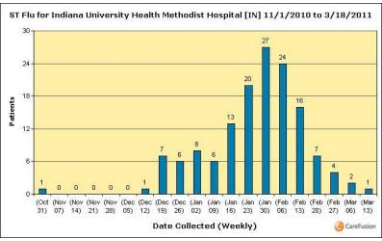
- UV
 - Faster decontamination (15 min) (longer times required for C.difficile ~50 min)
 - Room does not need to be sealed
 - No demonstrated clinical studies yet to demonstrate reduction in incidence of environmental pathogens
- HP
 - More effective at eliminating spore-forming bacteria, such as C. difficile
 - Demonstrated to reduce C.difficile incidence in a clinical study
 - Longer decontamination (3-5 hrs)
 - Room needs to be sealed

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Methodist Hospital
Influenza 2010-2011



Influenza Flu Bundle

- Vaccination to prevent!
- Stay home if you are ill!
- Cover your cough / respiratory etiquette
- Hand hygiene
- Isolation of suspected or confirmed influenza patients, consider antiviral medications
 - Mask patients as they enter healthcare facility
 - Private room, door closed
 - Surgical mask, standard precautions
 - N-95 for aerosol-generating procedures

Patients at increased risk of complications from influenza



- Children younger than 5 yrs old
- Adults 65 yrs of age or older
- Persons with the following conditions
 - Chronic pulmonary, cardiovascular, renal, hepatic, hematologic, neurologic, neuromuscular, or metabolic disorders
 - Immunosuppression, including that caused by medication or HIV
 - Pregnant women
 - Persons younger than 19 yrs old who are receiving long-term aspirin therapy
 - Residents of nursing homes/chronic care facilities

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Vaccine-Preventable Cases and Deaths in U.S. 1989 - 1998



Disease	Cases	Deaths
- Influenza	(millions)	~500,000
- Pneumococcal diseases	(millions)	~120,000
- Hepatitis A	282,650	1,013
- Hepatitis B	146,644	9,694
- Measles	60,189	132
- Mumps	24,075	7
- Rubella	4,412	21
- Pertussis	53,634	65
- Tetanus	486	77

- CDC. MMWR. 2006;55:511-515.
- Thompson W et al. JAMA. 2003;289:179-186
- Felkin D et al. Am J Public Health. 2000;90:223-229.

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The Health Consequences of Influenza



- **Disease burden** due to influenza
 - Each year, 5-20% of the US population becomes ill
 - Approx 200,000 hospitalizations in US yearly
- **Mortality** due to influenza
 - Approx 24-36,000 deaths in US yearly
 - Highest in adults > 65 and children < 2 yrs old and in those of any age who have medical conditions that put them at increased risk for complications.
 - Approx 500,000 deaths worldwide yearly
- **Healthcare expenditures** yearly due to influenza
 - \$87 billion/\$10 billion in direct medical costs (2003 estimates)
 - Work absenteeism, loss of productivity, and premature mortality
 - **Presentism** likely accounts for a significant proportion of this cost.

From Prevention and Control of Influenza with Vaccines; Recommendations of the ACIP 2010 CDC

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Arguments in Favor of Mandatory Vaccination for HCWs



- Influenza is a serious disease
- HCWs transmit influenza to high-risk patients
- Vaccination saves money, prevents workplace disruption
- Vaccination is recommended by the CDC as a standard of care
- Education has had only a modest effect
- Requirements increase vaccination rates
- HCWs have an ethical and moral duty to protect their patients
- Joint Commission's proposed standard of hitting 90% HCW influenza vaccination rate
- CMS proposed plan to include HCW influenza vaccination rate in Value-Based Purchase Plan for 2015.

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Inactivated Influenza Vaccine Efficacy



- 70-90% effective among healthy persons younger than 65 yrs of age
- 30-40% effective among frail elderly persons
- 50-60% effective in preventing hospitalization
- 80% effective in preventing death
- ACIP/CDC/MMWR 2010;59(RR-8):1-68

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Efficacy of Influenza Vaccine in HCWs



Condition in healthcare workers	Reduction documented
• Influenza infection	88%
• Sick days due to respiratory infection	28%
• Days lost from work	41%
Effect on patient population (cared for by healthcare workers)	
• Patient mortality (Potter)	41%
• Patient mortality (Carman)	39%

- Talbot, ICHE 2005; Ferry, JID 1979; Saxen, PIDJ 1999; Wilde, JAMA 1999; Carman, Lancet 2000; Potter, JID 1997

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Inactivated Influenza Vaccine Adverse Reactions



- Local reactions 15-20% (mostly mild)
- Fever, malaise not common
- Allergic reactions rare
- Guillain-Barre syndrome 1 in 1,000,000 may be at risk
- Inactivated (TIV) NEVER causes flu

• ACIP/CDC/MMWR 2010;59(RR-8):1-68

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Influenza in Healthcare Settings



- ~25% of HCWs have serologic evidence of Influenza each year
 - ~50% of HCWs who have influenza infections are asymptomatic or have only minor symptoms
 - Both symptomatic and asymptomatic HCWs can transmit influenza
- Infected persons can shed virus 1 day before symptoms appear
- Nosocomial outbreaks lead to morbidity for patients and staff as well as increased costs for the institution
 - Attack rates of up to 54% reported
 - Mortality in NICUs up to 25%
 - HCW is the primary vector
- Vectors for transmission include staff, visitors, and patients
- Observational studies in healthcare settings indicate that direct and indirect contact and droplet transmission are primary means of spread

» Malteizou Scan Infect Dis 2010 online 1-9; Stott, Occup Med 2002; Talbot, ICHE 2005; Elder, BMJ 1996; Lester, ICHE 2003

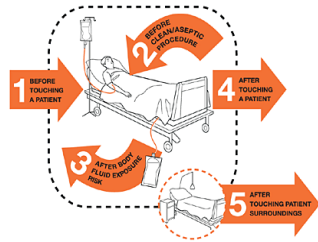
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Expanding Hand Hygiene “Beyond the Door”...



WHO 5 Moments for Hand Hygiene



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The 1847 Intervention:
Hand scrub with chlorinated lime solution



Hand hygiene basin at the Lying-In Women's Hospital in Vienna, 1847.

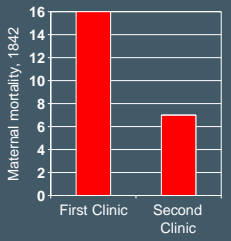
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Ignaz Semmelweis,
1815-1865



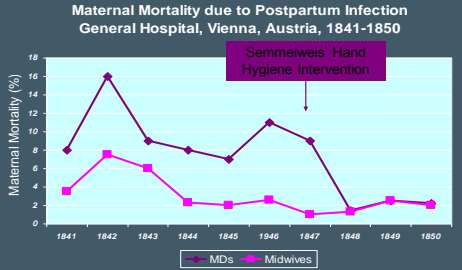
- 1840's: General Hospital of Vienna
- Divided into two clinics, alternating admissions every 24 hours:
 - First Clinic: Doctors and medical students
 - Second Clinic: Midwives



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Hand Hygiene: Not a New Concept



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Adapted from: *Hosp Epidemiol Infect Control*, 2nd Edition, 1999.

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- Hand antisepsis reduces the frequency of patient infections -

What are the “real” roots of hand hygiene and infection control?



- Medical science did not know of the existence of germs and their methods of transmission until the late 1800s, yet...
 - **Leviticus 4:11** recommends the use of **incineration** (outside of camp) to dispose of germ-filled waste of sacrificed animals
 - **Deuteronomy 23:12** recommends the use of basic **sanitation** to bury human excrement/use of latrines
 - **Leviticus 14:8**, recommends the use of **isolation** - staying outside of his tent and camp for seven days after bathing, shaving all the hair off his head, beard, and eyebrows, and washing his clothes
- **Answer: the real roots of infection control are actually from the Bible!**

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Questions?



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Questions?



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