



Since January 2020 Elsevier has created a COVID-19 resource centre with free information in English and Mandarin on the novel coronavirus COVID-19. The COVID-19 resource centre is hosted on Elsevier Connect, the company's public news and information website.

Elsevier hereby grants permission to make all its COVID-19-related research that is available on the COVID-19 resource centre - including this research content - immediately available in PubMed Central and other publicly funded repositories, such as the WHO COVID database with rights for unrestricted research re-use and analyses in any form or by any means with acknowledgement of the original source. These permissions are granted for free by Elsevier for as long as the COVID-19 resource centre remains active.



ELSEVIER



FOR DISCUSSION

How do we assess hospital cleaning? A proposal for microbiological standards for surface hygiene in hospitals

S.J. Dancer*

Scottish Centre for Infection and Environmental Health, Clifton House, Clifton Place, Glasgow G3 7LN, UK

Received 23 June 2003; accepted 19 September 2003

KEYWORDS

Hospital cleaning;
Microbiological
standards; Surface
hygiene

Summary Increasing numbers of hospital-acquired infections have generated much attention over the last decade. The public has linked the so-called 'superbugs' with their experience of dirty hospitals, but the precise role of cleaning in the control of these organisms is unknown. Hence the importance of a clean environment is likely to remain speculative unless it becomes an evidence-based science. This proposal is a call for bacteriological standards with which to assess clinical surface hygiene in hospitals, based on those used by the food industry. The first standard concerns any finding of a specific 'indicator' organism, the presence of which suggests a requirement for increased cleaning. Indicators would include *Staphylococcus aureus*, including methicillin-resistant *S. aureus*, *Clostridium difficile*, vancomycin-resistant enterococci and various Gram-negative bacilli. The second standard concerns a quantitative aerobic colony count of < 5 cfu/cm² on frequent hand touch surfaces in hospitals. The principle relates to modern risk management systems such as HACCP, and reflects the fact that pathogens of concern are widespread. Further work is required to evaluate and refine these standards and define the infection risk from the hospital environment.

© 2003 The Hospital Infection Society. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Introduction

There has been recent concern from the public, media and infection control staff over perceived inadequacies in hospital cleaning.^{1,2} There may be a

link between dirty hospitals and the rising numbers of hospital-acquired infections (HAI) but there is little evidence to be able to substantiate this at present.³ Several professional bodies have published standards or audits regarding environmental cleanliness in hospitals.^{4,5} Unfortunately, the mechanisms for evaluating the quality of hospital cleaning regimens are limited. Quite often the only

*Tel.: +44-141-300-1100; fax: +44-141-300-1172.

E-mail address: stephanie.dancer@scieh.csa.scot.nhs.uk

method used is visual assessment, which does not necessarily correspond with microbiological risk.^{6,7}

Hospital patients can acquire organisms from many sources, including the environment, but the extent to which the latter contributes towards HAI is largely unknown.^{3,8-10} This is because cleaning has never been regarded, let alone investigated, as an evidence-based science.¹¹ The difficulties in measuring cleaning efficacy are compounded by the lack of standardized methodologies and are rarely quantitative. Environmental screening usually takes place on an *ad hoc* basis after an outbreak, but it is patently impossible to screen the entire surface of a ward and finding the outbreak strain is not guaranteed. Furthermore, organisms still have to be transmitted to patients. As this is thought to occur via staff hands, strategies for controlling HAI are more likely to favour improvements in hand hygiene than comprehensive screening programmes. Cost-benefit and lack of standardized methodologies might also explain the perceived reluctance of private cleaning companies to participate in screening. Certainly, most microbiologists would be cautious about taking environmental samples from hospital wards on a routine basis.¹²

Despite the lack of evidence, the hospital environment may well act as a significant reservoir for potential pathogens.¹³ A favourable niche can quickly be found, and retained, unless disturbed by some appropriate cleaning or disinfection process.³ This reservoir can then be extended by vectors such as air turbulence, aerosolized moisture, an unwashed hand or direct contact with an inanimate object, equipment or material.^{13,14} The hands of healthcare workers may well represent the final mode of transmission, but even exemplary hand hygiene cannot be expected to break the chain of infection when the environment is heavily contaminated.^{11,14,15}

Cleaning has two main functions: first, non-microbiological, to improve or restore appearance, maintain function and prevent deterioration. Second, microbiological, to reduce the numbers of microbes present, together with any substances that support their growth or interfere with disinfection/sterilization.¹⁶ The term 'cleaning', therefore, can be interpreted in different ways.⁷ However, patients and their relatives expect a clean uncluttered environment in hospitals.¹⁰ They criticize hospitals they consider dirty and associate them with a general lack of care.^{10,16} Such consumer demands for cleaning aesthetics cannot be disputed. Maintenance of a pristine hospital environment, however, requires funding from scant NHS resources. Furthermore, there is a conflict of interests for private cleaning companies between

hygiene standards and profits. The importance of keeping a hospital clean will probably continue to be justified on grounds of 'common sense', but that may not be sufficient to attract managerial attention.¹⁷

Infection control personnel feel that there is some risk to patients from a dirty ward, but this risk is difficult to demonstrate, and even more difficult to measure. Furthermore, managers responsible for domestic services are not necessarily directed by infection control staff when attempting to set up cleaning schedules for different areas within a hospital. Basic hospital cleaning will continue to be an emotive issue for patients, and problematic for managers and infection control personnel. Without real evidence of its value, however, it is unlikely to become a priority for NHS managers.

Proposal for assessment of surface hygiene

There has always been interest in surface contamination in hospitals, perhaps more so in operating theatres and often in conjunction with air sampling.¹⁸⁻²¹ Monitoring programmes do exist for theatre surface colonization and others for specific pathogen in clinical areas of risk.²²⁻²⁵ Recently, attention has focused on areas outside the theatre environment.^{6,7,15} No one set of standards exists for general hospital wards, however, and there is considerable variation in sampling methodologies and quantitative reporting.^{7,26} There are further differences in whether sampling is carried out routinely or in response to an infection incident.^{25,27} This makes it difficult to compare fluctuating situations in a ward, between wards and between different hospitals, let alone investigate specific levels of contamination in relation to infection risk.

As cleaning could be a cost-effective method of controlling HAI, it should be investigated as a scientific process with measurable outcome. To achieve this, it is necessary to adopt an integrated and risk-based approach. This would include preliminary visual assessment, rapid sensitive tests for organic deposits and specific microbiological investigations.²⁸ Such an approach has already been established by the food industry to manage cleaning practices in a cost-effective manner and is described elsewhere.^{29,30} There is also an index of microbial air contamination (IMA) established for environments at risk, with maximum acceptable levels for different classes of contamination.³¹ Even recreational waters are analysed for microbial indicators of human sewage and the corresponding health risk.³² It has already been suggested that the

surface level environment in hospital wards should be subjected to a similar strategy.⁷

The proposal of the present work focuses upon possible bacteriological standards for assessing surface hygiene, based on standards applied in the food industry,^{29,30} but modified to reflect the differences between risk management in food preparation and the risk for acquiring infection in hospital. They are presented after consideration of all available evidence and comprise two main features: first, the identification of an indicator organism of potential high-risk to patients in any amount, and second, the quantitative assessment of organisms found within a specified area, regardless of identity. The latter is included because a heavy burden of any microbes from specified surfaces in a hospital may constitute a risk to patients. It circumvents the difficulties in locating a pathogen, when screening an entire ward. Positive findings for either standard should direct attention to the quality, quantity and methods of cleaning used. These standards would usually be applied before and after cleaning in order to assess efficacy, but could also be used during an outbreak or high-risk incident with a serious pathogen.

Both indicator organisms and those gathered within numerical counts can be identified, quantified, documented and audited. The methods required are simple, cheap and reproducible and could be adopted by any healthcare institution with access to a clinical microbiological laboratory. Furthermore, as evidence becomes available, these standards can be modified to reflect the overall risk of infection, and adapted to high-risk patients, high-risk units and emergency or outbreak situations.

Proposed standards for assessment of surface hygiene

Presence of an 'indicator' organism

Possible indicator organisms are *Staphylococcus aureus*, including methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA),^{26,33,34} *Clostridium difficile*,³⁵ multiply resistant Gram-negative bacilli^{3,26,36} (as defined by the local consultant microbiologist), vancomycin-resistant enterococci,^{26,37,38} and *Salmonella* spp. Also organisms associated with a significant infection risk in a clinical area, or associated with a serious infection incident or outbreak, e.g. aspergillus in units housing immunocompromised patients.²⁴

Standard

There should be <1 cfu/cm² of the indicator organism(s) present in the clinical environment.

The identification of an indicator organism should generate immediate attention towards cleaning/disinfection practises and frequencies. Repeat sampling is mandatory. Risk assessment would determine a hygiene review, additional cleaning, or even the closure of a clinical area for deep cleaning if thought appropriate.

Total aerobic colony count (ACC)

The total ACC is the total number of aerobic organisms from a sampled area. It can be quantified and provides a general measure of bacterial load. The US Department of Agriculture has specified that microbial counts on food-processing equipment should be <5 cfu/cm² before plant start-up and similar microbial surface counts, after cleaning, have been advocated by the Swedish Food Standards Agency.^{29,30} UK studies have used <2.5 cfu/cm² in evaluating cleaning efficacy.⁷ However, the internationally recognized figure of <5 cfu/cm² could be used as a starting point.

Surfaces destined for food preparation are not analogous to all surfaces in a hospital. It is proposed, therefore, that contaminated surfaces most likely to pose a risk to patients are those that are frequently touched by hands,^{13,39-41} and therefore, it should be these surfaces for which this standard applies.

Standard

The ACC from a hand contact surface* should be <5 cfu/cm².

* Hand contact surfaces in hospitals are too numerous to detail in full, but particularly important ones include: handles (door, locker, toilet, tap, bath and shower, cupboard, cabinet, window, chair, fridge, etc.), electrical and other switches (light, television, infusion pump, call-button, computer, hot air drier, fan, radiator, etc.), equipment (blood pressure cuff, stethoscope, tourniquets, urinary catheter bag stands, commode, waste bins, wheel-chair, walking aids, drug trolley, patient notes trolley, phlebotomy trolley, hoist, bed-cage, towel dispenser, portable X-ray machine, ventilator components, electrocardiogram machine, cot sides, etc.), telephone and computer keyboard, linen (sheets, blankets, pillow cases, patient clothing, theatre garments, curtains, woollen fleece, etc.), soft furnishings (chairs, cushions, etc.), toys, furniture (desk, chairs, nurses' station, table, lockers, etc.), shelves (particularly those used for linen, clothing or patient materials/equipment), radiators, mattresses and bed frame, etc.^{3,13,33-49} Questionable surfaces include staff clothing, uniforms and white coats; patient notes and other paper products, sterile packaging and other stored items, patients' own belongings, voluntary workers' trolley, flower vases and sharps bins.⁵⁰⁻⁵²

The finding of ≥ 5 cfu/cm² from a hand contact surface, whatever the identity of the organisms, indicates that there might be an increased risk of infection for the patient in that environment. This should generate an evaluation of the cleaning/disinfection practices and frequencies for that surface. This is based on three suppositions: first, an increased microbial burden suggests that there has been insufficient cleaning. This would increase the chances of finding a pathogen. Second, a heavy microbial burden may mask the finding of a pathogen. Third, a heavy concentration of certain organisms implies an increased chance of finding an epidemiologically related pathogen, e.g. coagulase-negative staphylococci and *S. aureus*. This surmise forms the basis of WHO standards regarding water quality.³² Repeat sampling should follow a risk evaluation, whether or not there has been a change in practice.

Conclusion

We need to be able to judge cleanliness by the same standards, even if this is done by empirically grading set situations.¹⁶ There are already internationally agreed microbiological standards for air, water and food preparation surfaces, so why not for surfaces in hospitals?²⁹⁻³² Important health effects may occur after short-term exposure to low-quality water; while the relevant hazards are multiple, they may share a common source.³² Risk management, reflected in the HACCP principle used by the food industry, encompasses the view that relevant pathogens are widespread, occurring with wide variation in time and space. Absence of a safeguard, therefore, in itself constitutes a hazard.³² This reasoning could be applied to surface level cleanliness in hospitals.

Widespread adoption of standards would allow risk assessment and evaluation of infection risks to patients (and staff) in hospitals. The ability to compare results between different clinical units and different hospitals would contribute towards further evaluation. Infection control and domestic personnel could justify their actions regarding routine and incident measures. Cleaning efficacy could be subjected to internal audit, with feedback to managers and the infection control committee for regular review. These standards would allow national and local audits on hygiene to be conducted on a scientific basis, rather than the ill-defined and almost certainly subjective criteria used to date.¹⁰ Visual assessment of hygiene has been shown to be a poor indicator of cleaning efficacy.^{6,7}

Strong justification for these proposed standards for assessing the microbiological status of hospital surfaces rests upon the current controversy surrounding dirty hospitals and the considerable levels of MRSA found in countries such as the UK, within the European league.⁵³ The increasing cost of HAI, is an important reason for a serious scientific evaluation of this most basic of control practices.^{34,54} Further justification comes from the burgeoning threat of legal activity.

Future work should encompass all available microbiological methods,²⁸ the role of rapid methods such as bioluminescence,^{6,7,28} clinical surface definitions, sampling indications and frequencies, responsibilities and cost, and should attempt to equate the environmental findings with the probability of acquiring a hospital infection. The standards will require practical evaluation and refinement. Graduated risk assessment can then be determined for all areas of the hospital, and types of patient.⁵⁵ The cost-benefit of the proposed standards, must be compared with those of hand hygiene programmes, control of antibiotic prescribing and other infection control practises.^{9,54}

With the increasing tide of antibiotic resistance, basic hygiene practices may be all we have left. Microbes other than bacteria have not been included in the standards, but additional pathogens that could be considered as indicator organisms would be norovirus, rotavirus and the recently identified coronavirus linked with severe acute respiratory syndrome.⁵⁶⁻⁵⁹ Hopefully further work will provide the evidence required to promote and evaluate hospital cleaning for the benefit of patients now, and for the future.

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge Professor Chris Griffith and his colleague, Dr Rose Cooper, from the School of Applied Sciences, University of Wales Institute, Cardiff, who have already suggested that food industry standards could be adopted for use in hospitals. I also thank Mrs Heather Knox and other members of the Scottish Working Group for Hospital Cleaning, HAI Task Force, for their courage and support.

References

1. The NHS Plan, Dept. of Health, July 2000. London, Department of Health.
2. Infection Control Nurses Association and the Association of Domestic Management. Standards for environmental cleanliness in hospitals, April; 1999.

3. Dancer SJ. Mopping up hospital infection. *J Hosp Infect* 1999; **43**:85–100.
4. A clean bill of health? Auditor General, Audit Scotland, April; 2000.
5. National standards of cleanliness for the NHS, NHS Estates, April; 2001.
6. Griffith CJ, Cooper RA, Gilmore J, Davies C, Lewis M. An evaluation of hospital cleaning regimes and standards. *J Hosp Infect* 2000; **45**:19–28.
7. Malik RE, Cooper RA, Griffith CJ. Use of audit tools to evaluate the efficacy of cleaning systems in hospitals. *Am J Infect Control* 2003; **31**:181–187.
8. Talon D. The role of the hospital environment in the epidemiology of multi-resistant bacteria. *J Hosp Infect* 1999; **43**:13–17.
9. Pratt RJ, Pellowe C, Loveday HP, Robinson N. Standard principles for preventing hospital-acquired infections. *J Hosp Infect* 2001; **47**(Suppl.):21–37.
10. Hempshall P, Thomson M. Dirt alert. *Nursing Times* 1998; **94**:63–64.
11. Dancer SJ. Hospital-acquired infection: is cleaning the answer? *CPD Infect* 2002; **3**:40–46.
12. Dancer SJ. Environmental organisms from different hospital wards. *Br J Infect Control* 2002; **3**:10–14.
13. Cua A, Lutwick LI. The environment as a significant cofactor for multiply resistant nosocomial infections. *Semin Resp Infect* 2002; **17**:246–249.
14. Casewell M, Phillips I. Hands as route of transmission of *Klebsiella* species. *BMJ* 1977; **2**:1315–1317.
15. Dharan S, Mourouga P, Copin P, Bessmer G, Tschanz B, Pittet D. Routine disinfection of patient' environmental surfaces. Myth or reality? *J Hosp Infect* 1999; **42**:113–117.
16. Collins BJ. The hospital environment: how clean should a hospital be? *J Hosp Infect* 1988; **11**(Suppl. A):53–56.
17. Annotation, Contamination, cleaning and common-sense. *Lancet* 1972; **1**:1108–1109.
18. Suzuki A, Namba Y, Matsuura M, Horisawa A. Bacterial contamination of floors and other surfaces in operating rooms: a five-year survey. *J Hyg (Lond)* 1984; **93**:559–566.
19. Pfeiffer EH, Wittig JR, Dunkelberg H, Werner HP. Hygienic and bacteriological comparative studies in 50 hospitals. V. Bacterial contamination of hospital surfaces. *Zentralbl Bakteriol* 1978; **167**:11–21.
20. Friberg B, Friberg S, Burman LG. Inconsistent correlation between aerobic bacterial surface and air counts in operation rooms with ultra clean laminar flows: proposal of a new bacteriological standard for surface contamination. *J Hosp Infect* 1999; **42**:287–293.
21. Williams REO, Blowers R, Garrod LP, Shooter RA, editors. *Hospital infection. Causes and prevention*. London: Lloyd-Luke; 1960.
22. Zembrzuska-Sadkowska E. Microbial contamination of pharmacies and hospital ward environment and its influence of the purity of prescription preparations during their production process as well as their application. *Acta Pol Pharm* 1995; **52**:67–75.
23. Pisano MB, Cosentino S, Puddu R, Puggioni S, Palmas F. Microbial environmental surveillance in a bone marrow transplant unit. *Infez Med* 2001; **9**:19–24.
24. Alberti C, Bouakline A, Ribaud P, et al. Aspergillus Study Group. Relationship between environmental fungal contamination and the incidence of invasive aspergillosis in haematology patients. *J Hosp Infect* 2001; **48**:198–206.
25. Sehulster L, Chinn RY. CDC; HICPAC. Guidelines for environmental infection control in health-care facilities. Recommendations of CDC and the Healthcare Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee (HICPAC). *MMWR Recomm Rep* 2003; **52**:1–42.
26. Lemmen SW, Hafner H, Zollmann D, Amedick G, Lutticken R. Comparison of two sampling methods for the detection of Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria in the environment: moistened swabs versus Rodac plates. *Int J Hyg Environ Health* 2001; **203**:245–248.
27. Rutala WA, Katz EB, Sherertz RJ, Sarubbi FA. Environmental study of a methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* epidemic in a burn unit. *J Clin Microbiol* 1983; **18**:683–688.
28. Moore G, Griffith CJ. A comparison of surface sampling methods for detecting coliforms on food contact surfaces. *Food Microbiol* 2002; **19**:65–73.
29. US Department of Agriculture. *Guidelines for reviewing microbiological control and monitoring programs, part 8.55, attachment 2. Meat and poultry inspection manual*. Washington DC: US Department of Agriculture; 1994.
30. Swedish code of statute SLVSFS; 1998. No. 10.
31. Pasquarella C, Pitzurra O, Savino A. The index of microbial air contamination. *J Hosp Infect* 2000; **46**:241–256.
32. World Health Organization. Assessment of risk and risk management for water-related infectious disease. In: Fewtrell L, Bartram J, editors. *Water quality: guidelines, standards and health*. 1st edn. London: World Health Organization; 2001.
33. Boyce JM. Environmental contamination due to methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*: possible infection control implications. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol* 1997; **18**:622–627.
34. Rampling A, Wiseman S, Davis L, et al. Evidence that hospital hygiene is important in the control of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J Hosp Infect* 2001; **49**:109–116.
35. Kaatz GW, Gitlin SD, Schaberg Dr, et al. Acquisition of *Clostridium difficile* from the hospital environment. *Am J Epidemiol* 1988; **127**:1289–1294.
36. Das I, Lambert P, Hill D, Noy M, Bion J, Elliott T. Carbapenem-resistant acinetobacter and role of curtains in an outbreak in intensive care units. *J Hosp Infect* 2002; **50**:110–114.
37. Noskin GA, Stosor V, Cooper I, Peterson LR. Recovery of vancomycin-resistant enterococci on fingertips and environmental surfaces. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol* 1996; **17**:770–772.
38. Ray AJ, Hoyen CK, Taub TF, Donskey CJ. Nosocomial transmission of vancomycin-resistant enterococci from surfaces. *JAMA* 2002; **287**:1400–1401.
39. Oelberg DG, Joyner SE, Jiang X, Laborde D, Islam MP, Pickering LK. Detection of pathogen transmission in neonatal nurseries using DNA markers as surrogate indicators. *Pediatrics* 2000; **105**:311–315.
40. Klingenberg C, Glad GT, Olsvik R, Flaegstad T. Rapid PCR detection of the methicillin resistance gene, mec A, on the hands of medical and non-medical personnel and healthy children and on surfaces in a neonatal intensive care unit. *Scand J Infect Dis* 2001; **33**:494–497.
41. Health Canada. Supplement infection control guidelines: handwashing, cleaning, disinfecting and sterilisation in health care. *Canada Communicable Disease Report 24S8, December. ISSN 1188-4169*; 1998. p. 31.
42. Blythe D, Keenlyside D, Dawson SJ, Galloway A. Environmental contamination due to methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA). *J Hosp Infect* 1998; **38**:67–70.
43. Oie S, Hosokawa I, Kamiya A. Contamination of room door handles by methicillin-sensitive/methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J Hosp Infect* 2002; **51**:140–143.
44. Stacey A, Burden P, Croton C, Jones E. Contamination of

- television sets by methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA). *J Hosp Infect* 1998;**39**:243–244.
45. Cohen HA, Amir J, Matalon A, Mayan R, Beni S, Barzilai A. Stethoscopes and otoscopes—a potential vector of infection? *Fam Pract* 1997;**14**:446–448.
 46. Berman DS, Schaefer S, Simberkoff MS, Rahal JJ. Tourniquets and nosocomial methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infections. *N Engl J Med* 1986;**315**:514–515.
 47. Ndawula EM, Brown L. Mattresses as reservoirs of epidemic methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Lancet* 1991;**337**:488.
 48. Bures S, Fishbain JT, Uyehara CF, Parker JM, Berg BW. Computer keyboards and faucet handles as reservoirs of nosocomial pathogens in the intensive care unit. *Am J Infect Control* 2002;**28**:465–471.
 49. Davies MW, Mehr S, Garland ST, Morley CJ. Bacterial colonization of toys in neonatal intensive care cots. *Pediatrics* 2000;**106**:E18.
 50. Neely AN, Maley MP. Survival of enterococci and staphylococci on hospital fabrics and plastic. *J Clin Microbiol* 2000;**38**:724–726.
 51. Perry C, Marshall R, Jones E. Bacterial contamination of uniforms. *J Hosp Infect* 2001;**48**:238–241.
 52. Dietze B, Rath A, Wendt C, Martiny H. Survival of MRSA on sterile goods packaging. *J Hosp Infect* 2001;**49**:255–261.
 53. Johnson AP, Aucken HM, Cavendish S, *et al.* Dominance of EMRSA-15 and -16 among MRSA causing nosocomial bacteraemia in the UK: analysis of isolates from the European Antimicrobial Resistance Surveillance System (EARSS). *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2001;**48**:143–144.
 54. Plowman R, Graves N, Griffin MA, *et al.* The rate and cost of hospital-acquired infections occurring in patients admitted to selected specialties of a district general hospital in England and the national burden imposed. *J Hosp Infect* 2001;**47**:198–209.
 55. Pankhurst CL, Philpott-Howard J. The environmental risk factors associated with medical and dental equipment in the transmission of *Burkholderia cepacia* in cystic fibrosis patients. *J Hosp Infect* 1996;**32**:249–255.
 56. Evans MR, Meldrum R, Lane W, *et al.* An outbreak of viral gastroenteritis following environmental contamination at a concert hall. *Epidemiol Infect* 2002;**129**:355–360.
 57. Chadwick PR, Beards G, Brown D, *et al.* Management of hospital outbreaks of gastro-enteritis due to small round structured viruses. *J Hosp Infect* 2000;**45**:1–10.
 58. Lloyd-Evans N, Springthorpe VS, Sattar SA. Chemical disinfection of human rotavirus-contaminated inanimate surfaces. *J Hygiene* 1986;**97**:163–173.
 59. Update 32-Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) Multi-Country Outbreak. Update on Hong Kong and China; First SARS cases reported in India. World Health Organization: Geneva, Switzerland. April 18; 2003.