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#### <span id="page-1-0"></span>**Table of Contents**



# <span id="page-2-0"></span>49 **Summary**

50 In healthcare settings, contaminated surfaces play an important role in transmission of nosocomial 51 pathogens potentially resulting in healthcare-associated infections (HAI). Pathogens can be transmitted 52 directly from frequent hand-touch surfaces close to patients or indirectly by staff and visitors. HAI risk 53 depends on exposition option, extent of contamination, infectious dose (ID), virulence, hygiene practices 54 and patient vulnerability. This review attempts to close a gap in previous reviews on persistence/ tenacity 55 by only including articles (n=179) providing quantitative data on re-cultivable pathogens from fomites 56 for a better translation into clinical settings. We have therefore introduced the new term "replication 57 capacity" (RC). The RC is affected by degree of contamination, surface material, temperature, relative 58 humidity, protein load, organic soil, UV-light exposure (sun) and pH-value. In general, investigations 59 into surface RC are mainly performed *in vitro* using reference strains with high inocula. *In vitro* data 60 from studies on 13 Gram-positive, 25 Gram-negative bacteria, 18 fungi, 4 protozoa and 36 viruses spp. 61 should be regarded as worst case scenario indicating upper bounds of risks when using such data for 62 clinical decision making.

63 Information on RC after surface contamination could be seen as an opportunity to choose the most 64 appropriate infection prevention and control (IPC) strategies. To help with decision-making, pathogens 65 characterized by an increased nosocomial risk for transmission from inanimate surfaces (fomite-borne) 66 are presented and discussed in this systematic review. Thus, the review offers a theoretical basis to 67 support local risk assessments and IPC recommendations.

68

69 **Keywords:** replication capacity, persistence, tenacity, viability, resilience, transmission, 70 bacteria, fungi, protozoa, viruses, inanimate surfaces, fomites, fomite-borne risk pathogens, 71 HAI

### <span id="page-3-0"></span>**Introduction**

 Information about pathogen replication capacity (RC) after surface contamination is an important basis for infection prevention and control (IPC) including the risk assessment of healthcare-associated infections (HAI) and nosocomial outbreaks. In addition, this information is of high importance for outpatient settings and community outbreaks.

 Pathogens can be spread from contaminated surfaces by direct patient contact, airborne dispersal (small and large aerosols) or indirectly via hand and medical devices after contamination from hand-touch surfaces (Fig. 1). Exogenous transmission of HAIs in Europe corresponds to only about 5-20 % of the total number of HAI incidents (1), making the hand the main vector for pathogen transmission from contaminated inanimate surfaces (2-31). Consequently, international guidelines assign a key role of 82 cleaning / disinfection of areas beside patients, especially surfaces receiving frequent hand / skin contact (32-35). An additional benefit is the relatively low cost of interventions aiming at controlling this source as opposed to many others, e.g. impregnated catheters (36). However, as recently witnessed during the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, the role of decontamination of inanimate surfaces can also be overrated (37). Inappropriate use of disinfectants leads to costly interventions alongside risk of disinfectant tolerance and even antibiotic resistance, environmental pollution (38-40) and adverse effects for humans (41-44). Therefore, it would be useful to obtain greater insight on the RC of pathogens on inanimate surfaces in order to implement the most appropriate, risk assessed decontamination procedures. Since hands are the main vehicle for potential nosocomial pathogens, hand hygiene and surface cleaning

should complement each other to prevent HAI (45).



<span id="page-5-0"></span>

111 environmental influences. In the Anglo-American language, the term 'tenacity' is uncommon; instead, 112 terms such as 'resistance', 'sensitivity' or 'survival' are used more often (47). The Latin origin 'tenacitas 113 = to hold on' is not helpful for understanding what the term means. In the broader sense, tenacity means, 114 'the determination to continue what you are doing' (48). Another comprehensive definition is, 'the 115 quality or state of being [tenacious'](https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/tenacious) (49). Professionals in clinical disciplines are unaware of the term 116 'tenacity' for microorganisms. Therefore, we need something that linguistically expresses the viability 117 of bacteria, fungi, protozoa and viruses when they contaminate surfaces, in order to be able to assess the 118 risk of onward spread of nosocomial pathogens emanating from that surface.

119 Since bacteria, fungi and protozoa function autonomously, the terms 'persistence', i.e. 'viability', or 120 'survival' are used synonymously. Survival can be understood as persisting viability under 121 disadvantageous circumstances (50). Some microorganisms persist through an adaptive reaction to 122 survive in the environment by reducing metabolism and by morphological, biochemical and / or genetic 123 adaptations, especially for bacteria in biofilms and/ or as bacterial spores (51-53). Another mode of 124 adaptation is the transition to viable but non-cultivable (VBNC) cells, which can only be converted back 125 to a replicative, virulent state through certain stimuli (54, 55). Protozoan cysts act as a survival niche 126 and protective shelter (56). The criterion for determining the persistence of microorganisms is whether 127 it can replicate after it has contaminated a surface.

128 Unlike bacteria, viruses need the synthetic apparatus of intact host cells for their replication. Viruses 129 have neither their own metabolism and energy production nor the possibility of protein synthesis. 130 Therefore, strictly speaking, they are not living beings. The criterion for viral infectivity is the ability to 131 replicate in host cells so that quantification *in vitro* is possible by resuspension from the surface, transfer 132 to the cell culture and counting dead cells, the so-called cytopathic effect. Not every virus is capable of 133 inducing CPE, while demonstrating other significant features. The viral ability to replicate is referred as 134 'replication capacity' (57), which is used in different contexts, e.g. for change under antiviral therapy 135 (58). In parallel, the ability of vectors to transfer antibiotic resistance genes can also be termed 136 'replication capacity' (59). Viral persistence, on the other hand, is understood as the genetic information 137 of viruses presenting in cells of the host organism and the possibility of a virus reactivation under certain 138 circumstances, e.g. in the case of immunosuppression of the host (e.g. herpes viruses).

139 In summary, only RC reflects the viral load on a surface, because viral RC correlates with the viral 140 infectivity (60). Given that for microorganisms and protozoa, as well as viruses, the criterion of 141 replication determines infectivity and because the term 'replication capacity' does not allow different 142 interpretations, the term 'replication capacity' (instead of tenacity, persistence, survival or viability) is 143 proposed to describe recovery from inanimate surfaces.

- <span id="page-7-0"></span>144 **Risk assessment from inanimate surfaces as origin of HAI**
- 145 Information on RC of pathogens on inanimate surfaces could assist with the following aims:
- 146 To determine the most effective decontamination strategy, firstly, for known nosocomial 147 pathogens, and secondly, in the event of the emergence of a new pathogen with initially 148 unknown properties and potential for epi- or pandemic spread;
- 149 Generally, to provide a risk assessment for IPC measures after pathogen release from patients 150 to interrupt further transmission;
- 151 To provide a risk assessment of the need for final disinfection measures required after hospital 152 discharge of pathogen carriers, especially for isolated patients;
- 153 To inform control methods for nosocomial outbreaks;
- 154 To help determine standard operating procedures (SOP) for surface cleaning and / or 155 disinfection, especially hand-touch sites without any knowledge about the presence of potential 156 pathogens;
- 157 To help determine SOP for surface cleaning and / or disinfection, following incidents such as 158 sewage or floodwater spillage, building works, etc.;
- 159 To assess the risk of the possibility of further spread of pathogens after hand contact of 160 contaminated surfaces and medical devices especially for research purposes;
- 161 To assess the risk-benefit between disinfection efficacy, expense and environmental impact and 162 thus finally IPC:
- 163 To analyze the RC under influence of probiotic cleaning as new option for IPC.

164 Walther and Ewald (61) distinguished a highly virulent long-lasting group containing variola (smallpox)

165 virus, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, *Corynebacterium diphtheriae, Bordetella (B.) pertussis,* 

166 *Streptococcus (Str.) pneumoniae*, and (avian) Influenza A Virus (virulence determined from mortality 167 rate or case mortality). These pathogens have a mean percent mortality  $\geq 0.01$  % and a mean survival  $168$  time > 10 days (d). In contrast, a low-virulence and low-persistent group (mean percent mortality < 169 0.01 % and time of survival < 5 d) includes viruses such as Rubeola, Mumps, Parainfluenza, Respiratory 170 syncytial, Varicella-zoster, Rubella and Rhinovirus, alongside the bacteria *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* 171 and *Haemophilus (H.) influenzae*. This is even more interesting, since these bacteria and viruses belong 172 to totally different species, families and genera, respectively. While our review focuses on transmission 173 modes via inanimate surfaces (fomite-borne), another category of pathogens is relevant for risk 174 assessment (see Fig. 1). The longer a nosocomial pathogen persists on a surface, the longer the surface 175 may be a source of transmission and endanger a susceptible patient or healthcare worker. Furthermore, 176 a correlation between virulence and persistence is reported (62), the sit-and-wait hypothesis predicts that 177 virulence should be positively correlated with persistence in the external environment because 178 persistence reduces the dependence on host mobility for transfer to a patient. This has been confirmed 179 for respiratory tract pathogens (62). The pathogenicity including factors as infectious dose (ID), RC and 180 risk of transmission determines the outbreak potential of a pathogen and must be considered as basis for 181 the IPC strategy. For surfaces as (temporary) origin of HAI, the RC of pathogens from fomites is 182 essential. The main focus in this context was the transmission mode from inanimate surfaces. High 183 virulent pathogens with outbreak potential due to low ID, long-lasting RC require additional to the non-184 targeted near-patient (high-touch) surface disinfection, a targeted cleaning and disinfection as patient-185 remote (low-touch) surface disinfection and final surface disinfection. Such pathogens with increased 186 "fomite-borne risk", characterized by an increased nosocomial risk for transmission from inanimate 187 surfaces, are marked in blue in the tables 3-7. Of course, disinfection measures are only one part of the 188 IPC strategy combined with the other standard precaution such as hand hygiene and additional pathogen-189 related measures such as barrier nursing, isolation, antimicrobial chemotherapy and antiseptic 190 decolonization. With growing knowledge, the classification of "pathogens with nosocomial risk for 191 spread from inanimate surfaces" can be further developed. 192 There is a practical way of looking at this. For example, admission to a room previously occupied by a

193 patient infected and/ or colonised with a pathogen is a known risk factor for acquisition of that pathogen

194  $(63)$ . This risk can be quantitated and it appears that the relative differences in acquisition risk between 195 the pathogens mirror environmental longevities. As expected, organisms such as *Acinetobacter*  196 *baumannii* complex and *C. difficile* present the highest risk for acquisition, and they also happen to be 197 the most resilient in the healthcare environment (64). This begs the question even over the need for 198 cleaning / disinfection priorities for a recently vacated room, depending on which pathogen infected the 199 previous patient. So, in accordance with survival and replicative properties, decontamination strategies 200 could range from a quick wipe over the hand-touch surfaces for MRSA, disinfection of the sink / shower 201 for ESBLs and comprehensive air and surface disinfection for *C. difficile*, etc. If pathogens released 202 from the respiratory tract, knowledge of the RC makes it possible to assess whether surfaces outside the 203 patient's contact area should also be included in the final disinfection, e.g. wall surfaces and slatted 204 curtains. A focus on targeted cleaning and disinfection allows pathogen-related risk to dictate the most 205 appropriate decontamination practice for all patient spaces (45). This risk assessment is the logical 206 consequence of a basic risk without knowledge of existing pathogens and enables a - in theory - most 207 effective strategy. 208 To assess the timeline of RC for risk of further spread, it is necessary to consider RC in more detail. 209 This includes baseline inoculum, the surface material, temperature, relative humidity (RH), protein load, 210 organic soil, light exposure, and pH-value. Thus, it is not just the type of pathogen or evidence for them 211 (e.g. DNA, RNA), but whether they are capable of being transmitted to, and replicating in, the host 212 (Fig.1). Transmission potential of pathogens on surfaces is not restricted to the direct and indirect contact 213 transmission route, as illustrated in Fig. 1. Some, but not all potential pathogens on inanimate surfaces 214 can be aerosolized and transmitted contact-free. This potential additional risk is not within the scope of

- 215 this review. But, if the RC is known, the infection risk can be estimated for respiratory released and 216 aerogenic transmissible pathogens.
- - 217 The aim of this review was to collect and assess published data related to RC of all types of nosocomial
	- 218 pathogens contaminating inanimate healthcare surfaces as basis for evaluating healthcare-associated
	- 219 infection risk by fomite-borne risk assessment. For determination of IPC strategies both RC and ID
	- 220 should be considered. This data might assist by evaluating the transmission and infection risk and
	- 221 therefore guide most appropriate IPC measures.

## <span id="page-10-0"></span>222 **Method**

223 The basis of this review made use of three reviews (65-67) with at least partly similar aims, from which 224 literature was screened and adopted. In order to update and expand the current reviews, afterwards a 225 systematic literature search was conducted and reported in accordance with the PRISMA guideline and 226 the German Manual for literature research in databases (68).

227 Based on the modified PICO scheme (table 1) the search strings were compiled. The search was 228 restricted to publications from 2020 onwards to obtain only hits that were not already included in the 229 search of the latest included review (67). The language was limited to German and English. The 230 databases PubMed and Web of Science were searched due their medical focus. The search was 231 conducted on the  $26<sup>th</sup>$  of January 2023.

232 **TABLE 1** Search strategy; segments and search terms

Segment	<b>Search terms</b>
Pathogens	Bacteria, virus, fungi, protozoa
Conditions	Surface, fomite, inanimate, temperature, humidity, light
Setting	Nosocomial, hospital-acquired
Outcome	Persistence, survival, transmission, tenacity

233 Duplicates were removed using *Citavi 6* (Swiss Academic Software GmbH). Four reviewers carried out

234 the screenings blinded (two reviewers per article) using an online document to record the decisions. The

235 articles were compared against predetermined inclusion and exclusion criteria (table 2).

236 In case of different assessments, a third reviewer joined the discussion, and a consensus was reached.

237 Firstly, the titles and abstracts were screened and then the full texts of the included records. Eligible

238 reviews were not included but searched for primary studies, which were then also screened as described

239 above.

240 **TABLE 2** Inclusion and exclusion criteria





- 241 The data was extracted into an online table by the reviewers. A cross check was conducted afterwards.
- 242 *Tables 3-7 were completely modified from the informative appendix (only in German) (70) of the*

243 *recommendation of the Commission for Hospital Hygiene and Infection Prevention (KRINKO) on* 

244 *Hygiene requirements for cleaning and disinfection of surfaces (71). Table 8 was modified from Jawad* 

245 *et al.* (72).

246 **Evaluable publications:** Out of the three reviews this review is based on, 145 publications were 247 included. Additionally, through the systematic search 495 records were identified via the databases (Fig. 248 2). 152 duplicates were removed. The title and abstract of the remaining 343 records were screened 249 leading to the inclusion of 40 reports. 32 of these were excluded during the full text screening. Four

- 250 primary studies and four reviews were included. The reference lists of the reviews were screened for 251 other eligible studies which lead to the inclusion of another 22 primary studies. Within the scope of the 252 systematic search, a total of 26 primary studies were included. Adding the studies from the three initial 253 reviews, a total of 171 publications were included.
- 254





257 Our review does not claim to completeness all pathogens with ability to induce outbreaks; such as 258 *Mycobacterium chimera*. The priority for us was to observe the transmission possibility from hand-259 touch inanimate surfaces; this is why we did not consider pathogens dominating in other hospital 260 hygiene relevant settings (e.g. water , air and food).

261 The tables 3-7 focus on the most important pathogens and relevant environmental (temperature, RH, 262 light, surfaces) data for clinical settings. For better clarity, inocula were reported by waiving application 263 conditions. Due to the inconsistencies in the kind of units used to report results, the initial inoculum 264 (starting point) was converted into decadic logarithm. For additional data and details of recultivation 265 and expanded environmental conditions, see supplementary material. Pathogens with an increased 266 fomite-borne transmission potential were highlighted in blue. For this tentatively introduced 267 classification we used a simple scoring system: Pathogens are characterized with **firstly)** a high 268 virulence and / or **secondly)** a long RC and / or **thirdly)** a high potential for nosocomial spread. A 269 pathogen belongs to the fomite-borne risk group if at least two of the three statements are fulfilled. This 270 is to be understood explicitly as a basis for discussion and is summarized illustratively in the figure.



272 **FIGURE 3** Introduced classification of pathogens with fomite-borne transmission potential and derived

- 273 IPC strategies
- 274
- 275

### <span id="page-14-0"></span>276 **Replication capacity of bacteria**

277 Especially in the near-patient environment of microbial colonized or infected patients, the responsible 278 species underlying the colonization or infection can be detected, especially if no surface cleaning or 279 disinfection has been carried out. In order to clarify transmission routes, such detection has been carried 280 out primarily for resistant species such as Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus (S.) aureus* (MRSA) (74, 281 75), vancomycin-resistant enterococci (VRE) (74, 76), carbapenem-resistant enterobacterales (CRE) 282 (77, 78), *Acinetobacter baumannii* complex (79), *Clostridioides (C.) difficile* (79, 80) and recently for 283 the high pathogenic yeast Candida *(C.) auris*. For species regularly detected in nosocomial outbreaks or 284 which frequently colonize or subsequently infect subsequently admitted patients after patient discharge, 285 the knowledge of RC is of special interest, because intensified surface cleaning with disinfection as part 286 of an intervention bundle proved effective in controlling transmissions and even an outbreak. This has 287 been proven for nosocomial outbreaks by VRE (18, 25), *C. difficile* (16), MRSA (81), *Acinetobacter*  288 *(A.) baumannii* (4, 8, 22, 28), CRE (14, 25) and C. auris (Ahmad et al. 2023). The acquisition of 289 pathogens from the discharged patients caused by deficiencies in final disinfection is repeatedly 290 described (5-7, 9, 15, 23, 82) and evaluated in meta-analyses (21, 31). However, none of these studies 291 have shown by genomic surveillance that the previous and the new patient were colonized with the same 292 clone of the respective species. Recent work suggests, that clonality cannot be assumed, but there is a 293 high likelihood of clonality depending on species (87).

294 In most reports, RC was studied on dry surfaces using artificial contamination of a standardized type of 295 surface in a laboratory. Bacteria were prepared in broth, water or saline and removed from the germ 296 carrier by different rinsing solution e.g. dist. water, physiol. NaCl, phosphate buffered salt solution 297 (PBS), or Triton X-100, sometimes in combination with ultrasound (table 3 and 4).

298 After this preparation, members of the Gram-positive genera enterococcus (e.g. VRE) 299 and staphylococcus (e.g. MRSA) survive for months on dry surfaces. Among streptococci, RC differs 300 depending on the species, i.e. for *Strepotococccus (Str.) pneumoniae* < 24 h, *Str. pyogenes* 1-3 d and 301 *Str. salivarius* > 88 h. In addition, *Corynebacterium pseudotuberculosis* survives 1-4 d on dry plastic 302 surfaces. In contrast, *C. diphtheriae*, isolated from dust in patient rooms, survives 7-90 d, depending on

- species. By daylight *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* survives for 2-5 d. In darkness the recultivation is possible up to 200 d (table 3).
- There are only a few studies in which wildtype and antibiotic resistant representatives of the same species were compared with each other. For enterococcus there are hints of higher RC for VRE compared with sensible enterococci present. Moreover, in dust a Methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus*(MSSA)
- demonstrated a shorter survival time on surfaces than MRSA (table 3).
- Spores of *Bacillus* und *Clostridioides (C.)* spp. survive depending on the material > 6 mon. In contrast,
- the vegetative form of *C. difficile* drops to the detectable threshold within 15 minutes (min) (table 3).

312 **TABLE 3** Replication capacity of Gram-positive bacteria from inanimate surfaces modified from (70) (pathogens with "fomite-borne risk", characterized by an

313 increased nosocomial risk for transmission from inanimate surfaces, are marked in blue; for additional data and details of recultivation and environmental

314 conditions, see supplementary material)









Legend: CFU = colony forming units, lg = decadic logarithm, min = minute, h = hour, d = day, wk = week, mon = month, PVC = polyvinyl chloride

- 317 Initial comment is that neither Gram-positive nor Gram-negative organisms represent a uniform group
- 318 regarding recultivation potential from inanimate surface (Tables 3 and 4). Some species can survive for
- 319 month, such as *Escherichia (E.) coli, Klebsiella* spp.*, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Serratia marcescens,*
- 320 *Enterococci*, *Acinetobacter* ssp. and *Clostridioides* ssp.. This is also reflected in infection epidemiology
- 321 since these pathogens can cause ongoing transmission incidents and outbreaks. The Salmonella genus
- 322 behaves very differently: *Salmonella (S.) typhimurium* is still present in garden soil 280 d after
- 323 contamination (126), *S. paratyphi B* survives in soil up to 259 d (127) and *S. enteritidis* for more than
- 324 11 month, whereas *S. typhi* survives only 4 d.
- 325 Conversely, Mitscherlich and Marth (128) demonstrate the persistence of *Proteus* spp. in the
- 326 environment with 1-2 d. *P. morganii, P. rettgeri, P. vulgaris* and *P. mirabilis* survive in sterile clay loam
- 327 at 18-20°C species-dependant 35-40 d. The decimal reduction time was about 6 d (129). *Shigella flexneri*
- 
- 328 persists for 6 d (130). *B. pertussis, H. influenzae,* and *Vibrio cholerae* persist only few days ((131);
- 329 Table 3). Aerosolized *H. influenzae* is characterized by short survival on glass (0.29 d), wood (0.08 d),
- 330 and fabric (< 1 d) (128, 132).

331 **TABLE 4** Replication capacity of Gram-negative bacteria from inanimate surfaces modified from (70) (pathogens with "fomite-borne risk", characterized by an

332 increased nosocomial risk for transmission from inanimate surfaces, are marked in blue; for additional data and details of recultivation and environmental conditions,

333 see supplementary material)













334

### <span id="page-28-0"></span>336 **Replication capacity of fungi**

337 For RC determination, fungi were removed from the germ carrier mostly by dipping or vortex in bouillon 338 or tryptic-soy-broth (TSB), sometimes in combination with ultrasound, and by contact with agar plate, 339 overlaying with agar or smear (Table 5).

340

341 Moulds occur ubiquitously in nature, are thermotolerant and can survive on surfaces for 2 d to > 30 d 342 depending on the material (Table 5). Indoor airborne mould measurements underline the survival for 343 several months (170, 171). Moulds can multiply at a RH  $\geq$  75 % at room temperature (RT), which can 344 lead to mould infestation (172). The species *Cladosporium*, *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* are the most 345 frequently detected moulds on hospital surfaces (173-175). *Mucor* and *Aspergillus (A.) spp.* were 346 isolated from room air and dust from an air-conditioning system with a defective filter and were linked 347 with mycotic endocarditis in patients undergoing open heart surgery (176). Moreover, Mucorales 348 (*Rhizopus* spp.), recovered from linen were associated with a Mucormycosis outbreak (177, 178), and 349 even survived a certified health care laundry process (178). Other Mucorales (*Mucor* spp.) persisted on

350 various materials for weeks (179).

351 The dermatophytes *Epidermophyton (E.) floccosum, Trichophyton* (T.) *mentagrophytes* and 352 *Tricholosporum violaceum* survived in skin scales for 10 years at -20 °C, while *T. rubrum* and *T.*  353 *verrucosum* could no longer be cultivated under the same conditions (180). *Microsporum canis* has been 354 detected on hospital surfaces (175). In Germany in the 1920s *E. floccosum* and *Microsporum (M.)* 355 *audouinii* dominated as pathogens of human dermatophytoses and *T. rubrum* was almost insignificant; 356 dermatophyte isolates increased from 41.7 % in 1950 to 82.7 % in 1993, so that *T. mentagrophytes var.*  357 *interdigitale* was gradually replaced by *T. rubrum* as the main pathogen of tinea pedis and 358 onychomycosis. With the introduction of griseofulvin in 1958, both, *M. audouinii* and *T. schoenleinii* 359 were virtually eradicated (181). In the case of tinea pedis, *T. rubrum* was detectable in 86 % of patients, 360 *T. mentagrophytes* in 81 % of patients in house dust (182). Both dermatophyte species could also be 361 detected and cultivated on the bare soles of the feet after leaving public baths. Washing and drying only 362 did not result in complete elimination (183). Since the beginning of the 20th century, the incidence of 363 *Microsporum canis* infections in Europe, especially in Mediterranean countries and Slovenia, has been 364 increasing sharply, with dogs and cats being the natural reservoir (184). However, further spread is also 365 possible via combs, brushes, hats, furniture, bedding, etc.

366

367 *Candida (C.) albicans*, the most common nosocomial yeast, can survive up to 4 mon on surfaces. RC 368 for *C. glabrata* (*Nakaseomyces glabratus*) was described to be similar but shorter for *C. parapsilosis*  369 (Table 5). In the patient environment, *C. glabrata* (*Nakaseomyces glabratus*)*, C. parapsilosis, C.*  370 *tropicalis, C. albicans, C. metapsilosis and C. lusitaniae* were detected on dry surfaces in ~ 3 %, on 371 moist surfaces in  $\sim$  14 % (185).

372

373 Several recent outbreaks have been caused by the new emerging multidrug-resistant *C. auris* (186) 374 which differs from other yeasts and dermatophytes in nosocomial spread (187, 188). *C. auris* is capable 375 of colonizing patients and it can persist on a patient for over a year (189, 190). It can be transmitted 376 through direct contact, e.g. hands, but also through indirect contact via fomites, such as medical devices, 377 other devices and surfaces that directly contact the patient (188, 191, 192). From 2015 to 2017 an 378 outbreak with 70 patients occurred in a neuroscience intensive care unit of the Oxford University 379 Hospitals, United Kingdom. The outbreak was linked with the use of reusable skin-surface axillary 380 temperature probes, suggesting that *C. auris* persisted in the environment and initiated a large outbreak 381 (193). By now, several outbreaks have been reported from different countries and hospitals reflecting 382 the high relevant transmission capacity of this new pathogen. This is particularly important since this 383 species is highly virulent, reflected by a substantial high proportion of invasive isolates leading to a high 384 blood culture positivity rate in outbreaks. The risk of nosocomial spread through surfaces is represented 385 by a higher RC in *in vitro* settings. Moreover, *C. auris* is often resistant to many antifungals which 386 complements higher risk of colonization and probable outbreak potential, with special regard to pan-387 resistant strains of *C. auris* (194). *C. auris* is now established in 43 countries across five continents 388 (195).

389 **TABLE 5** Replication capacity of moulds and yeasts from inanimate surfaces modified from (70) (pathogens with "fomite-borne risk", characterized by an increased

- 390 nosocomial risk for transmission from inanimate surfaces, are marked in blue; for additional data and details of recultivation and environmental conditions, see
- 391 supplementary material)







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### <span id="page-33-0"></span>394 **Replication capacity of protozoa**

395 Protozoa are unicellular heterotrophic eukaryotic organisms. They are considered to be a subkingdom 396 of the kingdom Protista, although in the classical system they were placed in the kingdom Animalia 397 (201). The cultivation techniques for protozoa differ from that used for bacteria and fungi, involve highly 398 complex and require different culture parametersdepending on the life cycle stage (). The RC 399 distinguishes between the vegetative form of protozoa, the trophozoite, and the inactive infectious form, 400 the oocyst or cyst (Table 6).

401

# 402 Prevention and The interruption of infection chains are the main strategies in the field of combating

403 protozoonoses. Depending on habitat, hygienic measures for water and sewage and personal hygiene 404 are of particular importance. Against this background, understanding the RC of protozoa relevant to 405 human medicine is of particular interest.

406

407 *Giardia (G.) intestinalis* is the commonest cause of parasitic diarrhea in high-income countries, the most 408 common enteric protozoan infection in the US, and is also prevalent in middle and low-income 409 countries. Amoebiasis is the third leading cause of death from parasitic diseases worldwide, with 410 greatest impact in low-income countries. Cryptosporidiosis is becoming more prevalent in both 411 developed and developing countries among patients with AIDS and among children aged less than five 412 years (202, 203). However, there are several other protozoa of relevance for the hospital setting. Several 413 outbreaks of diarrheal diseases caused by *Cyclospora (Cy.) cayetanensis* have been reported recently 414 (204, 205). *Trichomonas vaginalis* is the most common non-viral sexually transmitted disease 415 worldwide (206), but transmission via fomites is rare ().

416 *G. intestinalis* and *Cryptosporidium (Cr.)* spp. survive in both aquatic and terrestrial environments. 417 Giardia cysts may remain infectious for months in water or in cool damp areas (207). At temperatures 418 below 15 °C *Cryptosporidium* oocysts can maintain high levels of infectivity in water for at least 24 wk 419 (208-211) and up to 120 d in soil (212). The survival of oocysts of *Cr. parvum* and *G. muris* was 420 inversely correlated with the storage temperature and porosity of the surface (Table 6). Under various 421 test conditions, the overall trends of the *Cryptosporidium* oocysts die-off were similar to the one of 422 *Giardia* cysts (213). Outbreaks of *Cryptosporidium* spp. and *G. intestinalis* generally occur via drinking 423 water and food which were if inadequately treated to kill or to remove these parasites (214). Other less 424 frequent water-associated outbreaks include *Entamoeba (E.) histolytica / E. dispar, Balantidium (Bal.)*  425 *coli, Cy. cayetanensis, Microsporidium* spp., *Toxoplasma (T.) gondii* and the free 426 living *Acanthamoeba* species. *Cryptosporidium* spp. can also be transmitted nosocomial via hands and 427 indirect via surfaces (215). In China, an outbreak of cryptosporidiosis was associated with HAI by *G.*  428 *intestinalis*, *Enterocytozoon bieneusi* and *C. difficile* infection. Poor diaper changing and hand hygiene 429 were probably responsible for this multi-pathogen outbreak (216).

430 Survival of anaerobic *Entamoeba* spp. in environments is highly dependent on temperature. Survival 431 was determined in faeces and soil at 28-34 °C for 8-10 d, in water and sewage sludge at 0-4 °C for 60-432 365 d, in surface water resp. wastewater at 20-30 °C for 15 d resp. 10 d (217).

433 Multiple experiments in soils showed that *T. gondii* oocysts may remain viable for at least 1 year when 434 covered and in cool temperatures (4 °C). Under warm climate conditions in dry soils from Kansas, USA, 435 oocysts remained viable for 18 mon. In fresh or marine waters, oocysts were shown to be viable for at 436 least 4.5 and 2 years, respectively, reviewed by (218). To determine the survival dynamics 2.5 g of soil 437 are inoculated with 1 ml of suspension containing  $2 \times 10^5$  oocysts. The proportion of oocysts surviving 438 after 100 d was estimated to be 7.4 % under dry conditions and 43.7 % under damp conditions (219).

439 *Babesia (B.)* spp. are intraerythrocytic protozoan parasites transmitted primarily by tick vectors, rare 440 also congenital and by blood transfusion (220). Normally, it has its origin in endogenously infected 441 blood donors. A nosocomial transmission in blood products is only indirectly imaginable during the 442 preparation process of blood products in blood bank via hands contaminated from surfaces. 443 Refrigeration decreases the parasite numbers, but parasites survive 31 d at 2-4 °C and yield high end-444 point parasitemia, proofed by inoculation of hamsters (221). *B. microti* survives in red cells at 4 °C in 445 EDTA-coated blood collection tubes for at least 21 d. Blood held at room temperature did not infect any 446 hamsters (222). Under normal blood bank conditions, a 35-day-old red cell unit was cause of a

 transfusion transmitted babesiosis (TTB) (223). Similarly, TTB case reports implicating cryopreserved red cell units indicate that *B. microti* can survive indefinitely in the presence of glycerol cryopreservation (224, 225), but in the absence of cryopreservation, the parasite is rapidly killed by pathogen reduction technology, which uses riboflavin (RB) and ultraviolet (UV) light (226). Theoretically, a single parasite is capable of transmitting infection. Experimental studies, however, have shown that 30 organisms infected about 2 / 5 inoculated hamsters, and 300 organisms infected all animals (227).

 Protozoa play a minor role in HAI, but in our increasingly complex healthcare environment with a growing proportion of immunocompromised patients they should be respected, because certain protozoa may cause morbidity and even mortality in both normal and immunocompromised patients (204). Furthermore, climate change with increasing temperatures and heavy rainfall could promote their nosocomial potential in future. There is also the possibility that HAI could be missed because the incubation period may be days to weeks (wk) and the parasite is endemic. It is likely that nosocomial transmission of protozoa may be an even greater problem in tropical hospitals, where comprehensive hygienic measures are costly or otherwise more difficult to maintain and growth conditions more beneficial for the protozoa. Up to 1 % of HAI were caused by parasites depending on geographic region (228), but in this estimation no distinction was made between protozoa and other endo- or ectoparasites. Jarrin et al. (229) assumed that intestinal parasites can cause diarrhoea in 12-17 % of nosocomial epidemics and 1 % of endemic outbreaks, especially on surgical wards. Immunosuppressed patients and those with prolonged antibiotic courses are at higher risk. Enteric protozoa, especially *Cr. parvum*, *G. intestinalis, E. histolytica / E. dispar, Bal. coli, Cy. cayetanensi*s, and *Cystoisospora belli* (syn. *Isospora (I.) belli*) are the most common species involved in nosocomial outbreaks (229).

 Spread of enteric protozoa in developing countries usually occurs through fecal contamination due to sewage exposure, poor quality of water and zoonotic exposure, but also via transplantation (230-232). 470 The 50 % infectious dose (ID<sub>50</sub>) of *C. parvum* has been estimated at 132 oocysts; with some infections followed by ingestion of 30 oocysts (233). Ingestion of at least 10 to 25 *G. intestinalis* oocysts can cause infection in humans (234, 235). Infection after ingestion of a single oocyst has been reported (233). The small ID, the faecal-oral route of transmission, and prolonged environmental survival in water allows
474 *Cryptosporidium* to spread in healthcare facilities as well as child-care centers. *Cryptosporidium* can 475 transmit by hands after contact with contaminated environmental surfaces (236). The cysts are highly 476 resistant to environmental conditions and most of the disinfectants commonly used have low or none 477 antiparasitic activity (236). For *Giardia* and *Cryptosporidium* spp. person-to-person transmission is 478 possible (237, 238). For *Cryptosporidium* spp. transmission is primarily found among children and staff 479 members in nurseries, day-care centers, and schools (239). HAI by direct and indirect person-to-person 480 transmission is documented, causing secondary cases among roommates (237). In an outbreak of 481 giardiasis at two day-care nurseries *G. intestinalis* appeared to be transmitted person to person 482 (240). Conversely, ingestion of approximately 200–49,000 oocysts at healthy volunteers did not 483 experience gastroenteritis, and no oocysts were detected in any stool samples over the following 16 wks 484 (241). Therefore, there is minimal risk of nosocomial transmission. Sporulated oocysts of *I. belli* can 485 survive for years in the environment (242). Although the transmission of protozoa via surfaces in 486 hospitals is negligible for most species, awareness of surface persistence is important for assessing the 487 risk of surfaces as a reservoir for food, water, and hands (table 6). *Cr. parvum* oocysts survived in stool 488 on wood up to 72 h, and differed between stool samples (210). Survival was shorter than in water, 489 because other fecal microorganisms such as bacteria may be associated with the shortened survivability 490 (243). Also, the presence of ammonia, which may be present in faeces in high concentrations. This is a 491 significant inactivation agent for oocysts (244, 245). Oocysts have been shown to survive for hours on 492 wet surfaces, including stainless steel, but they resist desiccation and die rapidly on dry surfaces (246).

493 For virgin girls with high prevalence of trichomoniasis resulting in multivariate analysis, the only 494 statistically significant risk factor for trichomoniasis was inconsistent use of soap. The authors postulate 495 that the high prevalence of trichomoniasis in virgins in Ndola is due to non-sexual transmission of 496 trichomoniasis via shared bathing water and inconsistent use of soap (247).

497 *Acanthamoeba* are one of the most common protozoa in soil, and frequently found in fresh water and 498 other environmental habitats such as pools, lakes, brackish water, seawater, heating, ventilating, air-499 conditioning filters and medical equipment, such as gastric wash tubing and dental irrigation units (248). 500 An important habitat and vector for infection are hydrogel contact lenses, resulting in contact lens

 associated keratitis caused by *Acanthamoeba* and *Fusarium* (249), particularly since the contact lenses' moist condition supports survival protozoa. *Acanthamoeba, Vahlkampfia* and *Vermamoeba* spp. have been detected in dust on internal, surgical and open heart surgery intensive care units (ICUs), on equipment, doors and in the air conditioning system (250). *Acanthamoeba* cysts are double-walled, highly resistant dormant stages that remain viable (and infective) for several years (251, 252) and in a state of desiccation up to 21 years (Table 6).

507 **TABLE 6** Replication capacity of protozoa from inanimate surfaces (pathogens with "fomite-borne risk", characterized by an increased nosocomial risk for

- 508 transmission from inanimate surfaces, are marked in blue; for additional data and details of recultivation and environmental conditions, see supplementary
- 509 material)



510

511

### **Replication capacity of viruses**

 To determine the RC of viruses, applied material was removed from the germ carrier by scraping or rinsing in cell culture medium; sometimes combined with vortexing and transfer of the sample usually into cell culture. Recultivability is determined, based on the number of infectious virus particles, by growing the remaining virus particles with subsequent determination of the virus titre. In contrast, molecular biological detection alone does not allow any conclusions regarding infectivity. For hepatitis B virus (HBV), infectivity was proven by application of the rehydrated inoculum in chimpanzees due to lack of cultivation in cell culture in the past. Nowadays, it can be analyzed in a HBV susceptible cell 520 culture system using hepatoma cells expressing the  $Na<sup>+</sup>$ - taurocholate co-transporting polypeptide (NTCP)-HBV cell entry factor (258) (Table 7). However, this method is only available in specialized laboratories and cannot be used routinely.

 Gastrointestinal transmissible viruses remain infectious on inanimate surfaces. The longest has an average of 1 - 6 w, followed by blood-borne (average 1 to 6 w), respiratory (average 1 to 3 d) and 525 sexually transmitted viruses (2 h to  $\le$  7 d) (table 7).

 Non-enveloped viruses are more resistant to extreme pH, heat, dryness, disinfectants in general and some can intrinsically resist certain disinfectants such as the parvovirus or hepatitis A virus (HAV). In contrast, most enveloped viruses such as herpes viruses (cytomegalovirus), human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) are less environmentally stable since they possess an outer lipid bilayer membrane. Small viruses, e.g. hepatitis B virus (HBV) or the members of the picornavirus or parvovirus family, are much more resistant than larger complex viruses, e.g. members of the herpes or retrovirus families (259). Some non-enveloped viruses, such as enteroviruses belonging to the picorna viridae, are sensitive to drying, e.g. dried inoculum of the Coxsackie B4 (CVB4) virus was easier to recover when CVB4 was spiked in media containing any concentration of NaCl instead of protein load (260).

 The relevance of surfaces in healthcare facilities as a contamination source for viruses is even more difficult to prove than for bacteria and fungi, because surface isolation is more complex. Virus infection can so far only be indirectly deduced by tracking the spread of the virus from the patient and its presence in the patient environment, as the ID is not known with a few exceptions. However, in both situations  the risk of infection increases with higher RC. A few examples illustrate the importance of surfaces for 541 the spread of viral infections. After discharge of patients with norovirus infection, the number of new cases has continued to rise, most likely due to the low ID of norovirus (1 to 10 to 100 virus particles) (261). A large outbreak due to noroviruses infections could therefore be controlled by closing the affected departments, implementing extensive disinfection measures, and reducing the exposition risk, i.e. from infected healthcare workers (262). However, if recognized at an early stage, most norovirus outbreaks can be controlled easily without these intensified intervention strategies. A retrospective cohort study showed a very low risk of general infection by only 2 of 1106 exposed patients had acquired the identical norovirus strain from the discharged patient (263). Although the direct hand transmission dominates nosocomial transmission of rotaviruses, surfaces are also relevant for spread (264). A simulation experiment on virus inoculated over surfaces using Cauliflower mosaic virus showed that the virus was detectable on 41 % of the sampled surfaces within 10 h outside of the isolation unit (265). Whether this amount was sufficient to transmit infection was not investigated. After the emergence of MERS-CoV, although the origin is zoonotic, the risk of further spread via surfaces was investigated. The contamination with viral RNA was detected in the environment of hospitalized ventilated patients despite a strict disinfection regimen and negative pressure ventilation. Due to the RC of up to 9 d and the detection in the patient environment, the authors concluded that careful surface disinfection, especially near the patient, can help with prevention (266). Thus, detecting RNA does not necessarily coincide with infectivity.

 Other viruses from the gastrointestinal tract such as Astrovirus, HAV, Polio- and Rotavirus can retain their infectivity at RT for quite a long time, with the spectrum varying from several hours to 3 mon. HBV belonging to the group of blood-borne or sexually transmitted viruses play a very high stability with a RC of 50 % of more than 22 d at 37 °C and a persisting infectivity for up to 9 mon at 4 °C (258). In contrast, most respiratory viruses retain their infectivity on inanimate surfaces for a few days only (Table 7).

 Herpes viruses such as cytomegalovirus, mainly transmitted through contact with infectious body fluids, e.g. through breastfeeding, kissing, sexual contact, herpes simplex virus (HSV) type 1, mainly transmitted via contact, and HSV 2, mainly transmitted during sex, have been shown to persist from 570 only a few hours up to days (Table 7).

*Mpox virus (MPXV)*

 Since summer 2022, non-travel associated outbreaks of monkeypox have occurred in several non- endemic countries. Person-to-person transmission can occur through exposure to close contact with respiratory secretions, infectious skin lesions (e.g. via ruptured blisters) of an infected person, or recently contaminated objects (sex toys) and surfaces (267); nosocomial infections are described as well (268- 271). Recently, the WHO recommended using a new preferred term 'Mpox' as a synonym for monkeypox (272). Investigations with the vaccinia virus – a virus related to the MPXV – showed that this virus can remain 'infectious' on surfaces for up to 56 d (67). Stability on textile fibers was also investigated for the vaccinia virus. Accordingly, this virus could still be recovered from wool fabric after up to 4 wk and from cotton after four to 8 d; textiles contaminated with virus-containing dust even remained infectious for up to 12 wk (273, 274). Adler et al. indicates that in some patients the virus could be detected in the throat swab by PCR test for up to 3 wk (in one case from 2018 even up to 41 d) after diagnosis (275). Whether this was only 'residual nucleic acid' or infectious virus was not investigated. However, viable virus was identified in two (50 %) of four samples selected for viral isolation, including air samples collected during bedding change via air and surface sampling for MPXV 587 in a UK hospital (276). In another study, there was no statistical difference ( $p = 0.94$ ) between MPXV- WA PCR positivity of porous (9 / 10, 90 %) vs. nonporous (19 / 21, 90.5 %) surfaces, but there was a 589 significant difference ( $p < 0.01$ ) between viable virus detected in cultures of porous (6 / 10, 60 %) vs. nonporous (1 / 21, 5 %) surfaces. These findings indicate that porous surfaces (e.g., bedding, clothing) may pose more of a MPXV exposure risk than nonporous surfaces (e.g., metal, plastic). Viable MPXV was detected on household surfaces after at least 15 d (277). Therefore, the CDC recommends minimizing the spread in household by cleaning and disinfection laundry, hard and soft surfaces, carpet and flooring when exposed to an infected person (278).

## 595 *SARS-CoV-2*

596 Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus type 2 (SARS-CoV-2) demonstrates how infection 597 control of a new infectious disease can be established, and continuously adapted, at breathtaking speed 598 based on hospital hygiene strategies using RC, biocide resistance and transmission. Similar to other 599 coronaviruses, SARS-CoV-2 has been detected on surfaces (279) with a correlation between patient 600 proximity and surface contamination (280), so that the risk of further spread due to RC of up to 7 d on 601 surfaces (Table 7) could be prevented by disinfecting surfaces (281, 282). Even simple wiping with hard 602 water or detergent-based cleaning are effective decontamination strategies against SARS-CoV-2 (283). 603 This applies to all materials (Table 7), even if their influence on RC varies (284). Depending on the 604 exposure time, the recoverable virus quantity decreases almost linearly and is not critical on plastic after 605 72 h, stainless steel after 48 h, cardboard after 24 h and copper after 4 h (285). Since the ID is unknown, 606 the risk assessment remains open. In a case report, the detection of SARS-CoV-2 on surfaces in the 607 household is interpreted in such a way that transmission from surfaces is possible if they have recently 608 been contaminated by coughing or sneezing, touched and subsequently transferred to mouth, nose or 609 eyes (286). In this investigation, transmission via the respiratory tract cannot be ruled out in the few 610 other cases where transmission via surfaces is suspected (287). Presumably, however, the risk of 611 infection is not very high, because in swab samples from surfaces in an emergency ward and an 612 infectious disease sub-intensive care ward, small amounts of SARS-CoV-2 RNA were detectable in 613 only two of 26 samples and did not cause cytopathic effect in cell culture (288). It is possible that 614 residues of surface disinfectants used were able to reduce RC. In contrast, it is also possible that residues 615 of disinfectants may induce tolerance. Similarly, quantitative microbial risk assessment (QMRA) studies 616 indicate that the risk of SARS-CoV-2 infection via the surface transmission route is low and generally 617 less than 1:10.000, meaning that the probability of infection for each contact with a contaminated surface 618 is less than 1:10.000 (289-291). These results suggest that transmission of SARS-CoV-2 via surfaces in 619 public areas is irrelevant (292). In isolation units / rooms for patients with SARS-CoV-2 infection and 620 in units or rooms for suspected patient cases of SARS-CoV-2 infection, surface disinfection and cleaning 621 is indicated based on the observation that SARS-CoV-2 can be detected in the entire patient 622 environment. Moreover, the RC is up to 7 d, although the infectivity of the surfaces is apparently only

- low. In a retrospective questionnaire-based study, it was shown that even at home the use of protective masks and daily use of chlorine- and ethanol-based disinfectants for surface decontamination and hand antisepsis significantly reduced the risk of infection (293). Santarpia et al. (294) deduced from the data that in cases of suspected or confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infection within the last 24 h in the household,
- surfaces should also be decontaminated.

628 **TABLE 7** Replication capacity of viruses after isolation from inanimate surfaces modified from (70) (pathogens with "fomite-borne risk", characterized by an

- 629 increased nosocomial risk for transmission from inanimate surfaces, are marked in blue; for additional data and details of recultivation and environmental conditions,
- 630 see supplementary material)













#### 632 **Factors influencing the replication and infection capacity of microorganisms, protozoa**

### 633 **and viruses in the environment**

634 **Microbiological test conditions:** For bacteria, surface desiccation on the surface after contamination 635 (rapid or slow), relative humidity (RH) and temperature during storage, recultivation conditions, and 636 stage of cultivability (VBNC) are of influence on RC (Tables 3 and 4). The origin of the pathogen is 637 also influential. *A. baumannii* strains isolated from clinical settings were more often resistant to 638 desiccation than ATCC strains (Table 3). As expected, the RC is influenced by the initial bio-inoculum 639 of faeces, demonstrated for *E. faecalis*, MRSA, *A. baumannii, C. jejuni* (table 3), *E. coli, P. aeruginosa* 640 of recovery (Table 4), *C. albicans, C. auris, C. krusei (Pichia kudriavzevii*)*, C. parapsilos*is and *C.*  641 *tropicalis* (Table 5). Similarly for viruses smaller inocula were associated with shorter RC, e.g. for 642 transmissible gastroenteritis virus, mouse hepatitis (320) and SARS-CoV-2. The latter lost infectivity 643 after 2-4 d (341, 345) compared with longer times of 21 d (344) or 7-28 d (343) for larger inocula (Table 644 7). Finally, the RC depends on recovery method (Tables 3-7).

645

646 **Surface material**: The RC of bacteria, fungi and viruses was significantly shorter on copper surfaces 647 than on textile materials, plastics and steel, due to the oligodynamic effect of copper ((359, 360); Table 648 7).

649 On porous surfaces, e.g. coronavirus, influenza virus, avian metapneumovirus, poliovirus type 1 and 650 human enteric adenovirus type 40 (297, 361), survival is longer than on non-porous surfaces (Table 7). 651 One reason may be the lower virus elution during recovery from porous materials (362). A recently 652 published scoping review comes to the same conclusion ().The capillary effect within the cavities and 653 the faster evaporation of the aerosols could also be influential (363).

654

655 **RH:** Gram-positive bacteria tolerate dry conditions better than Gram-negative bacteria due to cell wall 656 properties (364). *S. aureus* persisted longer at low RH (365), while survival kinetics for *E. faecalis* were 657 lower at 25 % RH than at 0 % RH (366). *Acinetobacter* spp. suspended in distilled water survived 658 significantly longer at room temperature (RT) at RH of 28-34 % and 93 %, respectively, compared to 659 10 % RLF, while survival did not differ between 28-34 % and 93 %, respectively (72). Survival of



662

663 Enveloped viruses, especially respiratory viruses such as influenza, parainfluenza, corona-, respiratory 664 syncytial, measles and rubella viruses, but also herpes simplex and varicella-zoster viruses, retain their 665 RC longer with a low RH of 20-30 % (364). Only cytomegalovirus is isolated more frequently from 666 moist surfaces (367). Non-enveloped viruses such as adenoviruses, enteroviruses and rhinoviruses are 667 replicable for longer at 70-90 % RH (table 7, (368)).

668

669 **Temperature:** Constant temperatures > 24 °C seem to reduce the replication and infection capacity of 670 airborne bacteria, shown for representatives of Gram-positive, Gram-negative and intracellular bacteria 671 (364).

672

673 For 15 yeast species, the survival time increased when the ambient temperature was reduced. Overall, 674 the survivability of the species studied was longest at 4  $\degree$ C and 1 % RH and shortest at 37  $\degree$ C and 96 % 675 RH (198). The situation is different for the release of bioaerosols indoors. At 25 °C, more fungi (mainly 676 Fusarium and Penicillium spp.) were released than at 37 and 15 °C, whereby the composition of the 677 mould species differed significantly across these three temperature ranges (369).

678

679 The viral genome (viral DNA or RNA) is sensitive to the surrounding temperature. Indeed, temperature 680 is an important factor influencing the RC of several viruses. Higher temperatures affect / impact viral 681 proteins and enzymes, as well as the viral genome. In general, DNA viruses are more stable than RNA 682 viruses; yet high temperature will also affect DNA integrity. For most viruses, such as astro-, adeno-, 683 polioviruses, herpes simplex and HAV, low temperatures  $(4 \degree C)$  are associated with longer duration of 684 replicability (65). For enteric viruses, RC in water increased with increasing temperature  $> 20$  °C (370, 685 371). For rota-, poliovirus and HAV, RC was higher at  $> 80\%$  RH (297). This was confirmed for 686 poliovirus in that stability was significantly greater at 95 % RH than at 25 % RH (316). For 687 coronaviruses, the influence of RH was different with higher RC at 20 % and 80 % and comparatively 688 lower RC at 50 % (320). For SARS-CoV-2, interfering substances, temperature (20 or 35 °C) and RH 689 were only of moderate influence (Table 7). Morris et al. (372) developed an original prediction model 690 of how temperature and humidity alter RC by using a mechanistic quantitative approach that was based 691 on testing the stability of SARS-CoV-2 on an inert surface for a range of temperature and humidity 692 conditions. SARS-CoV-2 remained infectious longest at low temperatures and extreme humidity (up to 693 85 %). The estimated mean half-time of RC was  $> 24$  h at 10 °C and 40 % RH, but  $\sim$  1.5 h at 27 °C and 694 65 % RH. The model uses basic chemistry to explain why the sensitivity of enveloped viruses increases 695 with higher temperatures and has a U-shaped dependence on humidity. The model accurately predicts 696 existing results on the influence of temperature and RLF for five different human coronaviruses. This 697 suggests that common mechanisms may influence the stability of many viruses.

698

699 **Light conditions:** Light, especially sunlight, or lack of it influences the RC. The survival time of *C.*  700 *albicans* and *Rhodotorula rubra* on smooth glass surfaces doubled when they were kept in darkness 701 compared with daylight and extended from 44 to 98 d for *C. albicans*(198).

702

703 Under the influence of simulated sunlight, 90 % of SARS-CoV-2 applied to the surface in artificial 704 saliva were inactivated every 6.8 min during simulated summer exposure, but every 14.3 min during 705 winter exposure (346). In contrast, no significant decrease was detectable within 1 h in the dark (Table 706 7; (346)). The effect of sunlight was also reproducible in aerosol, while RH alone (20-70 %) had no 707 influence (373). Irradiation (distance 3 cm) with UVC (dose 1.048 mJ / cm<sup>2</sup>) completely inactivated 708 SARS-CoV-2 (infectious titre of  $5 \times 10^6$  TCID<sub>50</sub>/ml) after 9 min, while UVA (dose 292 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup>) 709 reduced the titre by only 1 lg after 9 min (374).

710

711 **Protein, fecal and urine load:** Desiccation in protein-containing media prolongs persistence, e.g. for 712 *A. baumannii* (table 8), *Escherichia (E.) coli* (102), *Neisseria (N.) meningitidis* (375) and yeasts (198). 713 Fecal load had little effect on the RC of HAV and rotaviruses. For adenoviruses, the RC only tended to 714 increase (Table 7).

715 **TABLE 8** Persistence of different *A. baumannii* strains suspended in water or bovine serum albumin

Average persistence	Strain(s)	Conditions (RH 28-34%, RT)
$\leq$ 5 d	American type culture collection (ATCC) 9955	suspended in water
$6-10d$	ATCC 17978, ATCC 19606, R 0211019	
$>$ 10-30 d	ATCC 17904, 18, 49, 16 / 48, 16 / 49, R 447	
< 10 d	<b>ATCC 9955</b>	suspended in 7 % BSA
$>$ 10-30 d	ATCC 17978, 18, 16 / 48	
$>$ 29-60 d	ATCC 19606, ATCC 17904, 49, 16 / 49, R	
	447, R 0211019	

716 (BSA) and dried on glass at different RH (modified from (72))

717

718 **Biofilm:** Biofilm is the predominate form of life for microorganisms in a nutrient-sufficient ecosystem. 719 Adhesion triggers the expression of a sigma factor that depresses a large number of genes so that bacteria 720 within the biofilm are at least 500 times more tolerable against antimicrobial agents (376) as well as 721 cold atmospheric plasma (377, 378). For example, *K. pneumoniae* remained viable up to 4 weeks in a 722 dry biofilm, proving the need for robust cleaning regimens (). The reason for the unspecific increased 723 tolerance is the production of extracellular substances such as polysaccharides, proteins and DNA after 724 attachment to surfaces. Besides wet surface biofilm in plumbing systems or other wet surfaces, biofilm 725 on dry inanimate surfaces at room humidity must also be considered (379). The biofilm matrix restrains 726 water and nutrients and protects the microorganisms against environmental influences (380, 381). Once 727 formed, biofilms are important for persistence of microorganisms on surfaces in nature as well as in 728 industrial or medical areas (380-382). The RC on inanimate surfaces is prolonged and depends on 729 environmental conditions, especially humidity. In addition, biofilms have been demonstrated on several 730 objects and surfaces in hospitals, such as sterile supply buckets, opaque plastic doors, venetian blind 731 cords, and sink rubbers, and it is possible to cultivate viable bacteria. Currently, there is insufficient 732 research to elucidate whether presence or absence of biofilm affects the risk of transmission or 733 possibility of cross-transmission. However, multi-drug resistant bacteria may not only be protected 734 within biofilms, but could be the mechanism as to why they persist within the hospital environment 735 (383). They may also exchange virulence factors among their own species or to other species present in 736 biofilms (381, 383-385).

737 At present there is limited knowledge about the relationship between viruses and biofilms. Since viruses 738 are strict intracellular pathogens, they will be unable to proliferate in biofilms, but they can persist in a 739 reservoir host due to the advantages conferred by the biofilm structure (386). Biofilms may encompass 740 a set of non-enveloped enteric viruses, including caliciviruses, rotavirus spp., astrovirus spp., and 741 hepatitis A virus, alongside other microorganisms such as Gram-negative bacteria and filamentous fungi 742 (387). Biofilms can enhance virion RC in extracellular environments, such as on fomites and in aquatic 743 sediments, allowing viral persistence and dissemination. Importantly, both virions and virus-infected 744 eukaryotic cells embedded in biofilms have been reported to retain infectivity. A study investigated the 745 enveloped virus herpes simplex virus 1 (HSV-1) and the non-enveloped virus coxsackie virus type B5 746 (CVB5) within fungal *Candida albicans* biofilms (388). Viruses stored in biofilms may be regarded as 747 temporary or long-term reservoirs in the environment (52). The potential of viral spreading via 748 contaminated surfaces depends on the ability of the virus to maintain infectivity while it is in the 749 environment, and biofilms aid protection against desiccation and antimicrobial agents (389).

750

## 751 **Discussion**

752 The decisive difference to the first systematic review in 2006 (65) on the resilience of pathogens against 753 environmental influences is that the course of the RC over time was calculated based on the quantity of 754 the inoculum on the surface, expressed as lg reduction. This results in more accurate values and explain 755 different values in some cases of the first review. Additional, the methodological development of 756 laboratory experiments to determine the RC over the last almost two decades also influence the results. 757

758 In general, clinical epidemiological evidence for transmission scenarios beyond outbreaks is lacking. 759 However, studies on RC and evidence for persistence on inanimate surfaces in combination with a 760 conspicuous transmission event are available. It is clear that the inanimate environment plays a relevant 761 role in these bacterial transmission pathways in the everyday situation (Fig. 1). As studies using whole 762 genome sequencing indicate, there is a serious underestimation of transmission events when using 763 standard techniques only (390). These analyses tend to focus on resistant, thus easily recognizable 764 pathogens. However, the quantification of transmission events and thus, an appropriate risk assessment 765 is not yet possible.

766 Beyond the epidemiological evidence, the studies were usually generated under laboratory conditions. 767 This means that not all possible environmental influences in hospital settings can be detected, especially 768 any from antimicrobial residues. In addition, the influence of the simultaneous contamination of hospital 769 surfaces with various nosocomial pathogens, with secretions, excretions and dirt will also be 770 disregarded. A growing number of studies report that enveloped and non-enveloped viruses can spread 771 in groups in so-called 'collective infectious units' (391-393). The vehicles mediating collective spread 772 vary widely and include lipid vesicles, protein matrices, diverse forms of aggregation, and binding to 773 the surface of host or non-host cells (391). It seems reasonable, that units like this or interference may 774 also exist for bacteria and / or fungi and / or protozoa. Laboratory studies do not reflect the clinical 775 situation and represent probably a one-sided worst-case scenario assessing the upper bound of infection 776 risk. Furthermore, they cannot represent the complexity of real-life scenarios. When assessing factors 777 that influence the RC, it must be considered that the results only apply to the species investigated and 778 cannot be generalized. Even more so, resistant isolates are often analyzed compared with wild type 779 variants. Sometimes tested microorganisms are poorly characterized so cannot determine the extent of 780 generalizability. Furthermore, it should be noted that data on the RC are often not median values; the 781 maximum was detected and described and these results can, and should, be used as an upper bound 782 approach. Data suggests that no general prediction about RC independent of genus is possible.

783 Additionally, further influences must be considered. Firstly, the dependence of environmental 784 conditions on the RC has not yet been sufficiently studied under real life conditions. Secondly, there is 785 insufficient data on the behaviour of wildtype and/or sensitive strains and variants within a species. 786 Thirdly, no data exist, on whether certain virulence or RC determinants are genetically present in isolates 787 that are particularly well adapted to the hospital setting.

788 In this review, only the risks due to direct or indirect contact transmission from inanimate surfaces were 789 addressed, not the additional risks by potential aerosolization of pathogens from fomites (394-396). 790 Therefore, it should be considered that the RC in aerosols can be significantly lower than on surfaces, 791 as has been proven for different variants of Ebola virus and Marburg virus (397). It is also the case that 792 high inocula results in longer survival times due to the logarithmic death curve (398), which has been 793 proven for various bacterial species (98, 399) and or fungal spores (198) on surfaces. Considering all 794 background factors, data generated under laboratory conditions can only provide a rough orientation. In 795 case of doubt, the unfavorable situation should be assumed when evaluating the data in Tables 3-7.

796 Despite knowledge on dependency of replication and infection capacity from factors like pH, 797 temperature, humidity, and others, we cannot easily change these surrounding conditions using their 798 preventive potential. For others, e.g. inocula and biofilms, we can use knowledge covering these aspects 799 from common IPC recommendations.

800 Another viewpoint for the risk assessment of surface contamination is the minimal infectious dose 801 (MID) to trigger infection. The lower the ID, the greater the risk of acquiring an infection and further 802 transmission as nosocomial outbreaks. It should be noted that the ID can be reduced by a viral infection, 803 which often leads to bacterial co- or superinfection, especially in cases of respiratory viral infections 804 (400-402). In Table 9, examples of different IDs are summarized, mainly taken from reviews. From the 805 clinical perspective it must be considered that this dose depends on the site of infection or at least 806 contamination allowing short-term contamination. For respiratory transmissible viruses with a MID >  $807$   $10^2$  50 % tissue culture infectious dose (TCID<sub>50</sub>), infection by aerosolization from surfaces is unlikely. 808 In contrast, infection is possible via the surface-finger-eye route for keratoconjunctivits epidemica due 809 to the low ID (Table 9) and the surface-finger-nose route, particularly in the case of nasal exposure to 810 respiratory viruses with a MID  $\leq 10^{1}$ . The same applies to orally transmissible pathogens with a MID  $811 \div 10^{1}$  TCID<sub>50</sub>, CFU resp. oocysts. This is supported by the outbreak potential of pathogens with low 812 MID. For fecal-orally transmissible bacteria and mucorales, transmission from surfaces is unlikely with 813 a MID <  $10<sub>2</sub>$  CFU. However, it should be noted that MID studies do not usually consider the fact that 814 the pathogens multiply from an initially acquired small number and the infection only manifests after 815 the critical quantity has been reached.

816 The lower the ID and the greater the RC, the greater the risk to acquire an infection by contact with the 817 surface or indirect by aerogenic turbulence from the surface and following inhalative exposition. 818 Likewise the risk of an outbreak emanating from surfaces increases. In both, the ID is likely to have the 819 greater influence. At the same time, the risk of a fomite-borne HAI is influenced by the patients' immune

- 820 status. The ID, RC and immune status must be considered when deciding upon targeted surface
- 821 disinfection and additional IPC.
- 822 **TABLE 9** Minimal infectious dose of selected pathogens
- 823





824

825 Disinfecting surfaces in hospitals is generally accepted as a key component of infection prevention (32- 826 35, 71, 420-423). But disinfection can also have an influence on the development of tolerance; it is 827 costly and leads to an ecological footprint. Clearly, every disinfection event requires a clear indication. 828 Disinfection must be implemented in a precise and quality-assured manner, since it offers a valuable 829 contribution towards HAI prevention. Regarding environmental protection, probiotic cleaning agents 830 are a promising alternative to chemical disinfection. Surface contamination with pathogens could be 831 reduced by up to 90 % more with probiotic products compared with conventional disinfection wipes 832 (424, 425). SARS-CoV-2 was reduced significantly more by probiotic cleaning than by chemical 833 disinfection (426). In non-intensive care units, routine surface disinfection did not prove superior to 834 soap-based or probiotic cleaning in terms of preventing HAI (427). Of course, no evidence-based 835 practical approach for systematic surface or probiotic cleaning in hospitals can be derived from the RC 836 of nosocomial pathogens.

837 RC and ID influence the implementation of surface decontamination regarding the extent and the 838 selection of the application concentration and exposure time of the disinfectant. In cases of high RC and 839 low ID, it makes sense to use concentrations that are rapidly effective. For final disinfection after patient 840 discharge, all potential pathogen reservoirs must be eradicated with choice of effective disinfectants. In 841 general, a simple four-step guide for daily decontamination of the occupied bed space can be 842 recommended: Step 1 (LOOK) describes a visual assessment of the area to be cleaned; Step 2 (PLAN) 843 argues why the bed space needs preparation before cleaning; Step 3 (CLEAN) covers surface cleaning 844 /disinfection; and Step 4 (DRY) is the final stage whereby surfaces are allowed to dry. Visible soil 845 should always be removed with detergent and water before using disinfectant (428). Analogous to the 5 846 moments of hand antisepsis (429), 5 moments of disinfecting surface cleaning can be distinguished: **I.**

847 Disinfecting surface cleaning as part of standard precautions (non-targeted disinfection) on near-patient 848 (high-touch) sites during patient care, and targeted disinfection as **II.** Disinfecting surface cleaning on 849 the work surface before performing aseptic activities, **III.** Final disinfecting surface cleaning after 850 discharge of patients, **IV.** Two step disinfection surface cleaning after visible surface contamination 851 (first cleaning, thereafter disinfection) and **V:** Disinfection surface cleaning as part of the multi-barrier 852 strategy to control outbreaks (428).

853 This review can help to reduce the complexity of disinfection choices depending on the range of 854 pathogen properties. At the same time, it proposes the best possible balance between patient and 855 employee safety, i.e. IPC and ecological and economic sustainability. Through a novel classification of 856 pathogens by their fomite-borne potential for transmission - completely independent of the taxonomic 857 approach - a fact-based but also realizable and pragmatic recommendation can be prepared with a view 858 to avoiding transmission. The attempt to classify pathogens by fomite-borne transmission potential 859 should serve only as a first suggestion and should be improved by scientific discussion. In general, 860 further studies should focus beyond the ecological and outbreak assessment –and target real life settings 861 or near real life scenarios in order to emulate endemic settings. There is insufficient evidence regarding 862 the impact of contaminated surfaces for encouraging contact-free transmission risk. Further analysis 863 should cover aspects of ecological sustainability and should weight up the potential benefit for 864 transmission and infection events against the additional ecological footprint from resource consumption, 865 production, and waste management.

#### 866 **Conflicts of interest**

867 None declared

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2105