

Comparison of strategies to reduce meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates in surgical patients: a multicentre intervention study**

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Running head: MRSA control strategies in surgical patients

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Key words: meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; screening; active surveillance cultures; hand hygiene; healthcare-associated infection

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ABSTRACT

Objective: To compare the effect of two strategies (enhanced standard control versus meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* [MRSA] screening) on MRSA rates in surgical wards.

Design: Prospective, controlled, interventional study, with 6-month baseline, 12-month intervention, and 6-month washout phases.

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and 6-month washout phases.
urgical wards in ten hospitals in nine countries in Europe and Israel.

For all patients admitted to the enrolled wards for **Setting:** 33 surgical wards in ten hospitals in nine countries in Europe and Israel. **Participants:** All patients admitted to the enrolled wards for more than 24 hours. **Interventions:** The two strategies compared were: 1) enhanced standard control emphasising hand hygiene (HH) promotion; and 2) universal MRSA screening with contact precautions and decolonisation (intranasal mupirocin and chlorhexidine bathing) of MRSA carriers. Four hospitals were assigned to each intervention and two hospitals combined both strategies, using targeted screening.

Outcome measures: Monthly rates of MRSA clinical cultures per 100 susceptible patients (primary outcome) and MRSA infections per 100 admissions (secondary outcome). Planned subgroup analysis for clean surgery wards was performed.

Results: There were a total of 126,750 admissions to the study wards. After adjusting for clustering and potential confounders, neither strategy when used alone was associated with changes in MRSA rates. Combining both strategies was associated with a reduction in the rate of MRSA clinical cultures of 12% per month (aIRR 0.88, 95% CI 0.79 to 0.98). In clean surgery wards, strategy 2 (MRSA screening, contact precautions, and decolonisation) was associated with decreasing rates of MRSA clinical cultures (15% monthly decrease, aIRR 0.85, 95% CI 0.74 to 0.97) and MRSA infections (17% monthly decrease, aIRR 0.83, 95% CI 0.69 to 0.99).

Conclusions: In surgical wards, a combination of standard and MRSA-specific infection control approaches was required to reduce MRSA rates. Implementation of single interventions was not effective, except in clean surgery wards where MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation was associated with significant reductions in MRSA clinical culture and infection rates.

Trial Registration: clinicaltrials.gov identifier: NCT00685867

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ARTICLE SUMMARY

Article focus

- The relative effectiveness of different meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) control measures is controversial.
- This study directly compared the effect of two strategies (enhanced standard control versus MRSA screening) on MRSA rates in surgical wards.

Key messages

- **For Formal Synty Compared the effect of two strategies (enhanced stands MRSA screening) on MRSA rates in surgical wards.**
Formal Synty Compared Synty Compared Synty Compared Synty Set are enhanced standard infection cont • Neither enhanced standard infection control measures (emphasising hand hygiene promotion) nor MRSA-specific control interventions (MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy) when used alone for 12 months effectively reduced MRSA rates in surgical wards with relatively low MRSA rates.
- A combination of interventions, including targeted screening of high risk patients, did result in reduction in the rate of MRSA isolated from clinical cultures.
- In surgical subspecialties that perform clean surgery, MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy effectively reduced both the rates of MRSA isolated from clinical cultures as well as MRSA infections.

Strengths and limitations of this study

- Unlike many previous studies, this was a large, prospective, multicentre, intervention study. The enrolled wards, from ten hospitals in Europe and Israel, varied in terms of infection control infrastructure and MRSA prevalence, thus the results are likely to be generalisable to other settings.
- Due to the nature of the quality improvement initiatives, investigators were not blinded to the allocated intervention.

INTRODUCTION

Healthcare associated infections affect hundreds of millions of patients worldwide every year and represent an important cause of patient mortality and a major financial burden to health systems.¹ Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), now endemic in many healthcare facilities, is a leading cause of healthcare associated infections,² and patients in surgical units are at increased risk due to factors such as invasive procedures, antibiotic exposure, and prolonged healthcare contact. A number of countries mandate implementation of control measures, including MRSA screening.^{3,4} Not all mandated interventions, however, are supported by robust evidence.

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are at increased risk due to factors such as invasive procedures, ant
d prolonged healthcare contact. A number of countries mandate impi
asures, i Studies evaluating MRSA control strategies show conflicting results, particularly with regards to the use of active surveillance cultures.⁵⁻⁷ It is argued that broader infection control approaches, such as improving hand hygiene (HH) practices, may be as successful as MRSAspecific strategies. 8.9 There are limitations, however, to current evidence with few prospective, controlled studies,^{10,11} and many studies have assessed multiple interventions simultaneously.¹² Quantifying the relative benefits of individual approaches is important, particularly as some strategies have significant cost implications, and will allow efficient use of limited resources.

Due to the ongoing debate concerning optimal approaches to MRSA control, $13,14$ we performed a prospective, interventional, quality improvement study to directly compare the effect of an enhanced standard infection control strategy, emphasising HH adherence, to an MRSA screening, isolation and decolonisation strategy on the incidence rates of MRSA

clinical cultures and infections in surgical patients admitted to healthcare facilities across Europe and Israel.

METHODS

Study design and population

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For the hospitals and July 201 The study was a prospective, controlled, multicentre, interventional cohort study conducted between March 2008 and July 2010. Thirty-three surgical wards of ten hospitals in nine countries (Serbia, France, Spain [two hospitals], Italy, Greece, Scotland, Israel, Germany, and Switzerland) were enrolled. Wards included orthopaedic (8), vascular (6), cardiothoracic/cardiovascular (5), general (4), abdominal (4), urology (3), neurosurgery (2), and plastic surgery (1) subspecialties. Characteristics of the enrolled wards varied (table 1).

The study consisted of baseline (6 to 7 months), intervention (12 months), and washout (6 months) phases. During baseline and washout phases, wards employed their usual infection control practices. During the intervention phase, two strategies were investigated, with hospitals implementing one or both interventions in parallel.

Interventions

The first intervention, the Enhanced Standard Control (ESC) strategy, used the WHO multimodal HH promotion method consisting of: 1) using alcohol-based handrub at the point of care, 2) training and education of healthcare workers, 3) observation and feedback of HH practices, 4) reminders in the workplace (e.g. posters), and 5) improving the safety climate in the institution with management support for the initiative.¹⁵ Adherence to standard

precautions (e.g. gloves for body fluid contact) and isolation of MRSA patients according to local policies were encouraged.

(within 48 hours) then weekly. Patients were excluded from screening ambulatory surgery or had already been screened within 5 days the surgical ward. The nares, perineum, and wounds (if present) were agar screening was use The second intervention, the Active detection, Contact precautions and Decolonisation (ACD) strategy, consisted of screening patients admitted for more than 24 hours for MRSA, on admission (within 48 hours) then weekly. Patients were excluded from screening if they were undergoing ambulatory surgery or had already been screened within 5 days prior to admission to the surgical ward. The nares, perineum, and wounds (if present) were swabbed. Chromogenic agar screening was used with the addition of polymerase chain reaction (PCR) testing during the latter part of the intervention phase for patients who had risk factors for MRSA (e.g. hospitalisation in the last year) whose chromogenic agar results were unlikely to be available before surgery. MRSA carriers were placed on contact precautions (gown and gloves during patient contact), administered decolonisation therapy with twice daily intranasal mupirocin and daily chlorhexidine washes for five days, and perioperative prophylaxis was modified to reflect MRSA carriage. Chlorhexidine bathing was limited to identified MRSA carriers and not used as a unit-wide intervention. Pre-emptive isolation was not used as part of this strategy.

The hospital was the unit for assignment of interventions due to practical reasons and the nature of the strategies. Four hospitals were assigned to each intervention and two hospitals used a combination of both strategies (MIX arm) due to the introduction of national or local mandatory targeted MRSA screening policies (table 1). These assignments occurred prior to data collection.

Outcomes measures

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The primary outcome measure was the monthly nosocomial MRSA isolation rate, defined as the number of MRSA clinical isolates (those from specimens collected other than for screening purposes, counting one isolate per patient per month), per 100 susceptible patients (not previously known to be MRSA colonised or infected). Isolates from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days after discharge from study wards were considered nosocomial.

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Independence to HH guidelines and contact precautions. Infections v

Iriteria.¹⁶ Adherence to HH guidelines was measured as the percentag

fo Secondary outcomes were the monthly rate of nosocomial MRSA infections per 100 admissions, and adherence to HH guidelines and contact precautions. Infections were defined using CDC criteria.¹⁶ Adherence to HH guidelines was measured as the percentage of opportunities for HH in which staff used alcohol-based handrub and/or washed their hands according to the WHO method.¹⁵ Adherence to contact precautions was measured as the percentage of randomly audited MRSA patients for whom precautions with gown and gloves during patient contact had been implemented.

Microbiological methods

Standardised laboratory manuals were provided to centres. Samples were processed in local laboratories using standard culture-based identification of MRSA from clinical specimens. In ACD hospitals, nasal and perineal swabs were pooled in the laboratory then plated directly onto chromogenic medium (BBL CHROMagar MRSA II, BD Diagnostics, Belgium) and also incubated overnight in an enrichment medium to increase test sensitivity.¹⁷ Positive results could be reported within 24 to 48 hours.¹⁸ PCR testing directly from pooled screening swabs was performed with the BD GeneOhm MRSA (BD Diagnostics, Belgium) or GeneXpert MRSA (Cepheid, Belgium) tests, which have turnaround times of 2 to 3 hours and 1.5 hours respectively (see online supplementary table A1).¹⁸ Laboratories participated in an

external quality assurance program to evaluate their ability to detect, identify and perform antibiotic sensitivity testing on staphylococci from a variety of different specimens.¹⁹ MRSA isolates were shipped to the central laboratory (University of Antwerp, Belgium) for confirmation of identification.

Data collection

Fourthant Source Example 10 and the coordinating centre wis somel from each hospital were trained at the coordinating centre wis to tool and data collection tools. Local microbiology laboratory data volbtain information Research personnel from each hospital were trained at the coordinating centre with regards to the study protocol and data collection tools. Local microbiology laboratory data were reviewed to obtain information regarding MRSA isolated from screening and clinical cultures. Infections were monitored by twice weekly ward visits to review medical records and interview staff. Surgical site infection surveillance occurred up to 30 days post-procedure (12 months after prosthetic device insertion). HH adherence was monitored by direct observation by research personnel who were independent of surgical ward staff.¹⁵ All hospitals collected data for 100 HH opportunities per ward during baseline and washout phases. During the intervention phase, 100 HH opportunities per ward per month were observed in ESC and MIX wards only. Implementation of contact precautions, decolonisation therapy, and single room isolation of MRSA carriers was randomly audited each month. Signage of MRSA status and availability of gowns, gloves and alcohol-based handrub for contact with MRSA carriers was also audited. Data regarding admissions, patient-days, surgical procedures, and staffing were collected.

Ward-level data were submitted monthly to a central data management centre via a password protected secure online database which included range, consistency, and missing data checks. Meetings, site visits, and monthly teleconferences were held to review data, ensure adherence to study protocols, and address queries. Data were reviewed monthly for completeness and 6-

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monthly for validity by teleconferences with individual study sites. Institutional review boards of all centres approved the study with a waiver of individual informed consent.

Statistical analysis

The study was designed to detect a 30% difference in nosocomial MRSA isolation rate assuming a baseline rate of 1.0 clinical isolate per 100 susceptible patients and an absolute difference of 10% between intervention arms. Sample size calculations assumed a two-sided test, a type I error rate of 0.05 and 80% power, taking the wards as the unit of analysis. A minimum of 15 wards was required per study arm.

aseline rate of 1.0 clinical isolate per 100 susceptible patients and an and F 10% between intervention arms. Sample size calculations assumed in F 10% between intervention arms. Sample size calculations assumed inferr Crude MRSA rates were calculated by study arm. Adjusted incidence rate ratios (aIRR) were calculated using multilevel Poisson segmented regression accounting for stepwise changes in MRSA level and changes in log-linear trends associated with the interventions.²⁰ This analysis allowed for two levels of random-effects: hospital-level variation in intercepts and baseline trends, and nested ward-level variation in intercepts. It adjusted for exposure given by the monthly number of susceptible patients or admissions per ward and allowed for extra-Poisson variation. Surgical subspecialty, baseline HH compliance, seasonal effects (using calendar month), and patient-to-nurse ratios were adjusted for. Autocorrelation was accounted for using a lagged dependent variable. A similar analysis was performed for HH compliance, but used segmented multilevel logistic regression, adjusting for ward-specific baseline levels and trends, professional category, HH indication, patient-to-nurse ratios, and monthly MRSA colonisation pressure (number of days patients known to be MRSA colonised/infected were in the wards each month).

As screening intensity varied in the MIX arm, a planned exploratory
me data was conducted to better quantify the intervention effects. It
changes and log-linear trends in outcomes associated with the HH in
remothly proport Planned subgroup analyses were performed by hospital and for clean surgery wards (cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery) as studies have shown that intranasal mupirocin, which is active against gram-positive organisms, may be more effective for surgical site infection prevention in clean compared to clean-contaminated surgery (e.g. general or gastrointestinal surgery) where gram-negative and anaerobic organisms may play a larger role.²¹ As screening intensity varied in the MIX arm, a planned exploratory analysis of MRSA outcome data was conducted to better quantify the intervention effects. It accounted for stepwise changes and log-linear trends in outcomes associated with the HH intervention, as well as the monthly proportion of patients screened and monthly cumulative screening rate on wards to account for changes in trends of outcomes associated with screening. Analyses were conducted with STATA 11.0 (STATA Corp, USA).

RESULTS

During the study period, there were a total of 126 750 admissions and 99 638 surgical procedures on the study wards. Baseline admission MRSA prevalence was 0.8% (269 of 33 608), ranging from 0.1% to 2.2% across surgical wards of each hospital. Baseline HH adherence varied between hospitals (39.5% overall, 95% CI 38.1% to 40.9%) as did use of targeted MRSA screening (0 to 30.9% of admissions) (table 1). Study characteristics are shown in table 2 and online supplementary table A2.

Adherence to hand hygiene guidelines

In ESC and MIX arms, HH compliance improved in all centres with overall compliance increasing from 49.3% (95% CI 47.2% to 51.4%) to 63.8% (95% CI 63.2% to 64.4%) from baseline to intervention phases (figure 1a). After multivariable analysis, commencing HH

promotion was associated with a significant immediate increase in HH compliance (adjusted odds ratio [aOR] 1.19, 95% CI 1.01 to 1.42) (see online supplementary table A3). However, this benefit was not sustained after cessation of the HH campaign with a significant decreasing trend in HH adherence of 9% per month (aOR for month post-intervention 0.91, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.97) during the washout phase. In ACD wards, where no HH promotion occurred, compliance remained low at 30.5% (95% CI 28.7% to 32.4%) at baseline and 23.9% (95% CI 22.0% to 25.9%) during the washout phase.

Active detection, contact precautions and decolonisation of MRSA carriers

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CI 22.0% to 25.9%) during the washout phase.
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For all also confidence consisting the sum of MRSA car During the intervention phase, 9250 (75.3%) of 12 279 patients were screened on admission to ACD wards. Admission MRSA prevalence was 2.1% (259 of 12 279), consisting of 27 patients (10.4%) with MRSA-positive clinical cultures and 232 patients (89.6%) identified by screening alone. PCR screening was used in addition to chromogenic agar cultures in 1047 (11.3%) of 9250 patients. Between baseline and intervention phases in ACD wards, the proportion of audited MRSA carriers placed on contact precautions increased (81.1% to 90.7%), as did administration of decolonisation therapy (34.4% to 69.8%) (figure 2). However, the proportion of audited MRSA carriers in single rooms decreased (67.8% to 40.1%), possibly due to a shortage of rooms for the higher number of identified MRSA carriers.

Screening occurred to a lesser extent in the other study arms (figure 1b). About 10% of admissions to ESC wards were screened throughout the study. In MIX wards, screening increased from 9.2% to 22.3%, then 36.9% during baseline, intervention, and washout phases respectively. In this arm, adherence to contact precautions was high throughout the study

(93.0% to 99.6%), but only 32.9% of MRSA patients at baseline and 35.9% of patients during the intervention phase received decolonisation therapy (figure 2).

Nosocomial MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures

phase (ESC arm: 0.99 to 0.80; ACD arm: 0.47 to 0.23; MIX arm: 0.5
100 susceptible patients) (table 3). After adjusting for clustering and
with multilevel segmented Poisson regression (table 4 and see online
ry table A4 for Crude MRSA isolation rates from clinical cultures decreased in all study arms during the intervention phase (ESC arm: 0.99 to 0.80; ACD arm: 0.47 to 0.23; MIX arm: 0.55 to 0.36; p=0.04; per 100 susceptible patients) (table 3). After adjusting for clustering and potential confounders with multilevel segmented Poisson regression (table 4 and see online supplementary table A4 for full model), commencement of HH promotion (ESC arm) was associated with an immediate non-significant increase in nosocomial MRSA isolation rate (aIRR 1.44, 95% CI 0.96 to 2.15) with no change in the trend in rates over time. In clean surgery wards, HH promotion was associated with a non-significant decreasing monthly MRSA isolation rate (aIRR 0.89, 95% CI 0.78 to 1.01) (table 5 and see online supplementary table A5 for full model).

Screening, contact precautions and decolonisation (ACD arm) was not associated with significant changes in MRSA isolation rates. However, in clean surgery, this intervention was associated with a reduction in MRSA clinical cultures of 15% per month (aIRR 0.85, 95% CI 0.74 to 0.97).

Combining HH promotion with targeted screening (MIX arm) was associated with a significant decreasing trend in MRSA isolation rate of 12% per month overall (aIRR 0.88, 95% CI 0.79 to 0.98), and 18% per month in clean surgery (aIRR 0.82, 95% CI 0.71 to 0.95). Observed and model-predicted MRSA isolation rates from clinical cultures are illustrated in figure 3a and online supplementary figure A1.

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Nosocomial MRSA infection rates

ry table A4), HH promotion (ESC arm) was not associated with char-
tion rates. Both the screening/decolonisation and combined intervent
on-significant decreasing trends in total MRSA infection (ACD arm:
to 1.05; MIX arm: a There were 470 nosocomial MRSA infections in total (335 [71.3%] surgical site, 41 [8.7%] bloodstream, and 94 [20.0%] other infections). Crude infection rates decreased over time in all study arms (table 3). After multivariable analysis (table 4, figure 3b and see online supplementary table A4), HH promotion (ESC arm) was not associated with changes in MRSA infection rates. Both the screening/decolonisation and combined interventions resulted in non-significant decreasing trends in total MRSA infection (ACD arm: aIRR 0.93, 95% CI 0.82 to 1.05; MIX arm: aIRR 0.90, 95% CI 0.80 to 1.02) and surgical site infection rates (table 4, figure 3c and online supplementary table A4).

In clean surgery, the ACD screening strategy was associated with significant reductions in MRSA infection rate of 17% per month (aIRR 0.83, 95% CI 0.69 to 0.99) and MRSA surgical site infection rate of 19% per month (aIRR 0.81, 95% CI 0.66 to 1.00) (table 5 and online supplementary table A5).

Exploratory analysis to directly assess implemented interventions

The exploratory analysis did not show any significant effects of HH promotion on nosocomial MRSA isolation rates (see online supplementary table A6). The intensity of admission screening was associated with a decreasing trend in monthly MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures (aIRR 0.91 per month with 100% compliance with screening, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.98). A similar effect was seen in the trend in MRSA infection rate (aIRR 0.92, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.99).

DISCUSSION

We found that as individual interventions, neither an enhanced standard control strategy using HH promotion nor universal MRSA screening with contact precautions and decolonisation of MRSA carriers were effective in reducing MRSA rates in surgical patients. However, using a combination of both HH promotion and targeted screening was associated with reduction in MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures of 12% per month. In addition, when the interventions were specifically evaluated in the subgroup of clean surgery wards, the screening/decolonisation strategy was most effective. In these wards, this intervention was associated with significant reductions in both MRSA clinical culture isolation rate of 15% per month and MRSA infection rate of 17% per month.

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y/decolonisation strategy was most effective. In these wards, this intered with sign This study is unique in that it directly compared strategies individually and in combination using a large, prospective, controlled design.¹⁰ Interventions were assessed under operational conditions in ten heterogeneous hospitals across Europe and Israel with varying infection control practices, staffing, infrastructure, and MRSA epidemiology, increasing the generalisability of our findings.

Our analysis, which adjusted for confounders, seasonal effects and baseline MRSA trends, found no evidence that enhanced standard infection control measures were effective. MRSA rates are declining in many countries.²² Failing to account for this would overestimate intervention effects. Overall baseline HH compliance was 49% in study wards that used the HH intervention. In settings where compliance is already above about 50%, modelling studies suggest that further increases in compliance will have rapidly diminishing returns for reducing MRSA transmission.²³ In facilities with lower HH compliance or higher MRSA rates, this intervention may be more effective than we were able to demonstrate. In addition,

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HH campaigns involve education and behaviour change and are therefore unlikely to have a short term effect. Other studies have shown that they may be beneficial if activity is sustained over years. 24

ecautions and decolonisation, which can reduce transmission.²⁵²⁰ W:

Found that 90% of MRSA-positive patients would have been misse

res alone. Our results suggest that selective (clean surgery) or target

reming may be Active MRSA surveillance identifies asymptomatic carriers, enabling early implementation of contact precautions and decolonisation, which can reduce transmission.^{25,26} With universal screening, we found that 90% of MRSA-positive patients would have been missed using clinical cultures alone. Our results suggest that selective (clean surgery) or targeted (high risk patient) screening may be more effective than universal screening. The relative burden of gram-positive infections is greater in clean compared to clean-contaminated surgery where other pathogens, including bowel flora, may be more important.²¹ Thus MRSA-specific interventions would potentially have a greater impact in clean surgery. Indeed, intranasal mupirocin has been shown to reduce surgical site infections in cardiothoracic and orthopaedic surgery, but is less effective in general surgery.²¹ The exploratory analysis suggests that screening intensity, rather than HH promotion, explained the intervention effects. It is curious, then, that universal screening did not perform better than HH promotion combined with targeted screening. Low baseline MRSA rates in the universal screening arm may have reduced our ability to detect significant effects. Shortage of isolation rooms may have also contributed. In addition, targeted screening may have been more effective if it identified "superspreaders", 27 facilitating more effective use of resources including limited single rooms.

This study adds to the conflicting literature regarding active surveillance cultures. Our results apply to surgical settings. The risk of MRSA infection in other wards, such as intensive care units or general medical wards, would differ due to variation in patient comorbidities and

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exposure to invasive procedures or antibiotics. It is also important to note that previous studies have used a variety of interventions in combination with screening. In some cases, the use of pre-emptive isolation in both study $arms²⁸$ or lack of decolonisation strategies, 6 may have led to effect sizes that studies had insufficient power to detect. Comparison of rapid screening to conventional rather than no screening, ²⁸ differences in screening methods, ¹⁰ variation in MRSA strains,²⁹ or limitations in study design and analyses^{10,11} are other potential explanations for the conflicting results of screening studies.

IRSA strains,²⁷ or limitations in study design and analyses^{10,11} are o lanations for the conflicting results of screening studies.

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ded to study There are some limitations to this study. Due to the nature of the interventions, investigators were not blinded to study assignment. Although allocation of interventions was not randomised, we accounted for differences in hospitals by adjusting for potential confounders and comparing outcomes between baseline and intervention phases within the same study arm. Decisions to take culture samples were initiated by treating physicians, not research personnel, and standardised definitions for infections were used, reducing the likelihood of bias from unblinded assessors. We used MRSA-positive clinical cultures as our primary outcome. Although this measure does not distinguish between colonisation and infection, it can be a more sensitive marker for changes in MRSA disease rates.³⁰ We found the results for MRSA clinical cultures similar to those for infections, suggesting that this measure was clinically relevant.

Conclusion

In surgical wards with relatively low MRSA prevalence, a combination of enhanced standard infection control and MRSA-specific (targeted screening) approaches was required to reduce MRSA rates. Implementation of single interventions was not effective, except in clean surgery wards where MRSA screening with contact precautions and decolonisation of

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Healthcare resources. identified MRSA carriers was associated with significant reductions in MRSA clinical culture and infection rates. These findings are likely generalisable to other settings with varying infection control practices. Our results highlight the relative effectiveness of different MRSA control strategies, enabling optimisation of infection prevention approaches. Further research regarding the cost-effectiveness of these interventions will allow better utilisation of limited

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Competing interests

EXTREM ASS Supported by the European Commission under the Life Science H
 For Coth Framework Program (MOSAR network contract LSHP-CT-200
 Interests
 For of the speakers' bureau for bioMérieux and Pfizer, and the sci SH is a member of the speakers' bureau for bioMérieux and Pfizer, and the scientific advisory board of Destiny Pharma, DaVolterra, and bioMérieux. He has received financial support for MRSA research activities from Geneva University Hospitals, B.Braun, and Pfizer. AP is a member of the speakers' bureau for Cubist and has received financial support for MRSA research activities from BD. There were no other financial or non-financial relationships, or interests that may be relevant to the submitted work.

Author contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: SH CBB. Analysed the data: ASL BSC. Contributed reagents/materials: SMK HG. Wrote the first draft of the manuscript: ASL. Contributed to the writing of the manuscript: ASL SH BSC CBB AC GLD CF BC SL SMK JAM CMA AP GP BR HG. ICMJE criteria for authorship read and met: ASL BSC SMK AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR HG CBB SH. Agree with manuscript results and conclusions: ASL BSC SMK AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR HG CBB SH. Enrolled patients: ASL AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR. Statistical support: BSC.

Data sharing

The dataset is available from the corresponding author at stephan.harbarth@hcuge.ch.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1 Implementation of the interventions

Figure 1 Legend

The top panel (A) shows the monthly hand hygiene compliance rates for hospitals that used hand hygiene promotion campaigns. The solid dots represent the observed compliance rates while the lines represent the predicted compliance rates based on the regression model. The bottom panel (B) shows the proportion of patients screened on admission to the study wards by study arm. ESC, Enhanced Standard Control (hospitals using hand hygiene promotion); ACD, Active detection, Contact precautions and Decolonisation (hospitals using meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* [MRSA] screening); MIX, Combined (hospitals using a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA screening).

Figure 2 Adherence to contact precautions, decolonisation and isolation measures for meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* carriers

Figure 2 Legend

detection, Contact precautions and Decolonisation (hospitals using
byhyococcus aureus [MRSA] screening). MIX, Combined (hospitals
of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA screening).
of hand hygiene promotion and targ This figure shows the distribution of monthly adherence to infection control measures for randomly audited patients known to be colonised or infected with meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) for each study arm. The top panel (A) shows adherence to implementation of contact precautions, decolonisation therapy, and isolation in single rooms. The middle panel (B) shows the presence of signage of MRSA status on the patients' room, bed, or nursing chart. The bottom panel (C) shows the availability of gowns, gloves, and alcohol-based handrub in or at the entrance of the room. The horizontal line in each box represents the median, the box represents the interquartile range and the vertical lines represent the minimum and maximum values. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; ESC, Enhanced Standard Control (hospitals using hand hygiene promotion); ACD, Active detection, Contact precautions and Decolonisation (hospitals using MRSA screening); MIX, Combined (hospitals using a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA screening).

Figure 3 Nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* rates by study arm

Figure 3 Legend

The top panel (A) shows the nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) isolaton rates from clinical specimens. The middle panel (B) shows the nosocomial MRSA infection rates. The bottom panel (C) shows the nosocomial MRSA surgical site infection rates. The solid dots represent the observed MRSA rates while the lines represent the predicted MRSA rates based on the regression models. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; ESC, Enhanced Standard Control (hospitals using hand hygiene promotion); ACD, Active detection, Contact precautions and Decolonisation (hospitals using MRSA screening); MIX, Combined (hospitals using a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA screening).

TABLES

Table 1: Baseline phase characteristics of hospitals and wards enrolled in the study

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MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

*Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts).

†By screening or clinical culture.

‡Screening in hospitals in the Combined arm was performed according to locally introduced policies. Hospital 4 used targeted screening of patients who were previously

 known to be MRSA-positive, contacts of MRSA-positive patients, and patients transferred from the Intensive Care Unit or other healthcare facilities. Hospital 7 introduced universal screening in two of three study wards and targeted screening in the third ward. In this ward, patients who were previously known to be MRSA-positive, nursing home residents, patients admitted to the hospital in the last three months, contacts of MRSA-positive patients, and patients transferred from another ward or healthcare facility were screened.

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Table 2: Study characteristics by study period

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

 *Baseline phase was 6 months in six hospitals and 7 months in four hospitals (two in the Active Detection arm and one hospital in each of the Enhanced Standard Control and Combined arms).

 †Clean surgery wards included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery. Other types of surgery wards included abdominal, general, and urological surgery.

 ‡Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts). §By screening or clinical culture.

Table 3: Crude nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **incidence rates and incidence rate ratios by study arm for each study period***

IRR, incidence rate ratio; MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward.

Table 4: Multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing adjusted incidence rate ratios for changes in level and trend of nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates***

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and adjusted for staffing (patient-to-nurse ratios), seasonal effects, type of surgical ward, and baseline hand hygiene compliance rates. The model also accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

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Table 5: Multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing changes in nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates for the subgroup analysis of clean surgery only***

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. Clean surgery included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery subspecialties. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and adjusted for staffing (patient-to-nurse ratios), seasonal effects, type of surgical ward, and baseline hand hygiene compliance rates. The model also accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

The top panel (A) shows the monthly hand hygiene compliance rates for hospitals that used hand hygiene promotion campaigns. The solid dots represent the observed compliance rates while the lines represent the predicted compliance rates based on the regression model. The bottom panel (B) shows the proportion of patients screened on admission to the study wards by study arm. ESC, Enhanced Standard Control (hospitals using hand hygiene promotion); ACD, Active detection, Contact precautions and Decolonisation (hospitals using meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* [MRSA] screening); MIX, Combined (hospitals using a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA screening).

This figure shows the distribution of monthly adherence to infection control measures for randomly audited patients known to be colonised or infected with meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) for each study arm. The top panel (A) shows adherence to implementation of contact precautions, decolonisation therapy

and isolation in single rooms. The middle panel (B) shows the presence of signage of MRSA status on the patients' room, bed, or nursing chart. The bottom panel (C) shows the availability of gowns, gloves, and alcohol-based handrub in or at the entrance of the room. The horizontal line in each box represents the median, the box represents the interquartile range and the vertical lines represent the minimum and maximum values. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; ESC, Enhanced Standard Control (hospitals using hand hygiene promotion); ACD, Active detection, Contact precautions and Decolonisation (hospitals using MRSA screening); MIX, Combined (hospitals using a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA screening).

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Figure 3: Nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates by study arm**

The top panel (A) shows the nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) isolaton rates from clinical specimens. The middle panel (B) shows the nosocomial MRSA infection rates. The bottom panel (C) shows the nosocomial MRSA surgical site infection rates. The solid dots represent the observed MRSA rates while the lines represent the predicted MRSA rates based on the regression models. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; ESC, Enhanced Standard Control (hospitals using hand hygiene promotion); ACD, Active detection, Contact precautions and Decolonisation (hospitals using MRSA screening); MIX, Combined (hospitals using a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA screening).
SUPPLEMENTARY DATA FOR MANUSCRIPT:

Comparison of strategies to reduce meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates in surgical patients: a multicentre intervention study**

Table A1: Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* screening methods used in study centres in the Active Detection and Combined arms

Table A2: Study characteristics by study period and study arm

Table A3: Multiple segmented multilevel logistic regression model showing factors associated with monthly hand hygiene compliance rates

Table A4: Full model results for the multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing adjusted incidence rate ratios for changes in level and trend of nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* rates

Table A5: Full model results for the multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing changes in nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* rates for the subgroup analysis of clean surgery only

Table A6: Exploratory analysis using multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models including interventions implemented by centres as covariates in the model

Figure A1: Nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolation rates from clinical specimens by hospital

Table A1: Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **screening methods used in study centres in the Active Detection and Combined arms**

*From Malhotra-Kumar S, Haccuria K, Michiels M, et al. Current trends in rapid diagnostics for methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and glycopeptide-resistant enterococcus species. *J Clin Microbiol* 2008;46:1577-87.

†Screening for meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* occurred during all study phases for centres in the Combined arm using existing local methods.

 ‡For the Active Detection arm, molecular assays were introduced during the latter part of the intervention phase. In one centre in this arm (Hospital 2) a locally available molecular assay was used from the commencement of the intervention phase.

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Table A2: Study characteristics by study period and study arm

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

*Baseline phase was 6 months in six hospitals and 7 months in four hospitals (two in the Active Detection arm and one hospital in each of the Enhanced Standard Control and Combined arms).

†Clean surgery wards included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery. Other types of surgery wards included abdominal, general, and urological surgery.

‡Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts).

§By screening or clinical culture.

Table A3: Multiple segmented multilevel logistic regression model showing factors associated with monthly hand hygiene compliance rates*

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

*Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all statistically significant, though baseline trends and intercepts showed no evidence of correlation. †Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time

(averaged over day, evening, and night shifts) for each month.

‡Calculated by dividing the patient-days of subjects known to be colonised or infected with meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* by the total number of patient-days in the ward in any given study month. This variable was divided into quartiles for the analysis.

Table A4: Full model results for the multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing adjusted incidence rate ratios for changes in level and trend of nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates***

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MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio; HH, hand hygiene.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

†Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts) for each month.

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Table A5: Full model results for the multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing changes in nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates for the subgroup analysis of clean surgery only***

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio; HH, hand hygiene.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. Clean surgery included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular

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surgery subspecialties. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

†Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts) for each month.

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Table A6: Exploratory analysis using multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models including interventions implemented by centres as covariates in the model*

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio.

 *The models used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and adjusted for staffing (patient-to-nurse ratios), seasonal effects, type of surgical ward, and baseline hand hygiene compliance rates. The model also accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, though there was no evidence that baseline trends significantly correlated with intercepts.

†Each additional month with x% compliance with admission screening would be associated with a reduction in the MRSA isolation rate by a factor of aIRR $^{x/100}$.

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Figure A1 Nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolation rates from clinical specimens by hospital

The solid dots represent the observed meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) rates while the lines represent the predicted MRSA rates based on the regression models. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; ESC, Enhanced Standard Control (hospitals using hand hygiene promotion); ACD, Active detection, Contact precautions and Decolonisation (hospitals using MRSA screening); MIX, Combined (hospitals using a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSAscreening).

ORION Checklist of items to include when reporting an outbreak or intervention study of a nosocomial organism

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Comparison of strategies to reduce meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates in surgical patients: a multicentre intervention study**

Comparison of strategies to reduce meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates in surgical patients: a multicentre intervention study**

Running head: MRSA control strategies in surgical patients

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Key words: meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; screening; active surveillance cultures; hand hygiene; healthcare-associated infection

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ABSTRACT

Objective: To compare the effect of two strategies (enhanced hand hygiene versus meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* [MRSA] screening and decolonisation) alone and in combination on MRSA rates in surgical wards.

Design: Prospective, controlled, interventional cohort study, with 6-month baseline, 12month intervention, and 6-month washout phases.

pective, controlled, interventional cohort study, with 6-month baseliention, and 6-month washout phases.

Ention, and 6-month washout phases.

I. All patients admitted to the enrolled wards for more than 24 hours.
 SIMPEN Setting: 33 surgical wards in ten hospitals in nine countries in Europe and Israel. **Participants:** All patients admitted to the enrolled wards for more than 24 hours. **Interventions:** The two strategies compared were: 1) enhanced hand hygiene promotion; and 2) universal MRSA screening with contact precautions and decolonisation (intranasal mupirocin and chlorhexidine bathing) of MRSA carriers. Four hospitals were assigned to each intervention and two hospitals combined both strategies, using targeted MRSA screening.

Outcome measures: Monthly rates of MRSA clinical cultures per 100 susceptible patients (primary outcome) and MRSA infections per 100 admissions (secondary outcome). Planned subgroup analysis for clean surgery wards was performed.

Results: After adjusting for clustering and potential confounders, neither strategy when used alone was associated with significant changes in MRSA rates. Combining both strategies was associated with a reduction in the rate of MRSA clinical cultures of 12% per month (aIRR 0.88, 95% CI 0.79 to 0.98). In clean surgery wards, strategy 2 (MRSA screening, contact precautions, and decolonisation) was associated with decreasing rates of MRSA clinical cultures (15% monthly decrease, aIRR 0.85, 95% CI 0.74 to 0.97) and MRSA infections (17% monthly decrease, aIRR 0.83, 95% CI 0.69 to 0.99).

Conclusions: In surgical wards with relatively low MRSA prevalence, a combination of enhanced standard and MRSA-specific infection control approaches was required to reduce MRSA rates. Implementation of single interventions was not effective, except in clean surgery wards where MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation was associated with significant reductions in MRSA clinical culture and infection rates.

Frial Registration: clinicaltrials.gov identifier: NCT00685867

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ARTICLE SUMMARY

Article focus

- The relative effectiveness of different meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) control measures is controversial.
- This study directly compared the effect of two strategies (enhanced hand hygiene versus MRSA screening and decolonisation, alone and in combination) on MRSA rates in surgical wards.

Key messages

- Study directly compared the effect of two strategies (enhanced hand is MRSA screening and decolonisation, alone and in combination) or in surgical wards.
 For peer review of the mass of the control measures (emphasising • Neither enhanced standard infection control measures (emphasising hand hygiene promotion) nor MRSA-specific control interventions (MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy) when used alone for 12 months effectively reduced MRSA rates in surgical wards with relatively low MRSA rates.
- A combination of interventions, including targeted screening of high risk patients, did result in reduction in the rate of MRSA isolated from clinical cultures.
- In surgical subspecialties that perform clean surgery, MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy effectively reduced both the rates of MRSA isolated from clinical cultures as well as MRSA infections.

Strengths and limitations of this study

- Unlike many previous studies, this was a large, prospective, multicentre, intervention study. The enrolled wards, from ten hospitals in Europe and Israel, varied in terms of infection control infrastructure and MRSA prevalence, thus the results are likely to be generalisable to other settings.
- Due to the nature of the quality improvement initiatives, investigators were not blinded to the allocated intervention. Interventions were not randomly allocated.

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INTRODUCTION

Healthcare associated infections affect hundreds of millions of patients worldwide every year and represent an important cause of patient mortality and a major financial burden to health systems.¹ Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), now endemic in many healthcare facilities, is a leading cause of healthcare associated infections,² and patients in surgical units are at increased risk due to factors such as invasive procedures, antibiotic exposure, and prolonged healthcare contact. A number of countries mandate implementation of control measures, including MRSA screening.^{3,4} Not all mandated interventions, however, are supported by robust evidence.

cilities, is a leading cause of healthcare associated infections,² and ps
are at increased risk due to factors such as invasive procedures, ant
d prolonged healthcare contact. A number of countries mandate impi
asures, i Studies evaluating MRSA control strategies show conflicting results, particularly with regards to the use of active surveillance cultures.⁵⁻⁷ It is argued that broader infection control approaches, such as improving hand hygiene (HH) practices, may be as successful as MRSAspecific strategies. 8.9 There are limitations, however, to current evidence with few prospective, controlled studies,^{10,11} and many studies have assessed multiple interventions simultaneously.¹² Quantifying the relative benefits of individual approaches is important, particularly as some strategies have significant cost implications, and will allow efficient use of limited resources.

Due to the ongoing debate concerning optimal approaches to MRSA control, $13,14$ we performed a prospective, interventional, quality improvement study to compare the effect of an enhanced HH promotion strategy to an MRSA screening, isolation and decolonisation strategy when used alone and in combination on the incidence rates of MRSA clinical cultures and infections in surgical patients admitted to healthcare facilities across Europe and

Israel. We also aimed to specifically assess these interventions in clean surgery wards where their benefits may be expected to be more pronounced.

METHODS

Study design and population

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Five, controlled, multicentre, interventional cohort study with a three

me series design was conducted between March 2008 and July 2010

I wards of ten hospitals in nine countries (Serb This prospective, controlled, multicentre, interventional cohort study with a three phase interrupted time series design was conducted between March 2008 and July 2010. Thirtythree surgical wards of ten hospitals in nine countries (Serbia, France, Spain [two hospitals], Italy, Greece, Scotland, Israel, Germany, and Switzerland) were enrolled. Wards included orthopaedic (8), vascular (6), cardiothoracic/cardiovascular (5), general (4), abdominal (4), urology (3), neurosurgery (2), and plastic surgery (1) subspecialties. Characteristics of the enrolled wards varied (table 1).

The study consisted of baseline (6 to 7 months), intervention (12 months), and washout (6 months) phases. During baseline and washout phases, wards employed their usual infection control practices. During the intervention phase, two strategies were investigated, with hospitals implementing one or both interventions in parallel (figure 1).

Interventions

The first intervention, the enhanced HH strategy, used the WHO multi-modal HH promotion method consisting of: 1) using alcohol-based handrub at the point of care, 2) training and education of healthcare workers, 3) observation and feedback of HH practices, 4) reminders in the workplace (e.g. posters), and 5) improving the safety climate in the institution with management support for the initiative.¹⁵ Adherence to standard precautions (e.g. gloves for

body fluid contact) and isolation of MRSA patients according to local policies were encouraged.

ents were excluded from screening if they were undergoing ambulately been screened within 5 days prior to admission to the surgical ward d wounds (if present) were swabbed. Chromogenic agar screening word polymerase chain The second intervention, the screening and decolonisation strategy, consisted of screening patients admitted for more than 24 hours for MRSA, on admission (within 48 hours) then weekly. Patients were excluded from screening if they were undergoing ambulatory surgery or had already been screened within 5 days prior to admission to the surgical ward. The nares, perineum, and wounds (if present) were swabbed. Chromogenic agar screening was used with the addition of polymerase chain reaction (PCR) testing during the latter part of the intervention phase for patients who had risk factors for MRSA (e.g. hospitalisation in the last year) whose chromogenic agar results were unlikely to be available before surgery. MRSA carriers were placed on contact precautions (gown and gloves during patient contact), administered decolonisation therapy with twice daily intranasal mupirocin and daily chlorhexidine washes for five days, and perioperative prophylaxis was modified to reflect MRSA carriage. Chlorhexidine bathing was limited to identified MRSA carriers and not used as a unit-wide intervention. Pre-emptive isolation was not used as part of this strategy.

The hospital was the unit for assignment of interventions due to practical reasons and the nature of the strategies. Four hospitals were assigned to each intervention and two hospitals used a combination of both strategies (the combined strategy) due to the introduction of national or local mandatory targeted MRSA screening policies (table 1). These assignments occurred prior to data collection.

Outcomes measures

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The primary outcome measure was the monthly nosocomial MRSA isolation rate, defined as the number of MRSA clinical isolates (those from specimens collected other than for screening purposes, counting one isolate per patient per month), per 100 susceptible patients (not previously known to be MRSA colonised or infected). Isolates from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days after discharge from study wards were considered nosocomial.

osocomial.

Interiors were the monthly rate of nosocomial MRSA infections per

Independence to HH guidelines and contact precautions. Infections v

Iriteria.¹⁶ Adherence to HH guidelines was measured as the percentag

fo Secondary outcomes were the monthly rate of nosocomial MRSA infections per 100 admissions, and adherence to HH guidelines and contact precautions. Infections were defined using CDC criteria.¹⁶ Adherence to HH guidelines was measured as the percentage of opportunities for HH in which staff used alcohol-based handrub and/or washed their hands according to the WHO method.¹⁵ Adherence to contact precautions was measured as the percentage of randomly audited MRSA patients for whom precautions with gown and gloves during patient contact had been implemented.

Microbiological methods

Standardised laboratory manuals were provided to centres. Samples were processed in local laboratories using standard culture-based identification of MRSA from clinical specimens. In hospitals assigned to the screening and decolonisation arm, nasal and perineal swabs were pooled in the laboratory then plated directly onto chromogenic medium (BBL CHROMagar MRSA II, BD Diagnostics, Belgium) and also incubated overnight in an enrichment medium to increase test sensitivity.¹⁷ Positive results could be reported within 24 to 48 hours.¹⁸ PCR testing directly from pooled screening swabs was performed with the BD GeneOhm MRSA (BD Diagnostics, Belgium) or GeneXpert MRSA (Cepheid, Belgium) tests, which have turnaround times of 2 to 3 hours and 1.5 hours respectively (see online supplementary table

A1).¹⁸ All laboratories participated in an external quality assurance program to evaluate their ability to detect, identify and perform antibiotic sensitivity testing on staphylococci from a variety of different specimens.¹⁹ MRSA isolates were shipped to the central laboratory (University of Antwerp, Belgium) for confirmation of identification.

Data collection

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 Fourther Form each hospital collected data and implemented the interview

the participating hospitals, including Infection Control, Infections Dis

demiology departments Research personnel from each hospital collected data and implemented the interventions at their study site. These personnel were from departments that supervise infection control activities at the participating hospitals, including Infection Control, Infectious Diseases and Hospital Epidemiology departments. They were trained at the study coordinating centre with regards to the study protocol, the outcome definitions and the use of the data collection tools prior to the commencement of the study to ensure consistency of data collection across the hospitals. Local microbiology laboratory data were reviewed to obtain information regarding MRSA isolated from screening and clinical cultures. Infections were monitored by twice weekly ward visits to review medical records and interview staff. Surgical site infection surveillance occurred up to 30 days post-procedure (or 12 months after prosthetic device insertion).

HH adherence was monitored by the research personnel who had been trained and validated in the WHO method of direct observation at the study coordinating centre.¹⁵ A standardised observation form was used by all centres. All hospitals collected data for 100 HH opportunities per ward during baseline and washout phases.²⁰ HH observers were specifically instructed not to provide feedback to healthcare workers concerning their HH practices during these study phases, and the observers were independent of surgical ward staff, reducing the likelihood of the Hawthorne effect, in which staff improve their practices when

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they are aware that they are being observed.²¹ During the intervention phase, there was intensive monitoring of HH practices in wards using the enhanced HH and combined strategies. In these wards, 100 HH opportunities per ward per month were observed as part of the intervention. Implementation of contact precautions, decolonisation therapy, and single room isolation for MRSA carriers was randomly audited each month. Signage of MRSA status and availability of gowns, gloves and alcohol-based handrub for contact with MRSA carriers was also audited.

ailability of gowns, gloves and alcohol-based handrub for contact wi
also audited.
In any numbers of admissions, patient-days, surgical procedures, and lev
collected. Ward-level data were submitted monthly to a central dat Data regarding numbers of admissions, patient-days, surgical procedures, and level of staffing were collected. Ward-level data were submitted monthly to a central data management centre via a password protected secure online database which included range, consistency, and missing data checks. Meetings, site visits, and monthly teleconferences were held to review data, ensure adherence to study protocols, and address queries. Data were reviewed monthly for completeness and 6-monthly for validity by teleconferences with individual study sites. Institutional review boards of all centres approved the study with a waiver of individual informed consent.

Statistical analysis

The study was designed to detect a 30% difference in nosocomial MRSA isolation rate assuming a baseline rate of 1.0 clinical isolate per 100 susceptible patients and an absolute difference of 10% between intervention arms. Sample size calculations assumed a two-sided test, a type I error rate of 0.05 and 80% power, taking the wards as the unit of analysis. A minimum of 15 wards was required per study arm.

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 Formally allow Example 111 compliance, seasonal effection,
 Formally, and patient-to-nurse ratios were adjusted for. Autocorrelation w
 Fusing a l Crude MRSA rates were calculated by study arm. Adjusted incidence rate ratios (aIRR) were calculated using multilevel Poisson segmented regression accounting for stepwise changes in MRSA level and changes in log-linear trends associated with the interventions.²² This analysis allowed for two levels of random-effects: hospital-level variation in intercepts and baseline trends, and nested ward-level variation in intercepts. It adjusted for exposure given by the monthly number of susceptible patients or admissions per ward and allowed for extra-Poisson variation. Surgical subspecialty, baseline HH compliance, seasonal effects (using calendar month), and patient-to-nurse ratios were adjusted for. Autocorrelation was accounted for using a lagged dependent variable. A similar analysis was performed for HH compliance, but used segmented multilevel logistic regression, adjusting for ward-specific baseline levels and trends, professional category, HH indication, patient-to-nurse ratios, and monthly MRSA colonisation pressure (number of days patients known to be MRSA colonised/infected were in the wards each month).

Planned subgroup analyses were performed by hospital and for clean surgery wards (cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery) as studies have shown that intranasal mupirocin, which is active against Gram-positive organisms, may be more effective for surgical site infection prevention in clean compared to clean-contaminated surgery (e.g. general or gastrointestinal surgery) where Gram-negative and anaerobic organisms may play a larger role.²³ As screening intensity varied in the combined arm, a planned exploratory analysis of MRSA outcome data was conducted to better quantify the intervention effects. It accounted for stepwise changes and log-linear trends in outcomes associated with the HH intervention, as well as the monthly proportion of patients screened and monthly cumulative screening rate on wards to account for changes in trends of outcomes associated with screening. Analyses were conducted with STATA 11.0 (STATA Corp, USA).

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RESULTS

During the study period, there were a total of 126 750 admissions and 99 638 surgical procedures on the study wards. Baseline admission MRSA prevalence, without systematic screening of all admitted patients, was 0.8% (269 of 33 608), ranging from 0.1% to 2.2% across surgical wards of each hospital. Baseline HH adherence varied between hospitals (39.5% overall, 95% CI 38.1% to 40.9%) as did use of targeted MRSA screening (0 to 30.9% of admissions) (table 1). Study characteristics are shown in table 2 and online supplementary table A2.

Adherence to hand hygiene guidelines

all admitted patients, was 0.8% (269 of 33 608), ranging from 0.1%
al wards of each hospital. Baseline HH adherence varied between hc
ill, 95% CI 38.1% to 40.9%) as did use of targeted MRSA screening
s) (table 1). Study ch In the enhanced HH and combined arms, HH compliance improved in all centres with overall compliance increasing from 49.3% (95% CI 47.2% to 51.4%) to 63.8% (95% CI 63.2% to 64.4%) from baseline to intervention phases (figure 2a). After multivariable analysis, commencing HH promotion was associated with a significant immediate increase in HH compliance (adjusted odds ratio [aOR] 1.19, 95% CI 1.01 to 1.42) (see online supplementary table A3). However, this benefit was not sustained after cessation of the HH campaign with a significant decreasing trend in HH adherence of 9% per month (aOR for month postintervention 0.91, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.97) during the washout phase. In wards in the screening and decolonisation arm, where no HH promotion occurred, compliance remained low at 30.5% (95% CI 28.7% to 32.4%) at baseline and 23.9% (95% CI 22.0% to 25.9%) during the washout phase.

Screening, contact precautions and decolonisation of MRSA carriers

phases in screening and decolonisation wards, the proportion of audided on contact precautions increased (81.1% to 90.7%), as did adminion therapy (34.4% to 69.8%) (figure 3). However, the proportion of a rest in single ro During the intervention phase, 9250 (75.3%) of 12 279 patients were screened on admission to wards in the screening and decolonisation arm. Admission MRSA prevalence was 2.1% (259 of 12 279), consisting of 27 patients (10.4%) with MRSA-positive clinical cultures and 232 patients (89.6%) identified by screening alone. PCR screening was used in addition to chromogenic agar cultures in 1047 (11.3%) of 9250 patients. Between baseline and intervention phases in screening and decolonisation wards, the proportion of audited MRSA carriers placed on contact precautions increased (81.1% to 90.7%), as did administration of decolonisation therapy (34.4% to 69.8%) (figure 3). However, the proportion of audited MRSA carriers in single rooms decreased (67.8% to 40.1%), possibly due to a shortage of rooms for the higher number of identified MRSA carriers. Reasons for non-adherence to decolonisation therapy included discharge prior to an MRSA-positive result, discharge prior to commencement of decolonisation therapy or the patient declining the intervention.

Screening occurred to a lesser extent in the other study arms (figure 2b). About 10% of admissions to wards in the enhanced HH arm were screened throughout the study. In wards in the combined arm, screening increased from 9.2% to 22.3%, then 36.9% during baseline, intervention, and washout phases respectively. In this arm, adherence to contact precautions was high throughout the study (93.0% to 99.6%), but only 32.9% of MRSA patients at baseline and 35.9% of patients during the intervention phase received decolonisation therapy (figure 3).

Nosocomial MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures

Crude MRSA isolation rates from clinical cultures decreased in all study arms during the intervention phase (enhanced HH arm: 0.99 to 0.80; screening and decolonisation arm: 0.47 to 0.23; combined arm: 0.55 to 0.36 ; $p=0.04$; per 100 susceptible patients) (table 3). After

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adjusting for clustering and potential confounders with multilevel segmented Poisson regression (table 4 and see online supplementary table A4 for full model), commencement of HH promotion in the enhanced HH arm was associated with an immediate non-significant increase in nosocomial MRSA isolation rate (aIRR 1.44, 95% CI 0.96 to 2.15) with no change in the trend in rates over time. In clean surgery wards, HH promotion was associated with a non-significant decreasing monthly MRSA isolation rate (aIRR 0.89, 95% CI 0.78 to 1.01) (table 5 and see online supplementary table A5 for full model).

In the screening and decolonisation arm, there were no significant changes in MRSA isolation rates. However, in clean surgery, this intervention was associated with a reduction in MRSA clinical cultures of 15% per month (aIRR 0.85, 95% CI 0.74 to 0.97).

gnificant decreasing monthly MRSA isolation rate (aIRR 0.89, 95%

is and see online supplementary table A5 for full model).

ing and decolonisation arm, there were no significant changes in MR

s. However, in clean surgery In the combined arm (wards that used a combination of HH promotion with targeted screening), there was a significant decreasing trend in MRSA isolation rate of 12% per month overall (aIRR 0.88, 95% CI 0.79 to 0.98), and 18% per month in clean surgery (aIRR 0.82, 95% CI 0.71 to 0.95). Observed and model-predicted MRSA isolation rates from clinical cultures are illustrated in figure 4a and online supplementary figure A1.

During the washout phase, MRSA clinical culture isolation rates increased, particularly in clean surgery wards. This was due to an abrupt increase in the level of MRSA clinical cultures on cessation of the intervention phase in all study arms, but particularly with the conclusion of the intensive HH promotion campaign in the combined arm (data not shown).

Nosocomial MRSA infection rates

There were 470 nosocomial MRSA infections in total (335 [71.3%] surgical site, 41 [8.7%] bloodstream, and 94 [20.0%] other infections). Crude infection rates decreased over time in all study arms (table 3). After multivariable analysis (table 4, figure 4b and see online supplementary table A4), enhanced HH promotion alone was not associated with changes in MRSA infection rates. Both the screening/decolonisation and combined interventions resulted in non-significant decreasing trends in total MRSA infection (screening and decolonisation arm: aIRR 0.93, 95% CI 0.82 to 1.05; combined arm: aIRR 0.90, 95% CI 0.80 to 1.02) and surgical site infection rates (table 4, figure 4c and online supplementary table A4).

In clean surgery, the screening and decolonisation strategy was associated with significant reductions in total MRSA infection rate of 17% per month (aIRR 0.83, 95% CI 0.69 to 0.99) and MRSA surgical site infection rate of 19% per month (aIRR 0.81, 95% CI 0.66 to 1.00) (table 5 and online supplementary table A5).

Exploratory analysis to directly assess implemented interventions

on-significant decreasing trends in total MRSA infection (screening a

in arm: aIRR 0.93, 95% CI 0.82 to 1.05; combined arm: aIRR 0.90, surgical site infection rates (table 4, figure 4c and online supplement

every, the sc The exploratory analysis did not show any significant effects of HH promotion on nosocomial MRSA isolation rates (see online supplementary table A6). The intensity of admission screening was associated with a decreasing trend in monthly MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures (aIRR 0.91 per month with 100% compliance with screening, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.98). A similar effect was seen in the trend in MRSA infection rate (aIRR 0.92, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.99).

DISCUSSION

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We found that as individual interventions, neither an enhanced HH promotion strategy nor universal MRSA screening with contact precautions and decolonisation of MRSA carriers were effective in reducing MRSA rates in surgical patients. However, using a combination of both HH promotion and targeted screening was associated with a reduction in MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures of 12% per month. When the interventions were specifically evaluated in the subgroup of clean surgery wards, the screening and decolonisation strategy was most effective. In these wards, this intervention was associated with significant reductions in both MRSA clinical culture isolation rate of 15% per month and MRSA infection rate of 17% per month.

ivaluated in the subgroup of clean surgery wards, the screening and
an strategy was most effective. In these wards, this intervention was
ant reductions in both MRSA clinical culture isolation rate of 15% p
fiection rate o This study is unique in that it directly compared strategies individually and in combination using a large, prospective, controlled design.¹⁰ In addition, we used a planned exploratory analysis to separate out the individual effects of the HH and MRSA screening strategies. Interventions were implemented and assessed under operational conditions in ten heterogeneous hospitals across Europe and Israel with widely varying infection control practices, staffing, infrastructure, and MRSA epidemiology, increasing the generalisability of our findings. This study has been reported using standard reporting guidelines that are designed to maximise transparency and scientific rigor of intervention studies of healthcare associated infection.²⁴

Our analysis, which adjusted for confounders, seasonal effects and baseline MRSA trends, found no evidence that enhanced HH promotion was effective. MRSA rates are declining in many countries.²⁵ Failing to account for this would overestimate intervention effects. Overall baseline HH compliance was 49% in study wards that used the HH intervention. In settings where compliance is already above about 50%, modelling studies suggest that further

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increases in compliance will have rapidly diminishing returns for reducing MRSA transmission.²⁶ In facilities with lower HH compliance or higher MRSA rates, this intervention may be more effective than we were able to demonstrate. In addition, HH campaigns involve education and behaviour change and are therefore unlikely to have a short term effect. Other studies have shown that they may be beneficial if activity is sustained over years.^{27,28} Although we did not detect any intervention effects of the HH promotion strategy, cessation of this intervention was associated with an increase in MRSA rates in our study, suggesting that discontinuing activities to optimise HH practices may be detrimental.

though we did not detect any intervention effects of the HH promoti-
this intervention was associated with an increase in MRSA rates in o
at discontinuing activities to optimise HH practices may be detrimer
A surveillance Active MRSA surveillance identifies the reservoir of asymptomatic carriers, enabling early implementation of contact precautions and decolonisation, which can reduce transmission.^{29,30} With universal screening, we found that 90% of MRSA-positive patients would have been missed using clinical cultures alone. However, our results suggest that rather than universal screening of all surgical patients, selective screening in clean surgery wards or a combination of HH promotion and targeted screening of high risk patients may be more effective strategies. The relative burden of Gram-positive infections is greater in clean compared to clean-contaminated surgery where other pathogens, including bowel flora, may be more important.^{23,31} Thus it is biologically plausible that MRSA-specific interventions would potentially have a greater impact in clean surgery. Indeed, intranasal mupirocin has been shown to reduce surgical site infections in cardiothoracic and orthopaedic surgery, but is less effective in general surgery.²³ The commencement of such decolonisation regimens prior to surgical procedures, which can be facilitated by rapid detection of *S. aureus* carriage with molecular tests, is likely a key factor in the success of this approach.³² The use of molecular tests in the latter part of the intervention phase in our study could have significantly

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contributed to the reduction in MRSA rates seen over the period of the intervention phase, particularly in clean surgery wards.

H promotion combined with targeted screening. A significant reduct
tal cultures was seen with the combined strategy despite the enrolme
in this study arm. This suggests that the effect of the combined inte
ugh the universa The exploratory analysis suggests that screening intensity, rather than HH promotion, explained the intervention effects. It is curious, then, that universal screening did not perform better than HH promotion combined with targeted screening. A significant reduction in MRSA clinical cultures was seen with the combined strategy despite the enrolment of only two hospitals in this study arm. This suggests that the effect of the combined intervention was robust. Although the universal screening arm enrolled four hospitals, low baseline MRSA rates in this arm may have reduced our ability to detect significant effects. Shortage of isolation rooms may have also contributed. In addition, targeted screening may have been more effective if it identified "superspreaders", facilitating more efficient use of resources including limited single rooms. Modelling studies also demonstrate that targeted screening has the advantage of increased cost-effectiveness compared to universal screening for reducing healthcare associated MRSA infections.³⁴

This study adds to the conflicting literature regarding active surveillance cultures. Our results apply to surgical settings. The risk of MRSA infection in other wards, such as intensive care units or general medical wards, would differ due to variation in patient comorbidities and exposure to invasive procedures or antibiotics. It is also important to note that previous studies have used a variety of interventions in combination with screening. In some cases, the use of pre-emptive isolation in both study arms³⁵ or lack of decolonisation strategies, 6 may have led to effect sizes that studies had insufficient power to detect. Comparison of rapid screening to conventional rather than no screening,³⁵ differences in screening methods,¹⁰

variation in MRSA strains, or limitations in study design and analyses^{10,11} are other potential explanations for the conflicting results of screening studies.

were not blinded to study assignment. Although allocation of interved, we accounted for differences in hospitals by adjusting for potent and comparing outcomes between baseline and intervention phases rm. Decisions to take There are some limitations to this study. Due to the nature of the interventions, which involved HH audits, promotion and feedback and/or implementation of MRSA screening, investigators were not blinded to study assignment. Although allocation of interventions was not randomised, we accounted for differences in hospitals by adjusting for potential confounders and comparing outcomes between baseline and intervention phases within the same study arm. Decisions to take culture samples were initiated by treating physicians, not research personnel, and standardised definitions for infections were used, reducing the likelihood of bias in the measurement of the study outcomes by unblinded assessors. We used MRSA-positive clinical cultures as our primary outcome. Although this measure does not distinguish between colonisation and infection, it can be a more sensitive marker for changes in MRSA disease rates.³⁷ We found the results for MRSA clinical cultures similar to those for infections, suggesting that this measure was clinically relevant. Patient-level data, such as age, comorbidities and length of stay, and antibiotic use were not measured for this study. However, results were similar when each centre was excluded in turn from the analysis (data not shown) so changes in factors in individual centres are unlikely to have had a major effect on study outcomes.

Conclusion

In surgical wards with relatively low MRSA prevalence, a combination of enhanced standard infection control measures emphasising HH promotion and MRSA-specific (targeted screening) approaches was required to reduce MRSA rates. Implementation of single interventions was not effective, except in clean surgery wards where MRSA screening

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FOR FOR PRIMEDIAL coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation of identified MRSA carriers was associated with significant reductions in MRSA clinical culture and infection rates. These findings are likely generalisable to other settings with varying infection control practices. In addition, the HH promotion strategy implemented in this study is already being used in many parts of the world. Therefore our study, which provides evidence that this intervention alone is not sufficient to reduce MRSA rates, potentially has widespread implications for best clinical practice recommendations and policy change. Further research regarding the costeffectiveness of these interventions will allow better utilisation of limited healthcare

resources.

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Competing interests

EXTREM ASS Supported by the European Commission under the Life Science H

For e^{6th} Framework Program (MOSAR network contract LSHP-CT-200
 Interests

For of the speakers' bureau for bioMérieux and Pfizer, and the scient SH is a member of the speakers' bureau for bioMérieux and Pfizer, and the scientific advisory board of Destiny Pharma, DaVolterra, and bioMérieux. He has received financial support for MRSA research activities from Geneva University Hospitals, B.Braun, and Pfizer. AP is a member of the speakers' bureau for Cubist and has received financial support for MRSA research activities from BD. There were no other financial or non-financial relationships, or interests that may be relevant to the submitted work.

Author contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: SH CBB. Analysed the data: ASL BSC. Contributed reagents/materials: SMK HG. Wrote the first draft of the manuscript: ASL. Contributed to the writing of the manuscript: ASL SH BSC CBB AC GLD CF BC SL SMK JAM CMA AP GP BR HG. ICMJE criteria for authorship read and met: ASL BSC SMK AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR HG CBB SH. Agree with manuscript results and conclusions: ASL BSC SMK AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR HG CBB SH. Enrolled patients: ASL AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR. Statistical support: BSC. **BMJ Open**

Data sharing

The dataset is available from the corresponding author at stephan.harbarth@hcuge.ch.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1 Flow of study wards through each phase of the study

Figure 1 Legend

Ten hospitals in nine countries were enrolled and were allocated to one of three study arms during the intervention phase. The enhanced hand hygiene arm used hand hygiene promotion; the screening and decolonisation arm used universal meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy with intranasal mupirocin and chlorhexidine body washes for identified MRSA carriers; the combined arm used a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA screening.

Figure 2 Implementation of the interventions

Figure 2 Legend

The top panel (A) shows the monthly hand hygiene compliance rates for hospitals in the enhanced hand hygiene and combined arms that used hand hygiene promotion campaigns. The solid dots represent the observed compliance rates while the lines represent the predicted compliance rates based on the regression model. The bottom panel (B) shows the proportion of patients screened on admission to the study wards by study arm. HH, hand hygiene.

Figure 3 Adherence to contact precautions, decolonisation and isolation measures for meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* carriers

Figure 3 Legend

m used a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRS
plementation of the interventions
Formally hand hygiene compliance rates for hospital
d hygiene and combined arms that used hand hygiene promotion ca
as rep This figure shows the distribution of monthly adherence to infection control measures for randomly audited patients known to be colonised or infected with meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) for each study arm. The top panel (A) shows adherence to implementation of contact precautions, decolonisation therapy, and isolation in single rooms. The middle panel (B) shows the presence of signage of MRSA status on the patients' room, bed, or nursing chart. The bottom panel (C) shows the availability of gowns, gloves, and alcohol-based handrub in or at the entrance of the room. The horizontal line in each box represents the median, the box represents the interquartile range and the vertical lines represent the minimum and maximum values. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

Figure 4 Nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* rates by study arm

Figure 4 Legend

The top panel (A) shows the nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) isolaton rates from clinical specimens. The middle panel (B) shows the nosocomial MRSA infection rates. The bottom panel (C) shows the nosocomial MRSA surgical site infection rates. The solid dots represent the observed MRSA rates while the lines represent the predicted MRSA rates based on the regression models. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

TABLES

Table 1: Baseline phase characteristics of hospitals and wards enrolled in the study

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MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

*Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts).

†By screening or clinical culture.

For peer review only ‡Screening in hospitals in the combined arm was performed according to locally introduced policies. Hospital 4 used targeted screening of patients who were previously known to be MRSA-positive, contacts of MRSA-positive patients, and patients transferred from the Intensive Care Unit or other healthcare facilities. Hospital 7 introduced universal screening in two of three study wards and targeted screening in the third ward. In this ward, patients who were previously known to be MRSA-positive, nursing home residents, patients admitted to the hospital in the last three months, contacts of MRSA-positive patients, and patients transferred from another ward or healthcare facility were screened.

Table 2: Study characteristics by study period

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

 *Baseline phase was 6 months in six hospitals and 7 months in four hospitals (two in the screening and decolonisation arm and one hospital in each of theenhanced hand hygiene and combined arms).

 †Clean surgery wards included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery. Other types of surgery wards included abdominal, general, and urological surgery.

 ‡Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts). §By screening or clinical culture.

Table 3: Crude nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **incidence rates and incidence rate ratios by study arm for each study period***

IRR, incidence rate ratio; MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward.

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Table 4: Multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing adjusted incidence rate ratios for changes in level and trend of nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates***

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and adjusted for staffing (patient-to-nurse ratios), seasonal effects, type of surgical ward, and baseline hand hygiene compliance rates. The model also accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

Table 5: Multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing changes in nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates for the subgroup analysis of clean surgery only***

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. Clean surgery included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery subspecialties. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and adjusted for staffing (patient-to-nurse ratios), seasonal effects, type of surgical ward, and baseline hand hygiene compliance rates. The model also accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

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ABSTRACT

Objective: To compare the effect of two strategies (enhanced standard controlhand hygiene versus meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* [MRSA] screening and decolonisation) alone and in combination on MRSA rates in surgical wards.

Design: Prospective, controlled, interventional cohort study, with 6-month baseline, 12month intervention, and 6-month washout phases.

Setting: 33 surgical wards in ten hospitals in nine countries in Europe and Israel.

Participants: All patients admitted to the enrolled wards for more than 24 hours.

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Outcome measures: Monthly rates of MRSA clinical cultures per 100 susceptible patients (primary outcome) and MRSA infections per 100 admissions (secondary outcome). Planned subgroup analysis for clean surgery wards was performed.

Results: There were a total of 126,750 admissions to the study wards. After adjusting for clustering and potential confounders, neither strategy when used alone was associated with significant changes in MRSA rates. Combining both strategies was associated with a reduction in the rate of MRSA clinical cultures of 12% per month (aIRR 0.88, 95% CI 0.79 to 0.98). In clean surgery wards, strategy 2 (MRSA screening, contact precautions, and decolonisation) was associated with decreasing rates of MRSA clinical cultures (15% monthly decrease, aIRR 0.85, 95% CI 0.74 to 0.97) and MRSA infections (17% monthly decrease, aIRR 0.83, 95% CI 0.69 to 0.99).

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mificant reductions in MRSA clinical culture and infection rates.

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Transference of the Control of the Control of the Control of Control of Control of Control of Control **Conclusions:** In surgical wards with relatively low MRSA prevalence, a combination of enhanced standard and MRSA-specific infection control approaches was required to reduce MRSA rates. Implementation of single interventions was not effective, except in clean surgery wards where MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation was associated with significant reductions in MRSA clinical culture and infection rates. **Trial Registration:** clinicaltrials.gov identifier: NCT00685867

Comment [AL1]: Reviewer 3 clarification point 4

ARTICLE SUMMARY

Article focus

- The relative effectiveness of different meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) control measures is controversial.
- This study directly compared the effect of two strategies (enhanced standard controlhand hygiene versus MRSA screening and decolonisation, alone and in combination) on MRSA rates in surgical wards.

Key messages

- I measures is controversial.
 **For compared the effect of two strategies (enhanced standard

<u>For persus</u> MRSA screening and decolonisation, alone and in

MRSA rates in surgical wards

A standard infection control measures** • Neither enhanced standard infection control measures (emphasising hand hygiene promotion) nor MRSA-specific control interventions (MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy) when used alone for 12 months effectively reduced MRSA rates in surgical wards with relatively low MRSA rates.
- A combination of interventions, including targeted screening of high risk patients, did result in reduction in the rate of MRSA isolated from clinical cultures.
- In surgical subspecialties that perform clean surgery, MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy effectively reduced both the rates of MRSA isolated from clinical cultures as well as MRSA infections.

Strengths and limitations of this study

- Unlike many previous studies, this was a large, prospective, multicentre, intervention study. The enrolled wards, from ten hospitals in Europe and Israel, varied in terms of infection control infrastructure and MRSA prevalence, thus the results are likely to be generalisable to other settings.
- Due to the nature of the quality improvement initiatives, investigators were not blinded to the allocated intervention. Interventions were not randomly allocated.

INTRODUCTION

Healthcare associated infections affect hundreds of millions of patients worldwide every year and represent an important cause of patient mortality and a major financial burden to health systems.¹ Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), now endemic in many healthcare facilities, is a leading cause of healthcare associated infections,² and patients in surgical units are at increased risk due to factors such as invasive procedures, antibiotic exposure, and prolonged healthcare contact. A number of countries mandate implementation of control measures, including MRSA screening.^{3,4} Not all mandated interventions, however, are supported by robust evidence.

istant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), now endemic in many

a leading cause of healthcare associated infections,² and patients in

reased risk due to factors such as invasive procedures, antibiotic

d healthcare contact. Studies evaluating MRSA control strategies show conflicting results, particularly with regards to the use of active surveillance cultures.⁵⁻⁷ It is argued that broader infection control approaches, such as improving hand hygiene (HH) practices, may be as successful as MRSAspecific strategies.^{8,9} There are limitations, however, to current evidence with few prospective, controlled studies,^{10,11} and many studies have assessed multiple interventions simultaneously.¹² Quantifying the relative benefits of individual approaches is important, particularly as some strategies have significant cost implications, and will allow efficient use of limited resources.

Due to the ongoing debate concerning optimal approaches to MRSA control, $13,14$ we performed a prospective, interventional, quality improvement study to directly compare the effect of an enhanced standard infection controlHH promotion strategy, emphasising HH adherence, to an MRSA screening, isolation and decolonisation strategy when used alone and in combination on the incidence rates of MRSA clinical cultures and infections in surgical

Comment [AL3]: Reviewer 3 comment 1

patients admitted to healthcare facilities across Europe and Israel. We also aimed to specifically assess these interventions in clean surgery wards where their benefits may be expected to be more pronounced. **Comment [AL2]:** Reviewer 3 clarification point 3

METHODS

Study design and population

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 For series design was conducted between March 2008 and July 2010.
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 For all strains an Thise study was a prospective, controlled, multicentre, interventional cohort study with a three phase interrupted time series design was conducted between March 2008 and July 2010. Thirty-three surgical wards of ten hospitals in nine countries (Serbia, France, Spain [two hospitals], Italy, Greece, Scotland, Israel, Germany, and Switzerland) were enrolled. Wards included orthopaedic (8), vascular (6), cardiothoracic/cardiovascular (5), general (4), abdominal (4), urology (3), neurosurgery (2), and plastic surgery (1) subspecialties. Characteristics of the enrolled wards varied (table 1).

The study consisted of baseline (6 to 7 months), intervention (12 months), and washout (6 months) phases. During baseline and washout phases, wards employed their usual infection control practices. During the intervention phase, two strategies were investigated, with hospitals implementing one or both interventions in parallel (figure 1).

Interventions

The first intervention, the Ethe enhanced **HHStandard Control (ESC)** strategy, used the WHO multi-modal HH promotion method consisting of: 1) using alcohol-based handrub at the point of care, 2) training and education of healthcare workers, 3) observation and feedback of HH practices, 4) reminders in the workplace (e.g. posters), and 5) improving the

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safety climate in the institution with management support for the initiative.¹⁵ Adherence to standard precautions (e.g. gloves for body fluid contact) and isolation of MRSA patients according to local policies were encouraged.

For all the series and decolonisation Active detection, Contast misation (ACD) strategy, consisted of screening patients admitted for MRSA, on admission (within 48 hours) then weekly. Patients were gif they were undergoi The second intervention, the screening and decolonisationActive detection, Contact precautions and Decolonisation (ACD) strategy, consisted of screening patients admitted for more than 24 hours for MRSA, on admission (within 48 hours) then weekly. Patients were excluded from screening if they were undergoing ambulatory surgery or had already been screened within 5 days prior to admission to the surgical ward. The nares, perineum, and wounds (if present) were swabbed. Chromogenic agar screening was used with the addition of polymerase chain reaction (PCR) testing during the latter part of the intervention phase for patients who had risk factors for MRSA (e.g. hospitalisation in the last year) whose chromogenic agar results were unlikely to be available before surgery. MRSA carriers were placed on contact precautions (gown and gloves during patient contact), administered decolonisation therapy with twice daily intranasal mupirocin and daily chlorhexidine washes for five days, and perioperative prophylaxis was modified to reflect MRSA carriage. Chlorhexidine bathing was limited to identified MRSA carriers and not used as a unit-wide intervention. Pre-emptive isolation was not used as part of this strategy.

The hospital was the unit for assignment of interventions due to practical reasons and the nature of the strategies. Four hospitals were assigned to each intervention and two hospitals used a combination of both strategies (MIX armthe combined strategy) due to the introduction of national or local mandatory targeted MRSA screening policies (table 1). These assignments occurred prior to data collection. **Comment [AL4]:** Reviewer 3 comment 1.

Reviewer 3 clarification point 5b.

Outcomes measures

The primary outcome measure was the monthly nosocomial MRSA isolation rate, defined as the number of MRSA clinical isolates (those from specimens collected other than for screening purposes, counting one isolate per patient per month), per 100 susceptible patients (not previously known to be MRSA colonised or infected). Isolates from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days after discharge from study wards were considered nosocomial.

to be MRSA colonised or infected). Isolates from specimens collected
 Frammission or within 30 days after discharge from study wards were
 For the monthly rate of nosocomial MRSA infections per 100
 For the monthly ra Secondary outcomes were the monthly rate of nosocomial MRSA infections per 100 admissions, and adherence to HH guidelines and contact precautions. Infections were defined using CDC criteria.¹⁶ Adherence to HH guidelines was measured as the percentage of opportunities for HH in which staff used alcohol-based handrub and/or washed their hands according to the WHO method.¹⁵ Adherence to contact precautions was measured as the percentage of randomly audited MRSA patients for whom precautions with gown and gloves during patient contact had been implemented.

Microbiological methods

Standardised laboratory manuals were provided to centres. Samples were processed in local laboratories using standard culture-based identification of MRSA from clinical specimens. In ACD hospitals assigned to the screening and decolonisation arm, nasal and perineal swabs were pooled in the laboratory then plated directly onto chromogenic medium (BBL CHROMagar MRSA II, BD Diagnostics, Belgium) and also incubated overnight in an enrichment medium to increase test sensitivity.¹⁷ Positive results could be reported within 24 to 48 hours.¹⁸ PCR testing directly from pooled screening swabs was performed with the BD GeneOhm MRSA (BD Diagnostics, Belgium) or GeneXpert MRSA (Cepheid, Belgium)

Comment [AL5]: Reviewer 2 comment 3

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tests, which have turnaround times of 2 to 3 hours and 1.5 hours respectively (see online supplementary table A1).¹⁸ All Llaboratories participated in an external quality assurance program to evaluate their ability to detect, identify and perform antibiotic sensitivity testing on staphylococci from a variety of different specimens. ¹⁹ MRSA isolates were shipped to the central laboratory (University of Antwerp, Belgium) for confirmation of identification.

Data collection

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rersonnel were from departments that supervise infection control

dat Research personnel from each **hospital collected data and implemented the interventions at** their study site. These personnel were from departments that supervise infection control activities at the participating hospitals, including Infection Control, Infectious Diseases and Hospital Epidemiology departments. They were trained at the study coordinating centre with regards to the study protocol, the outcome definitions and the use of the data collection tools prior to the commencement of the study to ensure consistency of data collection across the hospitals. Local microbiology laboratory data were reviewed to obtain information regarding MRSA isolated from screening and clinical cultures. Infections were monitored by twice weekly ward visits to review medical records and interview staff. Surgical site infection surveillance occurred up to 30 days post-procedure (or 12 months after prosthetic device insertion).

HH adherence was monitored by the direct observation by research personnel who were independent of surgical ward staff.^{$+5$} who had been trained and validated in the WHO method of direct observation at the study coordinating centre.¹⁵ A standardised observation form was used by all centres. All hospitals collected data for 100 HH opportunities per ward during baseline and washout phases.²⁰ HH observers were specifically instructed not to provide feedback to healthcare workers concerning their HH practices during these study phases, and

Comment [AL6]: Reviewer 3 clarification point 1.

Comment [AL7]: Reviewer 2 comment 3.

the observers were independent of surgical ward staff, reducing the likelihood of the Hawthorne effect, in which staff improve their practices when they are aware that they are being observed.²¹ During the intervention phase, there was intensive monitoring of HH practices in wards using the enhanced HH and combined strategies. In these wards, 100 HH opportunities per ward per month were observed as part of the intervention in ESC and MIX wards only. Implementation of contact precautions, decolonisation therapy, and single room isolation offor MRSA carriers was randomly audited each month. Signage of MRSA status and availability of gowns, gloves and alcohol-based handrub for contact with MRSA carriers was also audited.

Data regarding numbers of admissions, patient-days, surgical procedures, and level of staffing were collected.

per month were observed <u>as part of the intervention</u> in ESC and MIX
ation of contact precautions, decolonisation therapy, and single room
arriers was randomly audited each month. Signage of MRSA status
is, gloves and alco Ward-level data were submitted monthly to a central data management centre via a password protected secure online database which included range, consistency, and missing data checks. Meetings, site visits, and monthly teleconferences were held to review data, ensure adherence to study protocols, and address queries. Data were reviewed monthly for completeness and 6 monthly for validity by teleconferences with individual study sites. Institutional review boards of all centres approved the study with a waiver of individual informed consent.

Statistical analysis

The study was designed to detect a 30% difference in nosocomial MRSA isolation rate assuming a baseline rate of 1.0 clinical isolate per 100 susceptible patients and an absolute difference of 10% between intervention arms. Sample size calculations assumed a two-sided

Comment [AL8]: Reviewer 1 comment 2. Reviewer 2 comment 4.

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test, a type I error rate of 0.05 and 80% power, taking the wards as the unit of analysis. A minimum of 15 wards was required per study arm.

For Poisson segmented regression accounting for stepwise changes in
 **For peer is also associated with the interventions.²² This

For peer steps of random-effects:** hospital-level variation in intercepts and
 Edd war Crude MRSA rates were calculated by study arm. Adjusted incidence rate ratios (aIRR) were calculated using multilevel Poisson segmented regression accounting for stepwise changes in MRSA level and changes in log-linear trends associated with the interventions.²² This analysis allowed for two levels of random-effects: hospital-level variation in intercepts and baseline trends, and nested ward-level variation in intercepts. It adjusted for exposure given by the monthly number of susceptible patients or admissions per ward and allowed for extra-Poisson variation. Surgical subspecialty, baseline HH compliance, seasonal effects (using calendar month), and patient-to-nurse ratios were adjusted for. Autocorrelation was accounted for using a lagged dependent variable. A similar analysis was performed for HH compliance, but used segmented multilevel logistic regression, adjusting for ward-specific baseline levels and trends, professional category, HH indication, patient-to-nurse ratios, and monthly MRSA colonisation pressure (number of days patients known to be MRSA colonised/infected were in the wards each month).

Planned subgroup analyses were performed by hospital and for clean surgery wards (cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery) as studies have shown that intranasal mupirocin, which is active against Ggram-positive organisms, may be more effective for surgical site infection prevention in clean compared to clean-contaminated surgery (e.g. general or gastrointestinal surgery) where $\frac{1}{2}$ Gram-negative and anaerobic organisms may play a larger role.²³ As screening intensity varied in the **combined MIX** arm, a planned exploratory analysis of MRSA outcome data was conducted to better quantify the intervention effects. It accounted for stepwise changes and log-linear trends in outcomes

associated with the HH intervention, as well as the monthly proportion of patients screened and monthly cumulative screening rate on wards to account for changes in trends of outcomes associated with screening. Analyses were conducted with STATA 11.0 (STATA Corp, USA).

RESULTS

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 For periodic SV (269 of 33 608), ranging from 0.1% to 2.2%
 For Peer Peer Peer Review OF 33 608), During the study period, there were a total of 126 750 admissions and 99 638 surgical procedures on the study wards. Baseline admission MRSA prevalence, without systematic screening of all admitted patients, was 0.8% (269 of 33 608), ranging from 0.1% to 2.2% across surgical wards of each hospital. Baseline HH adherence varied between hospitals (39.5% overall, 95% CI 38.1% to 40.9%) as did use of targeted MRSA screening (0 to 30.9% of admissions) (table 1). Study characteristics are shown in table 2 and online supplementary table A2.

Adherence to hand hygiene guidelines

In the enhanced HH and combinedESC and MIX arms, HH compliance improved in all centres with overall compliance increasing from 49.3% (95% CI 47.2% to 51.4%) to 63.8% (95% CI 63.2% to 64.4%) from baseline to intervention phases (figure \pm 2a). After multivariable analysis, commencing HH promotion was associated with a significant immediate increase in HH compliance (adjusted odds ratio [aOR] 1.19, 95% CI 1.01 to 1.42) (see online supplementary table A3). However, this benefit was not sustained after cessation of the HH campaign with a significant decreasing trend in HH adherence of 9% per month (aOR for month post-intervention 0.91, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.97) during the washout phase. In ACD wards in the screening and decolonisation arm, where no HH promotion occurred,

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compliance remained low at 30.5% (95% CI 28.7% to 32.4%) at baseline and 23.9% (95% CI 22.0% to 25.9%) during the washout phase.

phase, 9250 (75.3%) of 12 279 patients were screened on admission
<u>reening and decolonisation arm</u>. Admission MRSA prevalence was
consisting of 27 patients (10.4%) with MRSA-positive clinical cultures
(b) identified by scr **ScreeningActive detection, contact precautions and decolonisation of MRSA carriers** During the intervention phase, 9250 (75.3%) of 12 279 patients were screened on admission to **ACD** wards in the screening and decolonisation arm. Admission MRSA prevalence was 2.1% (259 of 12 279), consisting of 27 patients (10.4%) with MRSA-positive clinical cultures and 232 patients (89.6%) identified by screening alone. PCR screening was used in addition to chromogenic agar cultures in 1047 (11.3%) of 9250 patients. Between baseline and intervention phases in **ACD** screening and decolonisation wards, the proportion of audited MRSA carriers placed on contact precautions increased (81.1% to 90.7%), as did administration of decolonisation therapy $(34.4\%$ to 69.8%) (figure $\frac{23}{21}$). However, the proportion of audited MRSA carriers in single rooms decreased (67.8% to 40.1%), possibly due to a shortage of rooms for the higher number of identified MRSA carriers. Reasons for non-adherence to decolonisation therapy included discharge prior to an MRSA-positive result, discharge prior to commencement of decolonisation therapy or the patient declining the intervention.

Screening occurred to a lesser extent in the other study arms (figure $\frac{12}{2}$ b). About 10% of admissions to ESC wards in the enhanced HH arm were screened throughout the study. In MIX wards in the combined arm, screening increased from 9.2% to 22.3%, then 36.9% during baseline, intervention, and washout phases respectively. In this arm, adherence to contact precautions was high throughout the study (93.0% to 99.6%), but only 32.9% of MRSA patients at baseline and 35.9% of patients during the intervention phase received decolonisation therapy (figure).

Comment [AL10]: Reviewer 1 comment 3.

Nosocomial MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures

Example 10 and the sum only and the sum of the sum of the sum of the sum of the semested of the semested be 4 and see online supplementary table A4 for full model), promotion in the enhanced HH (ESC-arm) was associated w Crude MRSA isolation rates from clinical cultures decreased in all study arms during the intervention phase (enhanced HHESC arm: 0.99 to 0.80; ACDscreening and decolonisation arm: 0.47 to 0.23 ; \overrightarrow{MIX} combined arm: 0.55 to 0.36 ; p=0.04; per 100 susceptible patients) (table 3). After adjusting for clustering and potential confounders with multilevel segmented Poisson regression (table 4 and see online supplementary table A4 for full model), commencement of HH promotion in the enhanced HH (ESC-arm) was associated with an immediate non-significant increase in nosocomial MRSA isolation rate (aIRR 1.44, 95% CI 0.96 to 2.15) with no change in the trend in rates over time. In clean surgery wards, HH promotion was associated with a non-significant decreasing monthly MRSA isolation rate (aIRR 0.89, 95% CI 0.78 to 1.01) (table 5 and see online supplementary table A5 for full model).

In the screening and decolonisation armScreening, contact precautions and decolonisation (ACD arm), there were no was not associated with significant changes in MRSA isolation rates. However, in clean surgery, this intervention was associated with a reduction in MRSA clinical cultures of 15% per month (aIRR 0.85, 95% CI 0.74 to 0.97).

In the combined arm (wards that used a combination of Combining HH promotion with targeted screening), (MIX arm) was associated with there was a significant decreasing trend in MRSA isolation rate of 12% per month overall (aIRR 0.88, 95% CI 0.79 to 0.98), and 18% per month in clean surgery (aIRR 0.82, 95% CI 0.71 to 0.95). Observed and model-predicted MRSA isolation rates from clinical cultures are illustrated in figure 43a and online supplementary figure A1.

During the washout phase, MRSA clinical culture isolation rates increased, particularly in clean surgery wards. This was due to an abrupt increase in the level of MRSA clinical cultures on cessation of the intervention phase in all study arms, but particularly with the conclusion of the intensive HH promotion campaign in the combined arm (data not shown). **Comment [AL11]:** Reviewer 3 comment 2.

Nosocomial MRSA infection rates

EXECUTE THE PROMOTE CONDUCT AT THE SET AND MUSCLE THE SET AND MUSCLE THE SIMURE STATE THE SIMURE THE THE SIMURE THE THE INCIDENT THE SIMURE THE THE INCIDENT ONLY (1.956) ON THE INTERTATION ONLY (1.956) ON THE THE INCIDENT There were 470 nosocomial MRSA infections in total (335 [71.3%] surgical site, 41 [8.7%] bloodstream, and 94 [20.0%] other infections). Crude infection rates decreased over time in all study arms (table 3). After multivariable analysis (table 4, figure $\frac{43b}{3}$ and see online supplementary table A4), enhanced HH promotion alone(ESC arm) was not associated with changes in MRSA infection rates. Both the screening/decolonisation and combined interventions resulted in non-significant decreasing trends in total MRSA infection (screening and decolonisationACD arm: aIRR 0.93, 95% CI 0.82 to 1.05; MIX combined arm: aIRR 0.90, 95% CI 0.80 to 1.02) and surgical site infection rates (table 4, figure 43c and online supplementary table A4).

In clean surgery, the ACD screening and decolonisation strategy was associated with significant reductions in **total** MRSA infection rate of 17% per month (aIRR 0.83, 95% CI 0.69 to 0.99) and MRSA surgical site infection rate of 19% per month (aIRR 0.81, 95% CI 0.66 to 1.00) (table 5 and online supplementary table A5).

Exploratory analysis to directly assess implemented interventions

The exploratory analysis did not show any significant effects of HH promotion on nosocomial MRSA isolation rates (see online supplementary table A6). The intensity of admission screening was associated with a decreasing trend in monthly MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures (aIRR 0.91 per month with 100% compliance with screening, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.98). A similar effect was seen in the trend in MRSA infection rate (aIRR 0.92, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.99).

DISCUSSION

**For the interventions, neither an enhanced <u>HH promotion</u> standard

EFF promotion** nor universal MRSA screening with contact precautions
 FRSA carriers were effective in reducing MRSA rates in surgical
 g a combinati We found that as individual interventions, neither an enhanced **HH** promotion standard control strategy using HH promotion nor universal MRSA screening with contact precautions and decolonisation of MRSA carriers were effective in reducing MRSA rates in surgical patients. However, using a combination of both HH promotion and targeted screening was associated with a reduction in MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures of 12% per month. In addition, wWhen the interventions were specifically evaluated in the subgroup of clean surgery wards, the screening and *A*decolonisation strategy was most effective. In these wards, this intervention was associated with significant reductions in both MRSA clinical culture isolation rate of 15% per month and MRSA infection rate of 17% per month.

This study is unique in that it directly compared strategies individually and in combination using a large, prospective, controlled design.¹⁰ In addition, we used a planned exploratory analysis to separate out the individual effects of the HH and MRSA screening strategies. Interventions were implemented and assessed under operational conditions in ten heterogeneous hospitals across Europe and Israel with widely varying infection control practices, staffing, infrastructure, and MRSA epidemiology, increasing the generalisability of our findings. This study has been reported using standard reporting guidelines that are **Comment [AL12]:** Reviewer 4 comment 2.

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burden of gG ram-positive infections is greater in clean compared to clean-contaminated surgery where other pathogens, including bowel flora, may be more important.^{23,31} Thus it is biologically plausible that MRSA-specific interventions would potentially have a greater impact in clean surgery. Indeed, intranasal mupirocin has been shown to reduce surgical site infections in cardiothoracic and orthopaedic surgery, but is less effective in general surgery.²³ The commencement of such decolonisation regimens prior to surgical procedures, which can be facilitated by rapid detection of *S. aureus* carriage with molecular tests, is likely a key factor in the success of this approach.³² The use of molecular tests in the latter part of the intervention phase in our study could have significantly contributed to the reduction in MRSA rates seen over the period of the intervention phase, particularly in clean surgery wards. **Comment [AL17]:** Reviewer 3 clarification point **Comment [AL18]:** Reviewer 1 comment 1.

acic and orthopaedic surgery, but is less effective in general surgery.²³

<u>Such decolonisation regimens prior to surgical procedures, which can

detection of *S. aureus* carriage with molecular tests, is likely a key

t</u> The exploratory analysis suggests that screening intensity, rather than HH promotion, explained the intervention effects. It is curious, then, that universal screening did not perform better than HH promotion combined with targeted screening. A significant reduction in MRSA clinical cultures was seen with the combined strategy despite the enrolment of only two hospitals in this study arm. This suggests that the effect of the combined intervention was robust. Although the universal screening arm enrolled four hospitals, Llow baseline MRSA rates in thise universal screening arm may have reduced our ability to detect significant effectss. Shortage of isolation rooms may have also contributed. In addition, targeted screening may have been more effective if it identified "superspreaders",³³ facilitating more effectiveicient use of resources including limited single rooms. Modelling studies also demonstrate that targeted screening has the advantage of increased cost-effectiveness compared to universal screening for reducing healthcare associated MRSA infections. **Comment [AL19]:** Reviewer 3 clarification point 10c. **Comment [AL20]:** Reviewer 3 clarification point 10a

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This study adds to the conflicting literature regarding active surveillance cultures. Our results apply to surgical settings. The risk of MRSA infection in other wards, such as intensive care units or general medical wards, would differ due to variation in patient comorbidities and exposure to invasive procedures or antibiotics. It is also important to note that previous studies have used a variety of interventions in combination with screening. In some cases, the use of pre-emptive isolation in both study arms³⁵ or lack of decolonisation strategies, 6 may have led to effect sizes that studies had insufficient power to detect. Comparison of rapid screening to conventional rather than no screening, differences in screening methods, 10 variation in MRSA strains, or limitations in study design and analyses $10,11$ are other potential explanations for the conflicting results of screening studies.

Example 12 The measurement of the sumplementation with screening. In some cases, the studio in both study arms³⁵ or lack of decolonisation strategies,⁶ may that studies had insufficient power to detect. Comparison of There are some limitations to this study. Due to the nature of the interventions, which involved HH audits, promotion and feedback and/or implementation of MRSA screening, investigators were not blinded to study assignment. Although allocation of interventions was not randomised, we accounted for differences in hospitals by adjusting for potential confounders and comparing outcomes between baseline and intervention phases within the same study arm. Decisions to take culture samples were initiated by treating physicians, not research personnel, and standardised definitions for infections were used, reducing the likelihood of bias in the measurement of the study outcomes fromby unblinded assessors. We used MRSA-positive clinical cultures as our primary outcome. Although this measure does not distinguish between colonisation and infection, it can be a more sensitive marker for changes in MRSA disease rates.³⁷ We found the results for MRSA clinical cultures similar to those for infections, suggesting that this measure was clinically relevant. Patient-level data, such as age, comorbidities and length of stay, and antibiotic use were not measured for this study. However, results were similar when each centre was excluded in turn from the analysis

Comment [AL21]: Reviewer 2 comment 1 Reviewer 3 comment 3

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Competing interests

For PERITM CONTENT CONTENT CONCILERATE:

FOR PERITM CONDUCTED AND THE PERITM CONDITION OF THE PROCESSING CONDITION OF THE PROCESSING SUPER THE PROPERITM SPACE THE SPACE THAT AND THE PROPERITM CONDITION THE SPACE OF THE S SH is a member of the speakers' bureau for bioMérieux and Pfizer, and the scientific advisory board of Destiny Pharma, DaVolterra, and bioMérieux. He has received financial support for MRSA research activities from Geneva University Hospitals, B.Braun, and Pfizer. AP is a member of the speakers' bureau for Cubist and has received financial support for MRSA research activities from BD. There were no other financial or non-financial relationships, or interests that may be relevant to the submitted work.

Author contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: SH CBB. Analysed the data: ASL BSC. Contributed reagents/materials: SMK HG. Wrote the first draft of the manuscript: ASL. Contributed to the writing of the manuscript: ASL SH BSC CBB AC GLD CF BC SL SMK JAM CMA AP GP BR HG. ICMJE criteria for authorship read and met: ASL BSC SMK AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR HG CBB SH. Agree with manuscript results and conclusions: ASL BSC SMK AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR HG CBB SH. Enrolled patients: ASL AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR. Statistical support: BSC.

Data sharing

The dataset is available from the corresponding author at stephan.harbarth@hcuge.ch.
FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1 Flow of study wards through each phase of the study

Figure 1 Legend

Ten hospitals in nine countries were enrolled and were allocated to one of three study arms during the intervention phase. The enhanced hand hygiene arm used hand hygiene promotion; the screening and decolonisation arm used universal meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy with intranasal mupirocin and chlorhexidine body washes for identified MRSA carriers; the combined arm used a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA screening.

Figure 12 Implementation of the interventions

Figure 12 Legend

The top panel (A) shows the monthly hand hygiene compliance rates for hospitals in the enhanced hand hygiene and combined arms that used hand hygiene promotion campaigns. The solid dots represent the observed compliance rates while the lines represent the predicted compliance rates based on the regression model. The bottom panel (B) shows the proportion of patients screened on admission to the study wards by study arm. HH , hand hygiene. ESC, Enhanced Standard Control (hospitals using hand hygiene promotion); ACD, Active detection, Contact precautions and Decolonisation (hospitals using meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* [MRSA] screening); MIX, Combined (hospitals using a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA screening).

Figure 23 Adherence to contact precautions, decolonisation and isolation measures for meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* carriers

Figure 23 Legend

ing coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy with

dehibrokidne body washs for identified MRSA carriers, the

dehibrokidne body washes for identified MRSA carriers, the

ombination of hand hygiene promot This figure shows the distribution of monthly adherence to infection control measures for randomly audited patients known to be colonised or infected with meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) for each study arm. The top panel (A) shows adherence to implementation of contact precautions, decolonisation therapy, and isolation in single rooms. The middle panel (B) shows the presence of signage of MRSA status on the patients' room, bed, or nursing chart. The bottom panel (C) shows the availability of gowns, gloves, and alcohol-based handrub in or at the entrance of the room. The horizontal line in each box represents the median, the box represents the interquartile range and the vertical lines represent the minimum and maximum values. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; ESC, Enhanced Standard Control (hospitals using hand hygiene promotion); ACD, Active detection, Contact precautions and Decolonisation (hospitals using MRSA screening); MIX, Combined (hospitals using a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA sereening).

Figure 34 Nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* rates by study arm

Figure 34 Legend

The top panel (A) shows the nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) isolaton rates from clinical specimens. The middle panel (B) shows the nosocomial MRSA infection rates. The bottom panel (C) shows the nosocomial MRSA surgical site infection rates. The solid dots represent the observed MRSA rates while the lines represent the

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predicted MRSA rates based on the regression models. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; ESC, Enhanced Standard Control (hospitals using hand hygiene promotion); ACD, Active detection, Contact precautions and Decolonisation (hospitals using MRSA screening); MIX, Combined (hospitals using a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA screening).

TABLES

Table 1: Baseline phase characteristics of hospitals and wards enrolled in the study

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MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

*Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts).

†By screening or clinical culture.

‡Screening in hospitals in the Combined arm was performed according to locally introduced policies. Hospital 4 used targeted screening of patients who were previously known to be MRSA-positive, contacts of MRSA-positive patients, and patients transferred from the Intensive Care Unit or other healthcare facilities. Hospital 7 introduced universal screening in two of three study wards and targeted screening in the third ward. In this ward, patients who were previously known to be MRSA-positive, nursing home residents, patients admitted to the hospital in the last three months, contacts of MRSA-positive patients, and patients transferred from another ward or healthcare facility were screened.

Table 2: Study characteristics by study period

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

*Baseline phase was 6 months in six hospitals and 7 months in four hospitals (two in the Active Detectionscreening and decolonisation arm and one hospital in each of the enhanced hand hygieneEnhanced Standard Control and Combined arms).

 †Clean surgery wards included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery. Other types of surgery wards included abdominal, general, and urological surgery.

 ‡Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts). §By screening or clinical culture.

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IRR, incidence rate ratio; MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

Frosheic devices) after discharge from the surgical wad.

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Only *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward.

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and adjusted for staffing (patient-to-nurse ratios), seasonal effects, type of surgical ward, and baseline hand hygiene compliance rates. The model also accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. Clean surgery included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery subspecialties. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and adjusted for staffing (patient-to-nurse ratios), seasonal effects, type of surgical ward, and baseline hand hygiene compliance rates. The model also accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

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SUPPLEMENTARY DATA FOR MANUSCRIPT:

Comparison of strategies to reduce meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates in surgical patients: a multicentre intervention study**

Table A1: Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* screening methods used in study centres in the screening and decolonisation arm and combined armActive Detection and Combined arms

Table A2: Study characteristics by study period and study arm

Table A3: Multiple segmented multilevel logistic regression model showing factors associated with monthly hand hygiene compliance rates

Table A4: Full model results for the multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing adjusted incidence rate ratios for changes in level and trend of nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* rates

Table A5: Full model results for the multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing changes in nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* rates for the subgroup analysis of clean surgery only

Table A6: Exploratory analysis using multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models including interventions implemented by centres as covariates in the model

Figure A1: Nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolation rates from clinical specimens by hospital

Table A1: Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **screening methods used in study centres in the screening and decolonisation armActive Detection and Ccombined arms**

*From Malhotra-Kumar S, Haccuria K, Michiels M, et al. Current trends in rapid diagnostics for methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and glycopeptide-resistant enterococcus species. *J Clin Microbiol* 2008;46:1577-87.

†Screening for meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* occurred during all study phases for centres in the Ccombined arm using existing local methods.

‡For the Active Detectionscreening and decolonisation</u> arm, molecular assays were introduced during the latter part of the intervention phase. In one centre in this arm (Hospital 2) a locally available molecular assay was used from the commencement of the intervention phase.

Table A2: Study characteristics by study period and study arm

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

*Baseline phase was 6 months in six hospitals and 7 months in four hospitals (two in the Active

Detectionscreening and decolonisation arm and one hospital in each of the Eenhanced hand hygieneStandard Control and Combined arms).

†Clean surgery wards included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery. Other types of surgery wards included abdominal, general, and urological surgery.

‡Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts).

§By screening or clinical culture.

Table A3: Multiple segmented multilevel logistic regression model showing factors associated with monthly hand hygiene compliance rates*

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

*Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all statistically significant, though baseline trends and intercepts showed no evidence of correlation. †Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time

(averaged over day, evening, and night shifts) for each month.

‡Calculated by dividing the patient-days of subjects known to be colonised or infected with meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* by the total number of patient-days in the ward in any given study month. This variable was divided into quartiles for the analysis.

Table A4: Full model results for the multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing adjusted incidence rate ratios for changes in level and trend of nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates***

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MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio; HH, hand hygiene.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

White intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline
with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline
patie †Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts) for each month. **Table A5: Full model results for the multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing changes in nosocomial meticillin resistant** *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates for the subgroup analysis of clean surgery only***

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio; HH, hand hygiene.

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*Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. Clean surgery included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery subspecialties. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

†Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts) for each month.

Table A6: Exploratory analysis using multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models including interventions implemented by centres as covariates in the model*

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio.

 *The models used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and adjusted for staffing (patient-to-nurse ratios), seasonal effects, type of surgical ward, and baseline hand hygiene compliance rates. The model also accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, though there was no evidence that baseline trends significantly correlated with intercepts.

†Each additional month with x% compliance with admission screening would be associated with a reduction in the MRSA isolation rate by a factor of aIRR $^{x/100}$.

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Figure A1 Nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolation rates from clinical specimens by hospital

The solid dots represent the observed meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) rates while the lines represent the predicted MRSA rates based on the regression models. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus* models. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; HH, hand hygiene; ESC, Enhanced Standard Control (hospitals using hand hygiene promotion); ACD, Active detection, Contact precautions and Decolonisation (hospitals using MRSA screening); MIX, Combined (hospitals using a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA screening).

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TABLES OF STUDY OUTCOMES PRESENTING THE RESULTS OF THE WASHOUT PHASE BY STUDY ARM

Table 4 version 2: Multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing adjusted incidence rate ratios for changes in level and trend of nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates**

Table 5 version 2: Multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing changes in nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates for the subgroup analysis of clean surgery only**

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Comparison of the original models to the models with the washout phase results by study arm

The results of the likelihood ratio tests used to compare the models are shown in the following table:

The table shows no significant difference in fit of the models including parameters for the washout phase for each study arm compared to the original models in which the washout phase results were combined for all study arms; in other words, there was no evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the effect of the washout phase was the same in each study arm.

Comparison of strategies to reduce meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates in surgical patients: a controlled multicentre intervention trial**

Comparison of strategies to reduce meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates in surgical patients: a controlled multicentre intervention trial**

Running head: MRSA control strategies in surgical patients

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Key words: meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; screening; active surveillance cultures; hand hygiene; healthcare-associated infection

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ABSTRACT

Objective: To compare the effect of two strategies (enhanced hand hygiene versus meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* [MRSA] screening and decolonisation) alone and in combination on MRSA rates in surgical wards.

Design: Prospective, controlled, interventional cohort study, with 6-month baseline, 12month intervention, and 6-month washout phases.

pective, controlled, interventional cohort study, with 6-month baseliention, and 6-month washout phases.

Ention, and 6-month washout phases.

I. All patients admitted to the enrolled wards for more than 24 hours.
 SIMPEN Setting: 33 surgical wards in ten hospitals in nine countries in Europe and Israel. **Participants:** All patients admitted to the enrolled wards for more than 24 hours. **Interventions:** The two strategies compared were: 1) enhanced hand hygiene promotion; and 2) universal MRSA screening with contact precautions and decolonisation (intranasal mupirocin and chlorhexidine bathing) of MRSA carriers. Four hospitals were assigned to each intervention and two hospitals combined both strategies, using targeted MRSA screening.

Outcome measures: Monthly rates of MRSA clinical cultures per 100 susceptible patients (primary outcome) and MRSA infections per 100 admissions (secondary outcome). Planned subgroup analysis for clean surgery wards was performed.

Results: After adjusting for clustering and potential confounders, neither strategy when used alone was associated with significant changes in MRSA rates. Combining both strategies was associated with a reduction in the rate of MRSA clinical cultures of 12% per month (aIRR 0.88, 95% CI 0.79 to 0.98). In clean surgery wards, strategy 2 (MRSA screening, contact precautions, and decolonisation) was associated with decreasing rates of MRSA clinical cultures (15% monthly decrease, aIRR 0.85, 95% CI 0.74 to 0.97) and MRSA infections (17% monthly decrease, aIRR 0.83, 95% CI 0.69 to 0.99).

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Conclusions: In surgical wards with relatively low MRSA prevalence, a combination of enhanced standard and MRSA-specific infection control approaches was required to reduce MRSA rates. Implementation of single interventions was not effective, except in clean surgery wards where MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation was associated with significant reductions in MRSA clinical culture and infection rates.

Frial Registration: clinicaltrials.gov identifier: NCT00685867

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ARTICLE SUMMARY

Article focus

- The relative effectiveness of different meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) control measures is controversial.
- This study directly compared the effect of two strategies (enhanced hand hygiene versus MRSA screening and decolonisation, alone and in combination) on MRSA rates in surgical wards.

Key messages

- reening and decolonisation, alone and in combination) on MRSA rand wards.
 Formula Solution and infection control measures (emphasising hand hygon) nor MRSA-specific control interventions (universal MRSA screencate preca • Neither enhanced standard infection control measures (emphasising hand hygiene promotion) nor MRSA-specific control interventions (universal MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy) when used alone for 12 months effectively reduced MRSA rates in surgical wards with relatively low MRSA rates.
- A combination of interventions, including targeted screening of high risk patients, did result in reduction in the rate of MRSA isolated from clinical cultures.
- In surgical subspecialties that perform clean surgery, universal MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy effectively reduced both the rates of MRSA isolated from clinical cultures as well as MRSA infections.

Strengths and limitations of this study

- Unlike many previous studies, this was a large, controlled, prospective, multicentre, intervention study. The enrolled wards, from ten hospitals in Europe and Israel, varied in terms of infection control infrastructure and MRSA prevalence, thus the results are likely to be generalisable to other settings.
- Due to the nature of the quality improvement initiatives, investigators were not blinded to the allocated intervention. Interventions were not randomly allocated.

INTRODUCTION

Healthcare associated infections affect hundreds of millions of patients worldwide every year and represent an important cause of patient mortality and a major financial burden to health systems.¹ Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), now endemic in many healthcare facilities, is a leading cause of healthcare associated infections,² and patients in surgical units are at increased risk due to factors such as invasive procedures, antibiotic exposure, and prolonged healthcare contact. A number of countries mandate implementation of control measures, including MRSA screening.^{3,4} Not all mandated interventions, however, are supported by robust evidence.

cilities, is a leading cause of healthcare associated infections,² and ps
are at increased risk due to factors such as invasive procedures, ant
d prolonged healthcare contact. A number of countries mandate impleasures, i Studies evaluating MRSA control strategies show conflicting results, particularly with regards to the use of active surveillance cultures.⁵⁻⁷ It is argued that broader infection control approaches, such as improving hand hygiene (HH) practices, may be as successful as MRSAspecific strategies. 8.9 There are limitations, however, to current evidence with few prospective, controlled studies,^{10,11} and many studies have assessed multiple interventions simultaneously.¹² Quantifying the relative benefits of individual approaches is important, particularly as some strategies have significant cost implications, and will allow efficient use of limited resources.

Due to the ongoing debate concerning optimal approaches to MRSA control, $13,14$ we performed a prospective, interventional, quality improvement study to compare the effect of an enhanced HH promotion strategy to an MRSA screening, isolation and decolonisation strategy when used alone and in combination on the incidence rates of MRSA clinical cultures and infections in surgical patients admitted to healthcare facilities across Europe and

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Israel. We also aimed to specifically assess these interventions in clean surgery wards where their benefits may be expected to be more pronounced.

METHODS

Study design and population

Follow Alternation
 Follow Alternation controlled, multicentre, interventional cohort study with a three

me series design was conducted between March 2008 and July 2010
 I wards of ten hospitals in nine countries (S This prospective, controlled, multicentre, interventional cohort study with a three phase interrupted time series design was conducted between March 2008 and July 2010. Thirtythree surgical wards of ten hospitals in nine countries (Serbia, France, Spain [two hospitals], Italy, Greece, Scotland, Israel, Germany, and Switzerland) were enrolled. Wards included orthopaedic (8), vascular (6), cardiothoracic/cardiovascular (5), general (4), abdominal (4), urology (3), neurosurgery (2), and plastic surgery (1) subspecialties. Characteristics of the enrolled wards varied (table 1).

The study consisted of baseline (6 to 7 months), intervention (12 months), and washout (6 months) phases. Initial baseline phase data collection commenced in one centre in March 2008 prior to the implementation of any interventions. All other centres commenced baseline phase data collection after May 2008. The intervention phase did not start for any study site until October 2008. During baseline and washout phases, wards employed their usual infection control practices. During the intervention phase, two strategies were investigated, with hospitals implementing one or both interventions in parallel (figure 1).

Interventions

The first intervention, the enhanced HH strategy, used the WHO multi-modal HH promotion method consisting of: 1) using alcohol-based handrub at the point of care, 2) training and

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education of healthcare workers, 3) observation and feedback of HH practices, 4) reminders in the workplace (e.g. posters), and 5) improving the safety climate in the institution with management support for the initiative.¹⁵ Adherence to standard precautions (e.g. gloves for body fluid contact) was encouraged. There was no attempt to change local practices regarding isolation of MRSA patients as part of this intervention.

ntervention, the screening and decolonisation strategy, used a univer
proach. It consisted of screening patients admitted for more than 241
dmission (within 48 hours) then weekly. Patients were excluded fron
undergoing amb The second intervention, the screening and decolonisation strategy, used a universal MRSA screening approach. It consisted of screening patients admitted for more than 24 hours for MRSA, on admission (within 48 hours) then weekly. Patients were excluded from screening if they were undergoing ambulatory surgery or had already been screened within 5 days prior to admission to the surgical ward. The nares, perineum, and wounds (if present) were swabbed. Chromogenic agar screening was used with the addition of polymerase chain reaction (PCR) testing during the latter part of the intervention phase for patients who had risk factors for MRSA (e.g. hospitalisation in the last year) whose chromogenic agar results were unlikely to be available before surgery. MRSA carriers were placed on contact precautions (gown and gloves during patient contact), administered decolonisation therapy with twice daily intranasal mupirocin and daily chlorhexidine washes for five days, and perioperative prophylaxis was modified to reflect MRSA carriage. Chlorhexidine bathing was limited to identified MRSA carriers and not used as a unit-wide intervention. Pre-emptive isolation was not used as part of this strategy.

The hospital was the unit for assignment of interventions due to practical reasons and the nature of the strategies. Four hospitals were assigned to each intervention and two hospitals used a combination of both strategies (the combined strategy) due to the introduction of national or local mandatory targeted MRSA screening policies during the study period which
necessitated deviation from the original trial protocol (figure 1). The choice of allocation was influenced by the constraints upon the study centres, such as cost and personnel $(n=3)$, population size $(n=1)$, capacity of the microbiology laboratories $(n=3)$, prior exposure to specific interventions $(n=1)$ and mandatory local or national interventions $(n=2)$. Thus, this pragmatic approach took into account the institutions' preferences, as participation in an entirely cluster-randomised trial would have meant that some of the hospitals could not have participated.

For-randomised trial would have meant that some of the hospitals cousting and the two hospitals in the combined strategy arm was based and the two hospitals in the combined strategy arm was based RSA carriage (including pa The targeted screening in the two hospitals in the combined strategy arm was based on risk factors for MRSA carriage (including patient characteristics or surgical subspecialty). One hospital using the combined strategy (Hospital 4) introduced targeted screening of patients who were previously known to be MRSA-positive, contacts of MRSA-positive patients, and patients transferred from the Intensive Care Unit or other healthcare facilities. The other hospital in the combined strategy arm (Hospital 7) used targeted screening of patients with the same risk factors as Hospital 4, but also screened nursing home residents, patients admitted to the hospital in the last three months, patients transferred from another ward within the same hospital, and those admitted to vascular or abdominal surgery subspecialties. The assignment of hospitals to each study arm occurred prior to commencement of data collection. A summary of the nature of the interventions for each study arm is presented in table 2. The study protocol was registered with a public registry of clinical studies (available at: http://clinicaltrials.gov/ Identifier: NCT00685867).

Outcomes measures

The primary outcome measure was the monthly nosocomial MRSA isolation rate, defined as the number of MRSA clinical isolates (those from specimens collected other than for

screening purposes, counting one isolate per patient per month), per 100 susceptible patients (not previously known to be MRSA colonised or infected). Isolates from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days after discharge from study wards were considered nosocomial.

It attempts were the monthly rate of nosocomial MRSA infections per

and adherence to HH guidelines and contact precautions. Infections

Fiteria.¹⁶ Adherence to HH guidelines was measured as the percentag

for HH in whic Secondary outcomes were the monthly rate of nosocomial MRSA infections per 100 admissions, and adherence to HH guidelines and contact precautions. Infections were defined using CDC criteria.¹⁶ Adherence to HH guidelines was measured as the percentage of opportunities for HH in which staff used alcohol-based handrub and/or washed their hands according to the WHO method.¹⁵ Adherence to contact precautions was measured as the percentage of randomly audited MRSA patients for whom precautions with gown and gloves during patient contact had been implemented.

Microbiological methods

Standardised laboratory manuals were provided to centres. Samples were processed in local laboratories using standard culture-based identification of MRSA from clinical specimens. In hospitals assigned to the screening and decolonisation arm, nasal and perineal swabs were pooled in the laboratory then plated directly onto chromogenic medium (BBL CHROMagar MRSA II, BD Diagnostics, Belgium) and also incubated overnight in an enrichment medium to increase test sensitivity.¹⁷ Positive results could be reported within 24 to 48 hours.¹⁸ PCR testing directly from pooled screening swabs was performed with the BD GeneOhm MRSA (BD Diagnostics, Belgium) or GeneXpert MRSA (Cepheid, Belgium) tests, which have turnaround times of 2 to 3 hours and 1.5 hours respectively (see online supplementary table A1).¹⁸ All laboratories participated in an external quality assurance program to evaluate their ability to detect, identify and perform antibiotic sensitivity testing on staphylococci from a

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variety of different specimens.¹⁹ MRSA isolates were shipped to the central laboratory (University of Antwerp, Belgium) for confirmation of identification.

Data collection

te. These personnel were from departments that supervise infection of
the participating hospitals, including Infection Control, Infectious Dia
demiology departments. They were trained at the study coordinating
e study prot Research personnel from each hospital collected data and implemented the interventions at their study site. These personnel were from departments that supervise infection control activities at the participating hospitals, including Infection Control, Infectious Diseases and Hospital Epidemiology departments. They were trained at the study coordinating centre with regards to the study protocol, the outcome definitions and the use of the data collection tools prior to the commencement of the study to ensure consistency of data collection across the hospitals. Local microbiology laboratory data were reviewed to obtain information regarding MRSA isolated from screening and clinical cultures. Infections were monitored by twice weekly ward visits to review medical records and interview staff. Surgical site infection surveillance occurred up to 30 days post-procedure (or 12 months after prosthetic device insertion).

HH adherence was monitored by the research personnel who had been trained and validated in the WHO method of direct observation at the study coordinating centre.¹⁵ A standardised observation form was used by all centres. All hospitals collected data for 100 HH opportunities per ward during baseline and washout phases.²⁰ HH observers were specifically instructed not to provide feedback to healthcare workers concerning their HH practices during these study phases, and the observers were independent of surgical ward staff, reducing the likelihood of the Hawthorne effect, in which staff improve their practices when they are aware that they are being observed.²¹ During the intervention phase, there was intensive monitoring of HH practices in wards using the enhanced HH and combined

strategies. In these wards, 100 HH opportunities per ward per month were observed as part of the intervention. Implementation of contact precautions, decolonisation therapy, and single room isolation for MRSA carriers was randomly audited each month. Signage of MRSA status and availability of gowns, gloves and alcohol-based handrub for contact with MRSA carriers was also audited.

Formal Exercise Solution and level collected. Due to variation in the availability and quality of electror harmacy data between the study sites, individual-level data (such as libiotic utilisation data for the surgical w Data regarding numbers of admissions, patient-days, surgical procedures, and level of staffing were collected. Due to variation in the availability and quality of electronic medical record and pharmacy data between the study sites, individual-level data (such as length of stay) and antibiotic utilisation data for the surgical wards was not collected as part of this study. Ward-level data were submitted monthly to a central data management centre via a password protected secure online database which included range, consistency, and missing data checks. Meetings, site visits, and monthly teleconferences were held to review data, ensure adherence to study protocols, and address queries. Data were reviewed monthly for completeness and 6-monthly for validity by teleconferences with individual study sites. Institutional review boards of all centres approved the study with a waiver of individual informed consent.

Statistical analysis

The study was designed to detect a 30% difference in nosocomial MRSA isolation rate assuming a baseline rate of 1.0 clinical isolate per 100 susceptible patients and an absolute difference of 10% between intervention arms. Sample size calculations assumed a two-sided test, a type I error rate of 0.05 and 80% power, taking the wards as the unit of analysis. A minimum of 15 wards was required per study arm.

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Ily number of susceptible patients or admissions per ward and allower
 Formally allow Example 111 compliance, seasonal effection,
 Formally, and patient-to-nurse ratios were adjusted for. Autocorrelation w
 Fusing a l Crude MRSA rates were calculated by study arm. Adjusted incidence rate ratios (aIRR) were calculated using multilevel Poisson segmented regression accounting for stepwise changes in MRSA level and changes in log-linear trends associated with the interventions.²² This analysis allowed for two levels of random-effects: hospital-level variation in intercepts and baseline trends, and nested ward-level variation in intercepts. It adjusted for exposure given by the monthly number of susceptible patients or admissions per ward and allowed for extra-Poisson variation. Surgical subspecialty, baseline HH compliance, seasonal effects (using calendar month), and patient-to-nurse ratios were adjusted for. Autocorrelation was accounted for using a lagged dependent variable. A similar analysis was performed for HH compliance, but used segmented multilevel logistic regression, adjusting for ward-specific baseline levels and trends, professional category, HH indication, patient-to-nurse ratios, and monthly MRSA colonisation pressure (number of days patients known to be MRSA colonised/infected were in the wards each month).

Planned subgroup analyses were performed by hospital and for clean surgery wards (cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery) as studies have shown that intranasal mupirocin, which is active against Gram-positive organisms, may be more effective for surgical site infection prevention in clean compared to clean-contaminated surgery (e.g. general or gastrointestinal surgery) where Gram-negative and anaerobic organisms may play a larger role.²³ As screening intensity varied in the combined arm, a planned exploratory analysis of MRSA outcome data was conducted to better quantify the intervention effects. It accounted for stepwise changes and log-linear trends in outcomes associated with the HH intervention, as well as the monthly proportion of patients screened and monthly cumulative screening rate on wards to account for changes in trends of outcomes associated with screening. Analyses were conducted with STATA 11.0 (STATA Corp, USA).

RESULTS

During the study period, there were a total of 126 750 admissions and 99 638 surgical procedures on the study wards. Baseline admission MRSA prevalence, without systematic screening of all admitted patients, was 0.8% (269 of 33 608), ranging from 0.1% to 2.2% across surgical wards of each hospital. Baseline HH adherence varied between hospitals (39.5% overall, 95% CI 38.1% to 40.9%) as did use of targeted MRSA screening (0 to 30.9% of admissions) (table 1). Study characteristics are shown in table 3 and online supplementary table A2.

Adherence to hand hygiene guidelines

all admitted patients, was 0.8% (269 of 33 608), ranging from 0.1%
al wards of each hospital. Baseline HH adherence varied between hc
ill, 95% CI 38.1% to 40.9%) as did use of targeted MRSA screening
s) (table 1). Study ch In the enhanced HH and combined arms, HH compliance improved in all centres with overall compliance increasing from 49.3% (95% CI 47.2% to 51.4%) to 63.8% (95% CI 63.2% to 64.4%) from baseline to intervention phases (figure 2a). After multivariable analysis, commencing HH promotion was associated with a significant immediate increase in HH compliance (adjusted odds ratio [aOR] 1.19, 95% CI 1.01 to 1.42) (see online supplementary table A3). However, this benefit was not sustained after cessation of the HH campaign with a significant decreasing trend in HH adherence of 9% per month (aOR for month postintervention 0.91, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.97) during the washout phase. In wards in the screening and decolonisation arm, where no HH promotion occurred, compliance remained low at 30.5% (95% CI 28.7% to 32.4%) at baseline and 23.9% (95% CI 22.0% to 25.9%) during the washout phase.

Screening, contact precautions and decolonisation of MRSA carriers

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phases in screening and decolonisation wards, the proportion of audided on contact precautions increased (81.1% to 90.7%), as did adminion therapy (34.4% to 69.8%) (figure 3). However, the proportion of a rest in single ro During the intervention phase, 9250 (75.3%) of 12 279 patients were screened on admission to wards in the screening and decolonisation arm. Admission MRSA prevalence was 2.1% (259 of 12 279), consisting of 27 patients (10.4%) with MRSA-positive clinical cultures and 232 patients (89.6%) identified by screening alone. PCR screening was used in addition to chromogenic agar cultures in 1047 (11.3%) of 9250 patients. Between baseline and intervention phases in screening and decolonisation wards, the proportion of audited MRSA carriers placed on contact precautions increased (81.1% to 90.7%), as did administration of decolonisation therapy (34.4% to 69.8%) (figure 3). However, the proportion of audited MRSA carriers in single rooms decreased (67.8% to 40.1%), possibly due to a shortage of rooms for the higher number of identified MRSA carriers. Reasons for non-adherence to decolonisation therapy included discharge prior to an MRSA-positive result, discharge prior to commencement of decolonisation therapy or the patient declining the intervention.

Screening occurred to a lesser extent in the other study arms (figure 2b). About 10% of admissions to wards in the enhanced HH arm were screened throughout the study. In wards in the combined arm, screening increased from 9.2% to 22.3%, then 36.9% during baseline, intervention, and washout phases respectively. In this arm, adherence to contact precautions was high throughout the study (93.0% to 99.6%), but only 32.9% of MRSA patients at baseline and 35.9% of patients during the intervention phase received decolonisation therapy (figure 3).

Nosocomial MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures

Crude MRSA isolation rates from clinical cultures decreased in all study arms during the intervention phase (enhanced HH arm: 0.99 to 0.80; screening and decolonisation arm: 0.47 to 0.23; combined arm: 0.55 to 0.36 ; $p=0.04$; per 100 susceptible patients) (table 4). After

adjusting for clustering and potential confounders with multilevel segmented Poisson regression (table 5 and see online supplementary table A4 for full model), commencement of HH promotion in the enhanced HH arm was associated with an immediate non-significant increase in nosocomial MRSA isolation rate (aIRR 1.44, 95% CI 0.96 to 2.15) with no change in the trend in rates over time. In clean surgery wards, HH promotion was associated with a non-significant decreasing monthly MRSA isolation rate (aIRR 0.89, 95% CI 0.78 to 1.01) (table 6 and see online supplementary table A5 for full model).

In the screening and decolonisation arm, there were no significant changes in MRSA isolation rates. However, in clean surgery, this intervention was associated with a reduction in MRSA clinical cultures of 15% per month (aIRR 0.85, 95% CI 0.74 to 0.97).

gnificant decreasing monthly MRSA isolation rate (aIRR 0.89, 95%)

Sand see online supplementary table A5 for full model).

Ing and decolonisation arm, there were no significant changes in MR

S. However, in clean surgery, In the combined arm (wards that used a combination of HH promotion with targeted screening), there was a significant decreasing trend in MRSA isolation rate of 12% per month overall (aIRR 0.88, 95% CI 0.79 to 0.98), and 18% per month in clean surgery (aIRR 0.82, 95% CI 0.71 to 0.95). Observed and model-predicted MRSA isolation rates from clinical cultures are illustrated in figure 4a and online supplementary figure A1.

During the washout phase, MRSA clinical culture isolation rates increased. A post-hoc analysis of the washout phase results by study arm showed that the increase in MRSA rates was due to an abrupt increase in the level of MRSA clinical cultures on cessation of the intervention phase in all study arms, but particularly with the conclusion of the intensive HH promotion campaign in the combined arm (see online supplementary table A6).

Nosocomial MRSA infection rates

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There were 470 nosocomial MRSA infections in total (335 [71.3%] surgical site, 41 [8.7%] bloodstream, and 94 [20.0%] other infections). Crude infection rates decreased over time in all study arms (table 4). After multivariable analysis (table 5, figure 4b and see online supplementary table A4), enhanced HH promotion alone was not associated with changes in MRSA infection rates. Both the screening/decolonisation and combined interventions resulted in non-significant decreasing trends in total MRSA infection (screening and decolonisation arm: aIRR 0.93, 95% CI 0.82 to 1.05; combined arm: aIRR 0.90, 95% CI 0.80 to 1.02) and surgical site infection rates (table 5, figure 4c and online supplementary table A4).

In clean surgery, the screening and decolonisation strategy was associated with significant reductions in total MRSA infection rate of 17% per month (aIRR 0.83, 95% CI 0.69 to 0.99) and MRSA surgical site infection rate of 19% per month (aIRR 0.81, 95% CI 0.66 to 1.00) (table 6 and online supplementary table A5).

Exploratory analysis to directly assess implemented interventions

on-significant decreasing trends in total MRSA infection (screening a

on arm: aIRR 0.93, 95% CI 0.82 to 1.05; combined arm: aIRR 0.90,

surgical site infection rates (table 5, figure 4c and online supplement

ery, the scr The exploratory analysis did not show any significant effects of HH promotion on nosocomial MRSA isolation rates (see online supplementary table A7). The intensity of admission screening was associated with a decreasing trend in monthly MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures (aIRR 0.91 per month with 100% compliance with screening, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.98). A similar effect was seen in the trend in MRSA infection rate (aIRR 0.92, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.99).

DISCUSSION

We found that implementation of individual interventions in surgical wards, with either an enhanced HH promotion strategy or universal MRSA screening with contact precautions and decolonisation of MRSA carriers, was not effective in reducing MRSA rates. However, using a combination of both HH promotion and targeted screening was associated with a reduction in MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures of 12% per month. When the interventions were specifically evaluated in the subgroup of clean surgery wards, the screening and decolonisation strategy was most effective. In these wards, this intervention was associated with significant reductions in both MRSA clinical culture isolation rate of 15% per month and MRSA infection rate of 17% per month.

ally evaluated in the subgroup of clean surgery wards, the screening
on strategy was most effective. In these wards, this intervention was
ant reductions in both MRSA clinical culture isolation rate of 15% p
fiection rate This study is unique in that it directly compared strategies individually and in combination using a large, prospective, controlled design.¹⁰ In addition, we used a planned exploratory analysis to separate out the individual effects of the HH and MRSA screening strategies. Interventions were implemented and assessed under operational conditions in ten heterogeneous hospitals across Europe and Israel with widely varying infection control practices, staffing, infrastructure, and MRSA epidemiology, increasing the generalisability of our findings. This study has been reported using standard reporting guidelines that are designed to maximise transparency and scientific rigor of intervention studies of healthcare associated infection.²⁴

Our analysis, which adjusted for confounders, seasonal effects and baseline MRSA trends, found no evidence that enhanced HH promotion was effective. MRSA rates are declining in many countries.²⁵ Failing to account for this would overestimate intervention effects. Overall baseline HH compliance was 49% in study wards that used the HH intervention. In settings where compliance is already above about 50%, modelling studies suggest that further

increases in compliance will have rapidly diminishing returns for reducing MRSA transmission.²⁶ In facilities with lower HH compliance or higher MRSA rates, this intervention may be more effective than we were able to demonstrate. In addition, HH campaigns involve education and behaviour change and are therefore unlikely to have a short term effect. Other studies have shown that they may be beneficial if activity is sustained over years.^{27,28} Although we did not detect any intervention effects of the HH promotion strategy, cessation of this intervention was associated with an increase in MRSA rates in our study, suggesting that discontinuing activities to optimise HH practices may be detrimental.

though we did not detect any intervention effects of the HH promoti-
this intervention was associated with an increase in MRSA rates in o
at discontinuing activities to optimise HH practices may be detrimer
A surveillance Active MRSA surveillance identifies the reservoir of asymptomatic carriers, enabling early implementation of contact precautions and decolonisation, which can reduce transmission.^{29,30} With universal screening, we found that 90% of MRSA-positive patients would have been missed using clinical cultures alone. However, our results suggest that rather than universal screening of all surgical patients admitted for more than 24 hours, selective screening in clean surgery wards or a combination of HH promotion and targeted screening of high risk patients may be more effective strategies. The relative burden of Grampositive infections is greater in clean compared to clean-contaminated surgery where other pathogens, including bowel flora, may be more important.^{23,31} Thus it is biologically plausible that MRSA-specific interventions would potentially have a greater impact in clean surgery. Indeed, intranasal mupirocin has been shown to reduce surgical site infections in cardiothoracic and orthopaedic surgery, but is less effective in general surgery.²³ The commencement of such decolonisation regimens prior to surgical procedures, which can be facilitated by rapid detection of *S. aureus* carriage with molecular tests, is likely a key factor in the success of this approach.³² The use of molecular tests in the latter part of the intervention phase in our study could have significantly contributed to the reduction in

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MRSA rates seen over the period of the intervention phase, particularly in clean surgery wards.

H promotion combined with targeted screening. A significant reduct
ral cultures was seen with the combined strategy despite the enrolme
in this study arm. This suggests that the effect of the combined inte
ertainly biologi The exploratory analysis suggests that screening intensity, rather than HH promotion, explained the intervention effects. It is curious, then, that universal screening did not perform better than HH promotion combined with targeted screening. A significant reduction in MRSA clinical cultures was seen with the combined strategy despite the enrolment of only two hospitals in this study arm. This suggests that the effect of the combined intervention was robust. It is certainly biologically plausible that using two interventions that aim to control MRSA in different ways would be more effective than use of single interventions. Although the universal screening arm enrolled four hospitals, low baseline MRSA rates in this arm may have reduced our ability to detect significant effects. Shortage of isolation rooms may have also contributed. In addition, targeted screening may have been more effective if it identified "superspreaders",³³ facilitating more efficient use of resources including limited single rooms. Modelling studies also demonstrate that targeted screening has the advantage of increased cost-effectiveness compared to universal screening for reducing healthcare associated MRSA infections.^{34,35}

This study adds to the conflicting literature regarding active surveillance cultures. Our results apply to surgical settings. The risk of MRSA infection in other wards, such as intensive care units or general medical wards, would differ due to variation in patient comorbidities and exposure to invasive procedures or antibiotics. It is also important to note that previous studies have used a variety of interventions in combination with screening. In some cases, the use of pre-emptive isolation in both study arms³⁶ or lack of decolonisation strategies, 6 may have led to effect sizes that studies had insufficient power to detect. Comparison of rapid

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screening to conventional rather than no screening,³⁶ differences in screening methods,¹⁰ variation in MRSA strains, or limitations in study design and analyses^{10,11} are other potential explanations for the conflicting results of screening studies.

m, contact precautions, and isolation practices were not blinded to st
s they were responsible for implementing the interventions. Althoug
ons was not randomised, we accounted for differences in hospitals by
confounders an There are some limitations to this study. Research personnel assessing HH, screening, decolonisation, contact precautions, and isolation practices were not blinded to study assignment as they were responsible for implementing the interventions. Although allocation of interventions was not randomised, we accounted for differences in hospitals by adjusting for potential confounders and comparing outcomes between baseline and intervention phases within the same study arm. Decisions to take culture samples were initiated by treating physicians, not research personnel, and standardised definitions for infections were used, reducing the likelihood of bias in the measurement of the study outcomes by unblinded assessors. We used MRSA-positive clinical cultures as our primary outcome. Although this measure does not distinguish between colonisation and infection, it can be a more sensitive marker for changes in MRSA disease rates.³⁸ We found the results for MRSA clinical cultures similar to those for infections, suggesting that this measure was clinically relevant. Patient-level data, such as age, comorbidities and length of stay, and antibiotic use were not measured for this study. However, results were similar when each centre was excluded in turn from the analysis (data not shown) so changes in factors in individual centres are unlikely to have had a major effect on study outcomes.

Conclusion

In surgical wards with relatively low MRSA prevalence, a combination of enhanced standard infection control measures emphasising HH promotion and MRSA-specific (targeted screening of high risk patients) approaches was required to reduce MRSA rates.

Implementation of single interventions was not effective, except in clean surgery wards where MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation of identified MRSA carriers was associated with significant reductions in MRSA clinical culture and infection rates. These findings are likely generalisable to other settings with varying infection control practices. In addition, the WHO multimodal HH promotion strategy¹⁵ implemented in this study is already being used in many parts of the world. Therefore our study, which provides evidence that this intervention alone is insufficient to reduce MRSA rates, potentially has widespread implications for best clinical practice recommendations and policy change. Further research regarding the cost-effectiveness of these interventions will allow better utilisation of limited healthcare resources.

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Competing interests

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 Interests
 For of the speakers' bureau for bioMérieux and Pfizer, and the sci SH is a member of the speakers' bureau for bioMérieux and Pfizer, and the scientific advisory board of Destiny Pharma, DaVolterra, and bioMérieux. He has received financial support for MRSA research activities from Geneva University Hospitals, B.Braun, and Pfizer. AP is a member of the speakers' bureau for Cubist and has received financial support for MRSA research activities from BD. There were no other financial or non-financial relationships, or interests that may be relevant to the submitted work.

Author contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: SH CBB. Analysed the data: ASL BSC. Contributed reagents/materials: SMK HG. Wrote the first draft of the manuscript: ASL. Contributed to the writing of the manuscript: ASL SH BSC CBB AC GLD CF BC SL SMK JAM CMA AP GP BR HG. ICMJE criteria for authorship read and met: ASL BSC SMK AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR HG CBB SH. Agree with manuscript results and conclusions: ASL BSC SMK AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR HG CBB SH. Enrolled patients: ASL AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR. Statistical support: BSC.

Data sharing

The dataset is available from the corresponding author at stephan.harbarth@hcuge.ch.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1 Flow of study wards through each phase of the study

Figure 1 Legend

Ten hospitals in nine countries were enrolled and were allocated to one of three study arms during the intervention phase. The enhanced hand hygiene arm used hand hygiene promotion; the screening and decolonisation arm used universal meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy with intranasal mupirocin and chlorhexidine body washes for identified MRSA carriers; the combined arm used a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA screening.

Figure 2 Implementation of the interventions

Figure 2 Legend

The top panel (A) shows the monthly hand hygiene compliance rates for hospitals in the enhanced hand hygiene and combined arms that used hand hygiene promotion campaigns. The solid dots represent the observed compliance rates while the lines represent the predicted compliance rates based on the regression model. The bottom panel (B) shows the proportion of patients screened on admission to the study wards by study arm. HH, hand hygiene.

Figure 3 Adherence to contact precautions, decolonisation and isolation measures for meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* carriers

Figure 3 Legend

m used a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRS
plementation of the interventions
Formally hand hygiene compliance rates for hospital
d hygiene and combined arms that used hand hygiene promotion ca
as rep This figure shows the distribution of monthly adherence to infection control measures for randomly audited patients known to be colonised or infected with meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) for each study arm. The top panel (A) shows adherence to implementation of contact precautions, decolonisation therapy, and isolation in single rooms. The middle panel (B) shows the presence of signage of MRSA status on the patients' room, bed, or nursing chart. The bottom panel (C) shows the availability of gowns, gloves, and alcohol-based handrub in or at the entrance of the room. The horizontal line in each box represents the median, the box represents the interquartile range and the vertical lines represent the minimum and maximum values. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

Figure 4 Nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* rates by study arm

Figure 4 Legend

The top panel (A) shows the nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) isolaton rates from clinical specimens. The middle panel (B) shows the nosocomial MRSA infection rates. The bottom panel (C) shows the nosocomial MRSA surgical site infection rates. The solid dots represent the observed MRSA rates while the lines represent the predicted MRSA rates based on the regression models. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

TABLES

Table 1: Baseline phase characteristics of hospitals and wards enrolled in the study

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

*Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts).

†By screening or clinical culture.

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Table 2: Summary of the timing and nature of infection control interventions for each study arm

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MRSA screening details: Screening of nares, perineum, and wounds (if present).

 Universal screening (intervention phase) was used in the screening and decolonisation arm. It refers to screening patients admitted for more than 24 hours and excluded patients undergoing ambulatory surgery and those screened within 5 days prior to admission to the surgical ward.

 Targeted screening (intervention and washout phase) was used in the two centres in the combined arm due to introduction of local and national mandatory screening policies. One study centre (Hospital 4) screened patients previously known to be MRSA-positive, contacts of MRSA-positive patients, and patients transferred from the Intensive Care Unit or other healthcare facilities. The other centre (Hospital 7) screened patients with the same risk factors as Hospital 4, but also included nursing home residents, patients admitted to the hospital in the last three months, patients transferred from another ward within the same hospital, and those admitted to vascular or abdominal surgery subspecialties.

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; HH, hand hygiene.

 *Commencement of the study period was staggered for hospitals. For each study phase, the start date is the date on which the first hospital entered the study phase and the end date indicates the date on which the last hospital completed the study phase.

†The dash indicates that there were no specific interventions as part of the study. Hospitals employed their usual infection control practices during these study phases.

Table 3: Study characteristics by study period

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

 *Baseline phase was 6 months in six hospitals and 7 months in four hospitals (two in the screening and decolonisation arm and one hospital in each of theenhanced hand hygiene and combined arms).

 †Clean surgery wards included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery. Other types of surgery wards included abdominal, general, and urological surgery.

 ‡Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts). §By screening or clinical culture.

Table 4: Crude nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **incidence rates and incidence rate ratios by study arm for each study period***

IRR, incidence rate ratio; MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward.

Table 5: Multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing adjusted incidence rate ratios for changes in level and trend of nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates***

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and adjusted for staffing (patient-to-nurse ratios), seasonal effects, type of surgical ward, and baseline hand hygiene compliance rates. The model also accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

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Table 6: Multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing changes in nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates for the subgroup analysis of clean surgery only***

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. Clean surgery included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery subspecialties. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and adjusted for staffing (patient-to-nurse ratios), seasonal effects, type of surgical ward, and baseline hand hygiene compliance rates. The model also accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

Flow of study wards through each phase of the study 233x137mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Implementation of the interventions 177x178mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* rates by study arm 166x170mm (300 x 300 DPI)

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA FOR MANUSCRIPT:

Comparison of strategies to reduce meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates in surgical patients: a controlled multicentr e intervention trial**

Table A 1 : Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* screening methods used in study centres in the screening and decolonisation arm and combined arm

Table A 2 : Study characteristics by study period and study arm

Table A 3 : Multiple segmented multilevel logistic regression model showing factors associated with monthly hand hygiene compliance rates

Table A 4 : Full model results for the multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing adjusted incidence rate ratios for changes in level and trend of nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* rates

Table A 5 : Full model results for the multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing changes in nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* rates for the subgroup analysis of clean surgery only

Table A6: Multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* rates in the washout phase by study arm

Table A 7 : Exploratory analysis using multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models including interventions implemented by centres as covariates in the model

Figure A1: Nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolation rates from clinical specimens by hospital

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*From Malhotra-Kumar S, Haccuria K, Michiels M, et al. Current trends in rapid diagnostics for methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and glycopeptide-resistant enterococcus species. *J Clin Microbiol* 2008;46:1577-87.

†Screening for meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* occurred during all study phases for centres in the combined arm using existing local methods.

‡For the screening and decolonisation arm, molecular assays were introduced during the latter part of the intervention phase. In one centre in this arm (Hospital 2) a locally available molecular assay was used from the commencement of the intervention phase.

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Table A 2 : Study characteristics by study period and study arm

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* .

*Baseline phase was 6 months in six hospitals and 7 months in four hospitals (two in the screening and

decolonisation arm and one hospital in each of the enhanced hand hygiene and combined arms). †Clean surgery wards included cardiothoracic, neuro -, orthopaedic, plastic , and vascular surgery. Other types of

surgery wards included abdominal, general , and urological surgery.

‡Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening , and night shifts).

§By screening or clinical culture.

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Table A3: Multiple segmented multilevel logistic regression model showing factors associated with monthly hand hygiene compliance rates *

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* .

*Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all statistically significant, though baseline trends and intercepts showed no evidence of correlation.

†Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening , and night shifts) for each month.

‡Calculated by dividing the patient -days of subjects known to be coloni sed or infected with meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* by the total number of patient -days in the ward in any given study month. This variable was divided into quartiles for the analysis.

Table A4: Full model results for the multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing adjusted incidence rate ratios for changes in level and trend of nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates***

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio; HH, hand hygiene.

*Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

For peer review only †Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts) for each month.

Table A5: Full model results for the multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing changes in nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates for the subgroup analysis of clean surgery only***

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio; HH, hand hygiene.

*Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. Clean surgery included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular

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surgery subspecialties. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

†Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts) for each month.

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Table A6: Multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates in the washout phase by study arm**

Table A7: Exploratory analysis using multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models including interventions implemented by centres as covariates in the model*

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio.

IRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio.

count for autocorrelation and adjusted for staffing (patient-to-nurse ratios), seasonal effects, type of

also accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospita *The models used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and adjusted for staffing (patient-to-nurse ratios), seasonal effects, type of surgical ward, and baseline hand hygiene compliance rates. The model also accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, though there was no evidence that baseline trends significantly correlated with intercepts.

†Each additional month with x% compliance with admission screening would be associated with a reduction in the MRSA isolation rate by a factor of aIRR^{x/100}.

Figure A1 Nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolation rates from clinical specimens by hospital

The solid dots represent the observed meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) rates while the lines represent the predicted MRSA rates based on the regression models. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; HH, hand hygiene.

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Comparison of strategies to reduce meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates in surgical patients: a controlled multicentre intervention studytrial**

Running head: MRSA control strategies in surgical patients

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Key words: meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; screening; active surveillance cultures; hand hygiene; healthcare-associated infection

ABSTRACT

Objective: To compare the effect of two strategies (enhanced hand hygiene versus meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* [MRSA] screening and decolonisation) alone and in combination on MRSA rates in surgical wards.

Design: Prospective, controlled, interventional cohort study, with 6-month baseline, 12month intervention, and 6-month washout phases.

pective, controlled, interventional cohort study, with 6-month baseliention, and 6-month washout phases.

Ention, and 6-month washout phases.

I. All patients admitted to the enrolled wards for more than 24 hours.
 SIMPEN Setting: 33 surgical wards in ten hospitals in nine countries in Europe and Israel. **Participants:** All patients admitted to the enrolled wards for more than 24 hours. **Interventions:** The two strategies compared were: 1) enhanced hand hygiene promotion; and 2) universal MRSA screening with contact precautions and decolonisation (intranasal mupirocin and chlorhexidine bathing) of MRSA carriers. Four hospitals were assigned to each intervention and two hospitals combined both strategies, using targeted MRSA screening.

Outcome measures: Monthly rates of MRSA clinical cultures per 100 susceptible patients (primary outcome) and MRSA infections per 100 admissions (secondary outcome). Planned subgroup analysis for clean surgery wards was performed.

Results: After adjusting for clustering and potential confounders, neither strategy when used alone was associated with significant changes in MRSA rates. Combining both strategies was associated with a reduction in the rate of MRSA clinical cultures of 12% per month (aIRR 0.88, 95% CI 0.79 to 0.98). In clean surgery wards, strategy 2 (MRSA screening, contact precautions, and decolonisation) was associated with decreasing rates of MRSA clinical cultures (15% monthly decrease, aIRR 0.85, 95% CI 0.74 to 0.97) and MRSA infections (17% monthly decrease, aIRR 0.83, 95% CI 0.69 to 0.99).

Conclusions: In surgical wards with relatively low MRSA prevalence, a combination of enhanced standard and MRSA-specific infection control approaches was required to reduce MRSA rates. Implementation of single interventions was not effective, except in clean surgery wards where MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation was associated with significant reductions in MRSA clinical culture and infection rates.

Frial Registration: clinicaltrials.gov identifier: NCT00685867

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ARTICLE SUMMARY

Article focus

- The relative effectiveness of different meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) control measures is controversial.
- This study directly compared the effect of two strategies (enhanced hand hygiene versus MRSA screening and decolonisation, alone and in combination) on MRSA rates in surgical wards.

Key messages

- reening and decolonisation, alone and in combination) on MRSA ra
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 For PERCIST ATTLE CONSTAND TO EXECUTE CONSTAND THE PREVIET ON PREVIET AND AND THE PREVIET CONDUCT THE PREVIET ON THE PREVIET A • Neither enhanced standard infection control measures (emphasising hand hygiene promotion) nor MRSA-specific control interventions (universal MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy) when used alone for 12 months effectively reduced MRSA rates in surgical wards with relatively low MRSA rates.
- A combination of interventions, including targeted screening of high risk patients, did result in reduction in the rate of MRSA isolated from clinical cultures.
- In surgical subspecialties that perform clean surgery, *universal* MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy effectively reduced both the rates of MRSA isolated from clinical cultures as well as MRSA infections.

Strengths and limitations of this study

- Unlike many previous studies, this was a large, controlled, prospective, multicentre, intervention study. The enrolled wards, from ten hospitals in Europe and Israel, varied in terms of infection control infrastructure and MRSA prevalence, thus the results are likely to be generalisable to other settings.
- Due to the nature of the quality improvement initiatives, investigators were not blinded to the allocated intervention. Interventions were not randomly allocated.

INTRODUCTION

Healthcare associated infections affect hundreds of millions of patients worldwide every year and represent an important cause of patient mortality and a major financial burden to health systems.¹ Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), now endemic in many healthcare facilities, is a leading cause of healthcare associated infections,² and patients in surgical units are at increased risk due to factors such as invasive procedures, antibiotic exposure, and prolonged healthcare contact. A number of countries mandate implementation of control measures, including MRSA screening.^{3,4} Not all mandated interventions, however, are supported by robust evidence.

cilities, is a leading cause of healthcare associated infections,² and ps
are at increased risk due to factors such as invasive procedures, ant
d prolonged healthcare contact. A number of countries mandate impleasures, i Studies evaluating MRSA control strategies show conflicting results, particularly with regards to the use of active surveillance cultures.⁵⁻⁷ It is argued that broader infection control approaches, such as improving hand hygiene (HH) practices, may be as successful as MRSAspecific strategies. 8.9 There are limitations, however, to current evidence with few prospective, controlled studies,^{10,11} and many studies have assessed multiple interventions simultaneously.¹² Quantifying the relative benefits of individual approaches is important, particularly as some strategies have significant cost implications, and will allow efficient use of limited resources.

Due to the ongoing debate concerning optimal approaches to MRSA control, $13,14$ we performed a prospective, interventional, quality improvement study to compare the effect of an enhanced HH promotion strategy to an MRSA screening, isolation and decolonisation strategy when used alone and in combination on the incidence rates of MRSA clinical cultures and infections in surgical patients admitted to healthcare facilities across Europe and

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Israel. We also aimed to specifically assess these interventions in clean surgery wards where their benefits may be expected to be more pronounced.

METHODS

Study design and population

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 Five, controlled, multicentre, interventional cohort study with a three
 For Processing Example 1 and Switzerland) were enrolled. Wards
 Solutionary Societian, France, Spain [two
 For Soci This prospective, controlled, multicentre, interventional cohort study with a three phase interrupted time series design was conducted between March 2008 and July 2010. Thirtythree surgical wards of ten hospitals in nine countries (Serbia, France, Spain [two hospitals], Italy, Greece, Scotland, Israel, Germany, and Switzerland) were enrolled. Wards included orthopaedic (8), vascular (6), cardiothoracic/cardiovascular (5), general (4), abdominal (4), urology (3), neurosurgery (2), and plastic surgery (1) subspecialties. Characteristics of the enrolled wards varied (table 1).

The study consisted of baseline (6 to 7 months), intervention (12 months), and washout (6 months) phases. Initial baseline phase data collection commenced in one centre in March 2008 prior to the implementation of any interventions. All other centres commenced baseline phase data collection after May 2008. The intervention phase did not start for any study site until October 2008. During baseline and washout phases, wards employed their usual infection control practices. During the intervention phase, two strategies were investigated, with hospitals implementing one or both interventions in parallel (figure 1).

Interventions

The first intervention, the enhanced HH strategy, used the WHO multi-modal HH promotion method consisting of: 1) using alcohol-based handrub at the point of care, 2) training and

education of healthcare workers, 3) observation and feedback of HH practices, 4) reminders in the workplace (e.g. posters), and 5) improving the safety climate in the institution with management support for the initiative.¹⁵ Adherence to standard precautions (e.g. gloves for body fluid contact) and isolation of MRSA patients according to local policies werewas encouraged. There was no attempt to change local practices regarding isolation of MRSA patients as part of this intervention.

Example 15 This intervention.
 **Formagnetic increases the Science in and decolonisation strategy, used a univer

Formagnetic II** consisted of screening patients admitted for more than 24 Idmission (within 48 hours) then The second intervention, the screening and decolonisation strategy, used a universal MRSA screening approach. It consisted of screening patients admitted for more than 24 hours for MRSA, on admission (within 48 hours) then weekly. Patients were excluded from screening if they were undergoing ambulatory surgery or had already been screened within 5 days prior to admission to the surgical ward. The nares, perineum, and wounds (if present) were swabbed. Chromogenic agar screening was used with the addition of polymerase chain reaction (PCR) testing during the latter part of the intervention phase for patients who had risk factors for MRSA (e.g. hospitalisation in the last year) whose chromogenic agar results were unlikely to be available before surgery. MRSA carriers were placed on contact precautions (gown and gloves during patient contact), administered decolonisation therapy with twice daily intranasal mupirocin and daily chlorhexidine washes for five days, and perioperative prophylaxis was modified to reflect MRSA carriage. Chlorhexidine bathing was limited to identified MRSA carriers and not used as a unit-wide intervention. Pre-emptive isolation was not used as part of this strategy.

The hospital was the unit for assignment of interventions due to practical reasons and the nature of the strategies. Four hospitals were assigned to each intervention and two hospitals used a combination of both strategies (the combined strategy) due to the introduction of

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national or local mandatory targeted MRSA screening policies during the study period which necessitated deviation from the original trial protocol (table 1figure 1). The choice of allocation was influenced by the constraints upon the study centres, such as cost and personnel $(n=3)$, population size $(n=1)$, capacity of the microbiology laboratories $(n=3)$, prior exposure to specific interventions (n=1) and mandatory local or national interventions (n=2). Thus, this pragmatic approach took into account the institutions' preferences, as participation in an entirely cluster-randomised trial would have meant that some of the hospitals could not have participated.

 $(n=2)$. Thus, this pragmatic approach took into account the institutions as participation in an entirely cluster-randomised trial would have mospitals could not have participated.
Secrecing in the two hospitals in the com The targeted screening in the two hospitals in the combined strategy arm was based on risk factors for MRSA carriage (including patient characteristics or surgical subspecialty). One hospital using the combined strategy (Hospital 4) introduced targeted screening of patients who were previously known to be MRSA-positive, contacts of MRSA-positive patients, and patients transferred from the Intensive Care Unit or other healthcare facilities. The other hospital in the combined strategy arm (Hospital 7) used targeted screening of patients with the same risk factors as Hospital 4, but also screened nursing home residents, patients admitted to the hospital in the last three months, patients transferred from another ward within the same hospital, and those admitted to vascular or abdominal surgery subspecialties. These assignments of hospitals to each study arm occurred prior to commencement of data collection. A summary of the nature of the interventions for each study arm is presented in table 2. The study protocol was registered with a public registry of clinical studies (available at: http://clinicaltrials.gov/ Identifier: NCT00685867).

Outcomes measures

The primary outcome measure was the monthly nosocomial MRSA isolation rate, defined as the number of MRSA clinical isolates (those from specimens collected other than for screening purposes, counting one isolate per patient per month), per 100 susceptible patients (not previously known to be MRSA colonised or infected). Isolates from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days after discharge from study wards were considered nosocomial.

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Interiors were the monthly rate of nosocomial MRSA infections per

Independence to HH guidelines and contact precautions. Infections v

Iriteria.¹⁶ Adherence to HH guidelines was measured as the percentag

fo Secondary outcomes were the monthly rate of nosocomial MRSA infections per 100 admissions, and adherence to HH guidelines and contact precautions. Infections were defined using CDC criteria.¹⁶ Adherence to HH guidelines was measured as the percentage of opportunities for HH in which staff used alcohol-based handrub and/or washed their hands according to the WHO method.¹⁵ Adherence to contact precautions was measured as the percentage of randomly audited MRSA patients for whom precautions with gown and gloves during patient contact had been implemented.

Microbiological methods

Standardised laboratory manuals were provided to centres. Samples were processed in local laboratories using standard culture-based identification of MRSA from clinical specimens. In hospitals assigned to the screening and decolonisation arm, nasal and perineal swabs were pooled in the laboratory then plated directly onto chromogenic medium (BBL CHROMagar MRSA II, BD Diagnostics, Belgium) and also incubated overnight in an enrichment medium to increase test sensitivity.¹⁷ Positive results could be reported within 24 to 48 hours.¹⁸ PCR testing directly from pooled screening swabs was performed with the BD GeneOhm MRSA (BD Diagnostics, Belgium) or GeneXpert MRSA (Cepheid, Belgium) tests, which have turnaround times of 2 to 3 hours and 1.5 hours respectively (see online supplementary table

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A1).¹⁸ All laboratories participated in an external quality assurance program to evaluate their ability to detect, identify and perform antibiotic sensitivity testing on staphylococci from a variety of different specimens.¹⁹ MRSA isolates were shipped to the central laboratory (University of Antwerp, Belgium) for confirmation of identification.

Data collection

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 Fourther Form each hospital collected data and implemented the interview

the participating hospitals, including Infection Control, Infections Dis

demiology departments Research personnel from each hospital collected data and implemented the interventions at their study site. These personnel were from departments that supervise infection control activities at the participating hospitals, including Infection Control, Infectious Diseases and Hospital Epidemiology departments. They were trained at the study coordinating centre with regards to the study protocol, the outcome definitions and the use of the data collection tools prior to the commencement of the study to ensure consistency of data collection across the hospitals. Local microbiology laboratory data were reviewed to obtain information regarding MRSA isolated from screening and clinical cultures. Infections were monitored by twice weekly ward visits to review medical records and interview staff. Surgical site infection surveillance occurred up to 30 days post-procedure (or 12 months after prosthetic device insertion).

HH adherence was monitored by the research personnel who had been trained and validated in the WHO method of direct observation at the study coordinating centre.¹⁵ A standardised observation form was used by all centres. All hospitals collected data for 100 HH opportunities per ward during baseline and washout phases.²⁰ HH observers were specifically instructed not to provide feedback to healthcare workers concerning their HH practices during these study phases, and the observers were independent of surgical ward staff, reducing the likelihood of the Hawthorne effect, in which staff improve their practices when

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they are aware that they are being observed.²¹ During the intervention phase, there was intensive monitoring of HH practices in wards using the enhanced HH and combined strategies. In these wards, 100 HH opportunities per ward per month were observed as part of the intervention. Implementation of contact precautions, decolonisation therapy, and single room isolation for MRSA carriers was randomly audited each month. Signage of MRSA status and availability of gowns, gloves and alcohol-based handrub for contact with MRSA carriers was also audited.

ailability of gowns, gloves and alcohol-based handrub for contact wi
also audited.
In any mumbers of admissions, patient-days, surgical procedures, and lev
collected. <u>Due to variation in the availability and quality of el</u> Data regarding numbers of admissions, patient-days, surgical procedures, and level of staffing were collected. Due to variation in the availability and quality of electronic medical record and pharmacy data between the study sites, individual-level data (such as length of stay) and antibiotic utilisation data for the surgical wards was not collected as part of this study. Ward-level data were submitted monthly to a central data management centre via a password protected secure online database which included range, consistency, and missing data checks. Meetings, site visits, and monthly teleconferences were held to review data, ensure adherence to study protocols, and address queries. Data were reviewed monthly for completeness and 6-monthly for validity by teleconferences with individual study sites. Institutional review boards of all centres approved the study with a waiver of individual informed consent.

Statistical analysis

The study was designed to detect a 30% difference in nosocomial MRSA isolation rate assuming a baseline rate of 1.0 clinical isolate per 100 susceptible patients and an absolute difference of 10% between intervention arms. Sample size calculations assumed a two-sided

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test, a type I error rate of 0.05 and 80% power, taking the wards as the unit of analysis. A minimum of 15 wards was required per study arm.

and changes in log-linear trends associated with the interventions.²²
wed for two levels of random-effects: hospital-level variation in inter
ds, and nested ward-level variation in intercepts. It adjusted for expo
ly num Crude MRSA rates were calculated by study arm. Adjusted incidence rate ratios (aIRR) were calculated using multilevel Poisson segmented regression accounting for stepwise changes in MRSA level and changes in log-linear trends associated with the interventions.²² This analysis allowed for two levels of random-effects: hospital-level variation in intercepts and baseline trends, and nested ward-level variation in intercepts. It adjusted for exposure given by the monthly number of susceptible patients or admissions per ward and allowed for extra-Poisson variation. Surgical subspecialty, baseline HH compliance, seasonal effects (using calendar month), and patient-to-nurse ratios were adjusted for. Autocorrelation was accounted for using a lagged dependent variable. A similar analysis was performed for HH compliance, but used segmented multilevel logistic regression, adjusting for ward-specific baseline levels and trends, professional category, HH indication, patient-to-nurse ratios, and monthly MRSA colonisation pressure (number of days patients known to be MRSA colonised/infected were in the wards each month).

Planned subgroup analyses were performed by hospital and for clean surgery wards (cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery) as studies have shown that intranasal mupirocin, which is active against Gram-positive organisms, may be more effective for surgical site infection prevention in clean compared to clean-contaminated surgery (e.g. general or gastrointestinal surgery) where Gram-negative and anaerobic organisms may play a larger role.²³ As screening intensity varied in the combined arm, a planned exploratory analysis of MRSA outcome data was conducted to better quantify the intervention effects. It accounted for stepwise changes and log-linear trends in outcomes

associated with the HH intervention, as well as the monthly proportion of patients screened and monthly cumulative screening rate on wards to account for changes in trends of outcomes associated with screening. Analyses were conducted with STATA 11.0 (STATA Corp, USA).

RESULTS

andy period, there were a total of 126 750 admissions and 99 638 sur

n the study wards. Baseline admission MRSA prevalence, without sy

all admitted patients, was 0.8% (269 of 33 608), ranging from 0.1%

all wards of each During the study period, there were a total of 126 750 admissions and 99 638 surgical procedures on the study wards. Baseline admission MRSA prevalence, without systematic screening of all admitted patients, was 0.8% (269 of 33 608), ranging from 0.1% to 2.2% across surgical wards of each hospital. Baseline HH adherence varied between hospitals (39.5% overall, 95% CI 38.1% to 40.9%) as did use of targeted MRSA screening (0 to 30.9% of admissions) (table 1). Study characteristics are shown in table $\frac{23}{2}$ and online supplementary table A2.

Adherence to hand hygiene guidelines

In the enhanced HH and combined arms, HH compliance improved in all centres with overall compliance increasing from 49.3% (95% CI 47.2% to 51.4%) to 63.8% (95% CI 63.2% to 64.4%) from baseline to intervention phases (figure 2a). After multivariable analysis, commencing HH promotion was associated with a significant immediate increase in HH compliance (adjusted odds ratio [aOR] 1.19, 95% CI 1.01 to 1.42) (see online supplementary table A3). However, this benefit was not sustained after cessation of the HH campaign with a significant decreasing trend in HH adherence of 9% per month (aOR for month postintervention 0.91, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.97) during the washout phase. In wards in the screening and decolonisation arm, where no HH promotion occurred, compliance remained low at

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30.5% (95% CI 28.7% to 32.4%) at baseline and 23.9% (95% CI 22.0% to 25.9%) during the washout phase.

Screening, contact precautions and decolonisation of MRSA carriers

reviewing and decolonisation arm. Admission MRSA prevalence intervals and decolonisation arm. Admission MRSA positive clinical c (89.6%) identified by screening alone. PCR screening was used in a cagar cultures in 1047 (11 During the intervention phase, 9250 (75.3%) of 12 279 patients were screened on admission to wards in the screening and decolonisation arm. Admission MRSA prevalence was 2.1% (259 of 12 279), consisting of 27 patients (10.4%) with MRSA-positive clinical cultures and 232 patients (89.6%) identified by screening alone. PCR screening was used in addition to chromogenic agar cultures in 1047 (11.3%) of 9250 patients. Between baseline and intervention phases in screening and decolonisation wards, the proportion of audited MRSA carriers placed on contact precautions increased (81.1% to 90.7%), as did administration of decolonisation therapy (34.4% to 69.8%) (figure 3). However, the proportion of audited MRSA carriers in single rooms decreased (67.8% to 40.1%), possibly due to a shortage of rooms for the higher number of identified MRSA carriers. Reasons for non-adherence to decolonisation therapy included discharge prior to an MRSA-positive result, discharge prior to commencement of decolonisation therapy or the patient declining the intervention.

Screening occurred to a lesser extent in the other study arms (figure 2b). About 10% of admissions to wards in the enhanced HH arm were screened throughout the study. In wards in the combined arm, screening increased from 9.2% to 22.3%, then 36.9% during baseline, intervention, and washout phases respectively. In this arm, adherence to contact precautions was high throughout the study (93.0% to 99.6%), but only 32.9% of MRSA patients at baseline and 35.9% of patients during the intervention phase received decolonisation therapy (figure 3).

Nosocomial MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures

able 45 and see online supplementary table A4 for full model), comm

bition in the enhanced HH arm was associated with an immediate nor

bosocomial MRSA isolation rate (aIRR 1.44, 95% CI 0.96 to 2.15) witeral in rates over Crude MRSA isolation rates from clinical cultures decreased in all study arms during the intervention phase (enhanced HH arm: 0.99 to 0.80; screening and decolonisation arm: 0.47 to 0.23; combined arm: 0.55 to 0.36; $p=0.04$; per 100 susceptible patients) (table $\frac{34}{1}$). After adjusting for clustering and potential confounders with multilevel segmented Poisson regression (table 45 and see online supplementary table A4 for full model), commencement of HH promotion in the enhanced HH arm was associated with an immediate non-significant increase in nosocomial MRSA isolation rate (aIRR 1.44, 95% CI 0.96 to 2.15) with no change in the trend in rates over time. In clean surgery wards, HH promotion was associated with a non-significant decreasing monthly MRSA isolation rate (aIRR 0.89, 95% CI 0.78 to 1.01) (table 56 and see online supplementary table A5 for full model).

In the screening and decolonisation arm, there were no significant changes in MRSA isolation rates. However, in clean surgery, this intervention was associated with a reduction in MRSA clinical cultures of 15% per month (aIRR 0.85, 95% CI 0.74 to 0.97).

In the combined arm (wards that used a combination of HH promotion with targeted screening), there was a significant decreasing trend in MRSA isolation rate of 12% per month overall (aIRR 0.88, 95% CI 0.79 to 0.98), and 18% per month in clean surgery (aIRR 0.82, 95% CI 0.71 to 0.95). Observed and model-predicted MRSA isolation rates from clinical cultures are illustrated in figure 4a and online supplementary figure A1.

During the washout phase, MRSA clinical culture isolation rates increased. A post-hoc analysis of the washout phase results by study arm showed that the increase in MRSA rates was, particularly in clean surgery wards. This was due to an abrupt increase in the level of

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MRSA clinical cultures on cessation of the intervention phase in all study arms, but particularly with the conclusion of the intensive HH promotion campaign in the combined arm (see online supplementary table A6data not shown).

Nosocomial MRSA infection rates

70 nosocomial MRSA infections in total (335 [71.3%] surgical site,
and 94 [20.0%] other infections). Crude infection rates decreased o
s (table 34). After multivariable analysis (table 4<u>5</u>, figure 4b and see
ty table A4) There were 470 nosocomial MRSA infections in total (335 [71.3%] surgical site, 41 [8.7%] bloodstream, and 94 [20.0%] other infections). Crude infection rates decreased over time in all study arms (table $\frac{34}{1}$). After multivariable analysis (table $\frac{45}{1}$, figure 4b and see online supplementary table A4), enhanced HH promotion alone was not associated with changes in MRSA infection rates. Both the screening/decolonisation and combined interventions resulted in non-significant decreasing trends in total MRSA infection (screening and decolonisation arm: aIRR 0.93, 95% CI 0.82 to 1.05; combined arm: aIRR 0.90, 95% CI 0.80 to 1.02) and surgical site infection rates (table 45, figure 4c and online supplementary table A4).

In clean surgery, the screening and decolonisation strategy was associated with significant reductions in total MRSA infection rate of 17% per month (aIRR 0.83, 95% CI 0.69 to 0.99) and MRSA surgical site infection rate of 19% per month (aIRR 0.81, 95% CI 0.66 to 1.00) (table 56 and online supplementary table A5).

Exploratory analysis to directly assess implemented interventions

The exploratory analysis did not show any significant effects of HH promotion on nosocomial MRSA isolation rates (see online supplementary table A76). The intensity of admission screening was associated with a decreasing trend in monthly MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures (aIRR 0.91 per month with 100% compliance with screening, 95% CI

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0.85 to 0.98). A similar effect was seen in the trend in MRSA infection rate (aIRR 0.92, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.99).

DISCUSSION

at implementation of as-individual interventions in surgical wards, well promotion strategy nor universal MRSA screening with contact
 For promotion strategy nor universal MRSA screening with contact
 For also and STARS We found that *implementation* of as individual interventions in surgical wards, with neither an enhanced HH promotion strategy nor universal MRSA screening with contact precautions and decolonisation of MRSA carriers, werewas not effective in reducing MRSA rates in surgical patients. However, using a combination of both HH promotion and targeted screening was associated with a reduction in MRSA isolation rate from clinical cultures of 12% per month. When the interventions were specifically evaluated in the subgroup of clean surgery wards, the screening and decolonisation strategy was most effective. In these wards, this intervention was associated with significant reductions in both MRSA clinical culture isolation rate of 15% per month and MRSA infection rate of 17% per month.

This study is unique in that it directly compared strategies individually and in combination using a large, prospective, controlled design.¹⁰ In addition, we used a planned exploratory analysis to separate out the individual effects of the HH and MRSA screening strategies. Interventions were implemented and assessed under operational conditions in ten heterogeneous hospitals across Europe and Israel with widely varying infection control practices, staffing, infrastructure, and MRSA epidemiology, increasing the generalisability of our findings. This study has been reported using standard reporting guidelines that are designed to maximise transparency and scientific rigor of intervention studies of healthcare associated infection.²⁴

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compliance will have rapidly diminishing returns for reducing MRS/²⁶ In facilities with lower HH compliance or higher MRSA rates, thing the more effective than we were able to demonstrate. In addition wolve education and Our analysis, which adjusted for confounders, seasonal effects and baseline MRSA trends, found no evidence that enhanced HH promotion was effective. MRSA rates are declining in many countries.²⁵ Failing to account for this would overestimate intervention effects. Overall baseline HH compliance was 49% in study wards that used the HH intervention. In settings where compliance is already above about 50%, modelling studies suggest that further increases in compliance will have rapidly diminishing returns for reducing MRSA transmission.²⁶ In facilities with lower HH compliance or higher MRSA rates, this intervention may be more effective than we were able to demonstrate. In addition, HH campaigns involve education and behaviour change and are therefore unlikely to have a short term effect. Other studies have shown that they may be beneficial if activity is sustained over years.27,28 Although we did not detect any intervention effects of the HH promotion strategy, cessation of this intervention was associated with an increase in MRSA rates in our study, suggesting that discontinuing activities to optimise HH practices may be detrimental.

Active MRSA surveillance identifies the reservoir of asymptomatic carriers, enabling early implementation of contact precautions and decolonisation, which can reduce transmission.^{29,30} With universal screening, we found that 90% of MRSA-positive patients would have been missed using clinical cultures alone. However, our results suggest that rather than universal screening of all surgical patients admitted for more than 24 hours, selective screening in clean surgery wards or a combination of HH promotion and targeted screening of high risk patients may be more effective strategies. The relative burden of Grampositive infections is greater in clean compared to clean-contaminated surgery where other pathogens, including bowel flora, may be more important.^{23,31} Thus it is biologically plausible that MRSA-specific interventions would potentially have a greater impact in clean surgery. Indeed, intranasal mupirocin has been shown to reduce surgical site infections in

cardiothoracic and orthopaedic surgery, but is less effective in general surgery.²³ The commencement of such decolonisation regimens prior to surgical procedures, which can be facilitated by rapid detection of *S. aureus* carriage with molecular tests, is likely a key factor in the success of this approach.³² The use of molecular tests in the latter part of the intervention phase in our study could have significantly contributed to the reduction in MRSA rates seen over the period of the intervention phase, particularly in clean surgery wards.

seen over the period of the intervention phase, particularly in clean s

nory analysis suggests that screening intensity, rather than HH promo

intervention effects. It is curious, then, that universal screening did

H pro The exploratory analysis suggests that screening intensity, rather than HH promotion, explained the intervention effects. It is curious, then, that universal screening did not perform better than HH promotion combined with targeted screening. A significant reduction in MRSA clinical cultures was seen with the combined strategy despite the enrolment of only two hospitals in this study arm. This suggests that the effect of the combined intervention was robust. It is certainly biologically plausible that using two interventions that aim to control MRSA in different ways would be more effective than use of single interventions. Although the universal screening arm enrolled four hospitals, low baseline MRSA rates in this arm may have reduced our ability to detect significant effects. Shortage of isolation rooms may have also contributed. In addition, targeted screening may have been more effective if it identified "superspreaders",³³ facilitating more efficient use of resources including limited single rooms. Modelling studies also demonstrate that targeted screening has the advantage of increased cost-effectiveness compared to universal screening for reducing healthcare associated MRSA infections.34,35

This study adds to the conflicting literature regarding active surveillance cultures. Our results apply to surgical settings. The risk of MRSA infection in other wards, such as intensive care

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units or general medical wards, would differ due to variation in patient comorbidities and exposure to invasive procedures or antibiotics. It is also important to note that previous studies have used a variety of interventions in combination with screening. In some cases, the use of pre-emptive isolation in both study arms³⁶ or lack of decolonisation strategies, 6 may have led to effect sizes that studies had insufficient power to detect. Comparison of rapid screening to conventional rather than no screening, differences in screening methods, 10 variation in MRSA strains, or limitations in study design and analyses^{10,11} are other potential explanations for the conflicting results of screening studies.

conventional rather than no screening,³⁰ differences in screening metaNRSA strains,³⁷ or limitations in study design and analyses^{10,11} are o lanations for the conflicting results of screening studies.

The limitation There are some limitations to this study. Due to the nature of the interventions, which involved HH audits, promotion and feedback and/or implementation of MRSA screening, investigators were not blinded to study assignment. Research personnel assessing HH, screening, decolonisation, contact precautions, and isolation practices were not blinded to study assignment as they were responsible for implementing the interventions. Although allocation of interventions was not randomised, we accounted for differences in hospitals by adjusting for potential confounders and comparing outcomes between baseline and intervention phases within the same study arm. Decisions to take culture samples were initiated by treating physicians, not research personnel, and standardised definitions for infections were used, reducing the likelihood of bias in the measurement of the study outcomes by unblinded assessors. We used MRSA-positive clinical cultures as our primary outcome. Although this measure does not distinguish between colonisation and infection, it can be a more sensitive marker for changes in MRSA disease rates.³⁸ We found the results for MRSA clinical cultures similar to those for infections, suggesting that this measure was clinically relevant. Patient-level data, such as age, comorbidities and length of stay, and antibiotic use were not measured for this study. However, results were similar when each

centre was excluded in turn from the analysis (data not shown) so changes in factors in individual centres are unlikely to have had a major effect on study outcomes.

Conclusion

trol measures emphasising HH promotion and MRSA-specific (targe

high risk patients) approaches was required to reduce MRSA rates.

ion of single interventions was not effective, except in clean surgery

A screening couple In surgical wards with relatively low MRSA prevalence, a combination of enhanced standard infection control measures emphasising HH promotion and MRSA-specific (targeted screening of high risk patients) approaches was required to reduce MRSA rates. Implementation of single interventions was not effective, except in clean surgery wards where MRSA screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation of identified MRSA carriers was associated with significant reductions in MRSA clinical culture and infection rates. These findings are likely generalisable to other settings with varying infection control practices. In addition, the WHO multimodal HH promotion strategy¹⁵ implemented in this study is already being used in many parts of the world. Therefore our study, which provides evidence that this intervention alone is not insufficient to reduce MRSA rates, potentially has widespread implications for best clinical practice recommendations and policy change. Further research regarding the cost-effectiveness of these interventions will allow better utilisation of limited healthcare resources.

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Competing interests

Examples as supported by the European Commission under the Life Science H
 For Coth Framework Program (MOSAR network contract LSHP-CT-200
 Interests
 For of the speakers' bureau for bioMérieux and Pfizer, and the sc SH is a member of the speakers' bureau for bioMérieux and Pfizer, and the scientific advisory board of Destiny Pharma, DaVolterra, and bioMérieux. He has received financial support for MRSA research activities from Geneva University Hospitals, B.Braun, and Pfizer. AP is a member of the speakers' bureau for Cubist and has received financial support for MRSA research activities from BD. There were no other financial or non-financial relationships, or interests that may be relevant to the submitted work.

Author contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: SH CBB. Analysed the data: ASL BSC. Contributed reagents/materials: SMK HG. Wrote the first draft of the manuscript: ASL. Contributed to the writing of the manuscript: ASL SH BSC CBB AC GLD CF BC SL SMK JAM CMA AP GP BR HG. ICMJE criteria for authorship read and met: ASL BSC SMK AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR HG CBB SH. Agree with manuscript results and conclusions: ASL BSC SMK AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR HG CBB SH. Enrolled patients: ASL AC GLD CF BC SL JAM CMA AP GP BR. Statistical support: BSC.

Data sharing

The dataset is available from the corresponding author at stephan.harbarth@hcuge.ch.
FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1 Flow of study wards through each phase of the study

Figure 1 Legend

Ten hospitals in nine countries were enrolled and were allocated to one of three study arms during the intervention phase. The enhanced hand hygiene arm used hand hygiene promotion; the screening and decolonisation arm used universal meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) screening coupled with contact precautions and decolonisation therapy with intranasal mupirocin and chlorhexidine body washes for identified MRSA carriers; the combined arm used a combination of hand hygiene promotion and targeted MRSA screening.

Figure 2 Implementation of the interventions

Figure 2 Legend

The top panel (A) shows the monthly hand hygiene compliance rates for hospitals in the enhanced hand hygiene and combined arms that used hand hygiene promotion campaigns. The solid dots represent the observed compliance rates while the lines represent the predicted compliance rates based on the regression model. The bottom panel (B) shows the proportion of patients screened on admission to the study wards by study arm. HH, hand hygiene.

Figure 3 Adherence to contact precautions, decolonisation and isolation measures for meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* carriers

Figure 3 Legend

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plementation of the interventions
Formally hand hygiene compliance rates for hospital
d hygiene and combined arms that used hand hygiene promotion ca
as rep This figure shows the distribution of monthly adherence to infection control measures for randomly audited patients known to be colonised or infected with meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) for each study arm. The top panel (A) shows adherence to implementation of contact precautions, decolonisation therapy, and isolation in single rooms. The middle panel (B) shows the presence of signage of MRSA status on the patients' room, bed, or nursing chart. The bottom panel (C) shows the availability of gowns, gloves, and alcohol-based handrub in or at the entrance of the room. The horizontal line in each box represents the median, the box represents the interquartile range and the vertical lines represent the minimum and maximum values. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

Figure 4 Nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* rates by study arm

Figure 4 Legend

The top panel (A) shows the nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) isolaton rates from clinical specimens. The middle panel (B) shows the nosocomial MRSA infection rates. The bottom panel (C) shows the nosocomial MRSA surgical site infection rates. The solid dots represent the observed MRSA rates while the lines represent the predicted MRSA rates based on the regression models. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

TABLES

Table 1: Baseline phase characteristics of hospitals and wards enrolled in the study

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MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

*Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts).

†By screening or clinical culture.

 ‡Screening in hospitals in the combined arm was performed according to locally introduced policies. Hospital 4 used targeted screening of patients who were previously known to be MRSA-positive, contacts of MRSA-positive patients, and patients transferred from the Intensive Care Unit or other healthcare facilities. Hospital 7 introduced universal screening in two of three study wards and targeted screening in the third ward. In this ward, patients who were previously known to be MRSA-positive, nursing residents, patients admitted to the hospital in the last three months, contacts of MRSA-positive patients, and patients transferred from another ward or healthcare were screened.

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Table 2: Summary of the timing and nature of infection control interventions for each study arm

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For the sused of the state **Washout phase:** 6 months (1 October 2009 to 31 July 2010)* Enhanced hand hygiene arm로 가능한 사람은 이 사람들은 아이들은 사람들을 만들고 있다. 그 사람들은 아이들은 사람들은 아이들의 사람들을 만들고 있다. Screening and decolonisation arm - - - - - Combined arm $\qquad \qquad$ - Targeted screening based on risk factors (see "MRSA screening details" box below). Patients MRSA colonised/infected placed on contact precautions (gown and gloves during contact). MRSA patients placed in single rooms or cohorted based on local capacity. Pre-emptive isolation of previously unknown MRSA-carriers pending screening results not used.Patients MRSA colonised/infected given topical decolonisation therapy at discretion of treating clinicians.**MRSA screening details**: Screening of nares, perineum, and wounds (if present). Universal screening (intervention phase) was used in the screening and decolonisation arm. It refers to screening patients admitted for more than 24 hours and excluded patients undergoing ambulatory surgery and those screened within 5 days prior to admission to the surgical ward. Targeted screening (intervention and washout phase) was used in the two centres in the combined arm due to introduction of local and national mandatory screening policies. One study centre (Hospital 4) screened patients previously known to be MRSA-positive, contacts of MRSA-positive patients, and patients transferred from the Intensive Care Unit or other healthcare facilities. The other centre (Hospital 7) screened patients with the same risk factors as Hospital 4, but also included nursing home residents, patients admitted to the hospital in the last three months, patients transferred from another ward within the same hospital, and those admitted to vascular or abdominal surgery subspecialties. MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; HH, hand hygiene. *Commencement of the study period was staggered for hospitals. For each study phase, the start date is the date on which the first hospital entered the study phase and the end date indicates the date on which the last hospital completed the study phase.

The dash indicates that there were no specific interventions as part of the study. Hospitals employed their usual infection control practices during these study phases.

Table 23: Study characteristics by study period

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

 *Baseline phase was 6 months in six hospitals and 7 months in four hospitals (two in the screening and decolonisation arm and one hospital in each of theenhanced hand hygiene and combined arms).

 †Clean surgery wards included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery. Other types of surgery wards included abdominal, general, and urological surgery.

 ‡Calculated by dividing the mean patient load by mean number of nurses working on the ward at a given time (averaged over day, evening, and night shifts). §By screening or clinical culture.

Table 34: Crude nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **incidence rates and incidence rate ratios by study arm for each study period***

IRR, incidence rate ratio; MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward.

Table 45: Multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing adjusted incidence rate ratios for changes in level and trend of nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates***

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and adjusted for staffing (patient-to-nurse ratios), seasonal effects, type of surgical ward, and baseline hand hygiene compliance rates. The model also accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).

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Table 56: Multiple segmented multilevel Poisson regression models showing changes in nosocomial meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* **rates for the subgroup analysis of clean surgery only***

MRSA, meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; aIRR, adjusted incidence rate ratio.

 *Meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was defined as nosocomial if it was isolated from specimens collected more than 48 hours after admission or within 30 days (or 12 months for infections of prosthetic devices) after discharge from the surgical ward. Clean surgery included cardiothoracic, neuro-, orthopaedic, plastic, and vascular surgery subspecialties. The model used a lagged dependent variable to account for autocorrelation and adjusted for staffing (patient-to-nurse ratios), seasonal effects, type of surgical ward, and baseline hand hygiene compliance rates. The model also accounted for overdispersion. Random effects for intercepts at the hospital and ward levels and random baseline trends at the hospital level were all significant, and baseline trends were negatively correlated with intercepts (i.e. hospitals with higher baseline MRSA rates tended to have larger decreases in baseline rates).