

Article

## Effects of Disinfectants on Bacteria Isolated from the Hospital Environments

Hind Abdallah Salih<sup>1\*</sup>, Duaa Kamel Al-Moussawi<sup>2</sup>, Aseel Kamil Mohammad Al-Mosawi<sup>3</sup>

1,3. Department of Biology, College of Sciences, University of Thi Qar, Iraq

2. General Directorate of Education in Thi-Qar, Ministry of Education, Al-Nasiriya City, Iraq

\* Correspondence: [hind.a.bio@sci.utq.edu.iq](mailto:hind.a.bio@sci.utq.edu.iq)

**Abstract:** The hospital environment is a known reservoir for microbial contamination, particularly on inert surfaces, medical devices, and apparatus, posing significant health risks. This study addresses the antibacterial efficacy of four synthetic disinfectants—M.P.C. Hand Gel, M.P.C. Save Spray, Sani Wash, and Actoman Plus—against various bacterial strains isolated from Nasiriya hospitals, including Gram-negative bacteria (*Escherichia coli*, *Enterobacter* spp., *Acinetobacter* spp.) and Gram-positive bacteria (*Staphylococcus aureus*). Despite the widespread use of disinfectants in healthcare settings, the comparative effectiveness of these specific products remains underexplored. Using standard microbiological techniques, the study evaluates the disinfectants' effectiveness against the targeted pathogens. Results indicate varying degrees of antibacterial activity, with implications for improving infection control protocols in hospital environments.

**Keywords:** Hospital Environment, Microbial Contamination, Synthetic Disinfectants, Antibacterial Efficacy, Infection Control

### 1. Introduction

Disinfectants, often known as "Main group 1" biocides [1], play a crucial role in preventing infectious disease transmission. Disinfectants, when administered appropriately, can prevent germs from spreading, particularly in nosocomial illnesses. Disinfectants and virucidal sanitizing chemicals are increasingly used to prevent life-threatening illnesses caused by antibiotic-resistant bacteria and novel viruses [2, 3].

The patient's surroundings, especially hospital rooms and related equipment, are a significant source of infection that is resistant to drugs and may spread to other patients [4]. They serve as a central point of interaction for the hospital environment, caregivers, and patients with a variety of ailments, whether or not they are infectious [5]. They have the capacity to directly contaminate the healthcare environment, including instruments, surfaces, air, and water if precautions are not taken. [6].

Hospital surfaces can harbor harmful germs, leading to healthcare-associated infections (HCAIs). Monitoring disinfectant efficacy is crucial for preventing and controlling hospital-acquired infections (HAIs). Nonetheless, most resource-limited countries do not frequently assess disinfectant performance and efficacy [7].

To prevent the emergence of healthcare-associated illnesses (HCAIs), disinfectants are essential components of infection control intervention techniques in healthcare institutions [8]. Hospital environments, such as patients' beds, side tables, carriages, and

**Citation:** Hind Abdallah Salih, Duaa Kamel Al-Moussawi, Aseel Kamil Mohammad Al-Mosawi. Effects of Disinfectants on Bacteria Isolated from the Hospital Environments. International Journal of Biological Engineering and Agriculture 2024, 3(3), 424-430.

Received: 17<sup>th</sup> July 2024

Revised: 17<sup>th</sup> August 2024

Accepted: 24<sup>th</sup> August 2024

Published: 31<sup>th</sup> August 2024



**Copyright:** © 2024 by the authors. Submitted for open access publication under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license

(<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>)

benches, employ these compounds to mitigate the presence of bacteria, viruses, and fungi, thereby preventing HCAs [8, 9].

Some bacteria, like methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) and some Gram-negative bacilli, become resistant to widely used disinfectants. This implies a need for more frequent replacement of sanitizer active ingredients [10].

Research has demonstrated that bacteria exhibit resistance to quaternary ammonium, peroxides, phenols, chlorine, and glutaraldehyde [11–14]. As a result, this study looked at how well four types of bacteria found in hospital plants were killed by common disinfectants used in Nasiriyah hospitals (center of Thi Qar).

The disinfectants tested include M.P.C Hand Gel, an alcohol-based disinfectant for hands and skin that is simple to use. Waterless hand disinfectant is intended to promote skin health and reduce the spread of infection. Moisturizes and protects the skin, and contains 70% ethyl alcohol.

M.P.C Safe Spray is an alcohol-free, ready-to-use product. It is used to quickly clean alcohol-sensitive medical equipment but is not used during surgery. Sani Wash is a surgical-grade hand cleaner that belongs to the quaternary ammonium compound (QAC) made of Didecylmethyl-ammonium chloride (60 g/l), Glutaraldehyde (70 g/l), and Actoman Plus, which contains 4% chlorhexidine gluconate and dexpanthenol. These disinfectants are used to sanitize surfaces and medical equipment because they have antibacterial properties.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1. Collection of Samples:

We gathered 30 samples using swabs from hospitals and health centers in Nasiriyah (Nasiriyah Hospital, Al-Hussein Hospital, Al-Haboubi Hospital, Bint Al-Huda Hospital, and Heart Center) from corridors, lobbies, patient beds, intensive care units, doors and windows, operating rooms, and surgical tools.

### 2.2. Isolation and Identification of Bacteria:

After culturing samples on Blood agar and MacConkey medium, we placed them in an incubator for 24 hours at 37°C, and the next day we saw robust microbial growth. Conventional biochemical procedures like Gram staining, oxidase, catalase, and anaerobic tests were used to identify isolates.

### 2.3. Disinfectants and Active Compounds Tested:

We prepared Mueller Hinton media by drilling holes with a cork drill and then filling the holes with disinfectants using a sterile syringe. We incubated it at 37°C for 24 hours. Four disinfectants were chosen to evaluate their antibacterial activity.

Disinfectants are studied on isolated strains at Nasiriyah hospitals (Center of Thi Qar): *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, *Acinetobacter* spp., and *Enterobacter* spp. The disinfectants utilized include M.P.C. Hand Gel, M.P.C. Safe Spray, Sani Wash, and Actoman Plus.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Bacterial Diagnosis:

Thirteen isolates were found after culturing 30 samples from various hospitals and centers. The remainder of the isolates did not grow. Growing isolates are identified by phenotypic examination, Gram staining, and biochemical testing.

The identified species were as follows: *Enterobacter* spp (n = 5), *Acinetobacter* spp (n = 3), *Staphylococcus aureus* (n = 3), and *Escherichia coli* (n = 2) (Table 1).

Table 1. Bacterial species were isolated from hospital samples.

No.	Type of bacteria	Number of Isolated strain
1	<i>Enterobacter spp</i>	5
2	<i>Acinetobacter spp</i>	3
3	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	3
4	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	2

### 3.2. Testing the Disinfectants' Antibacterial Activity Against Bacterial Strains:

Table 2 demonstrates Actoman Plus disinfection's efficacy against Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria with an 84.6% inhibition rate, and the M.P.C-safe spray's efficacy against Gram-positive bacteria like *S. aureus*. Furthermore, the efficacy of this disinfectant against three kinds of Gram-negative bacteria, including *Escherichia coli*, *Acinetobacter spp.*, and *Enterobacter spp.*, were 100%, 66.6%, and 20%, respectively. While M.P.C. Hand Gel is exclusively active against *S. aureus*, *Enterobacter spp.*, and *E. coli*, it has an inhibitory efficacy of 33, 3%, 20%, and 100%, respectively. The current results also revealed that Sani disinfectant wash was 0% effective against Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria.

Table 2. Antibacterial activity of the three disinfectants on the tested strains.

The strains tested	Inhibition zone of disinfectant (mm)			
	M.P.C. Hand Gel	M.P.C.Safe Spray	Sani Wash	Actoman Plus.
<i>Enterobacter spp.</i>	R	R	R	15
<i>Enterobacter spp.</i>	R	R	R	17
<i>Acinetobacter spp.</i>	R	R	R	10
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	12	R	R	16
<i>Enterobacter spp.</i>	R	9	R	20
<i>Acinetobacter spp.</i>	R	28	R	13
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	26	12	R	14
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	15	15	R	16
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	R	15	R	32
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	R	R	R	R
<i>Enterobacter spp.</i>	R	R	R	R
<i>Acinetobacter spp.</i>	R	18	R	15
<i>Enterobacter spp.</i>	10	R	R	18

\*R: Resistant

#### 4. Discussion

The risk of infection for immunocompromised patients is elevated due to the hospital environment's susceptibility to contamination, particularly by resistant microorganisms such as bacteria [15, 16]. Hospitals must sterilize all surfaces and medical instruments to prevent microorganism spread and infection risk, especially in response to antibiotic resistance [17]. Controlled disinfection reduces healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) by preventing cross-contamination between patients, visitors, caregivers, surfaces, and hospital equipment [18].

Resistant bacteria, including vancomycin-resistant enterococci, MRSA, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and *Acinetobacter baumannii*, are routinely recovered from hospital surfaces. Healthcare facilities may now be cleaned and disinfected using standardized procedures [19], however, some research has shown that bacteria can develop resistance to disinfectants [20,22].

Our investigation revealed that Actoman Plus was effective against resistant bacteria (*E. coli* resistant to beta-lactam) as a result of its high concentration. The bacterium may have developed resistance to antibiotics, potentially reducing disinfectants' effectiveness in reducing methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus* in previously infested rooms [23, 24].

The study revealed that the effectiveness of disinfectants is influenced by various factors including the active molecule, genus, and structure of the bacteria, as well as the disinfection protocol. Disinfectants can either limit bacterial growth or kill germs, depending on their spectrum of action [25]. However, certain antimicrobial medicines may only target specific microbes. Depending on the physical and chemical properties of the microbial surface, the response to biocides may differ. Disinfectants can target pathogenic organisms by coagulating and oxidizing microbial cell proteins, as well as denaturing bacterial enzymes after they enter the cell wall [26]. Microorganism features, strain, biofilm development, and concentration, as well as environmental conditions such as UV light and temperature, all have an impact on the survival of nosocomial infection on inanimate surfaces and equipment [27].

Furthermore, some disinfectants might annoy consumers or be harmful when applied in excessive doses [28]. Even though data show that rotation of active chemicals can fail to maintain high disinfection efficiency [29, 30], it remains the method used in hospitals. Other studies indicate that susceptibility reduces with repeated exposure to microbicides [31, 32]. Therefore, future research should ideally investigate a greater number of isolates, compare alternative analytical methodologies, and monitor disinfectant activity over time.

Recently, several microorganisms, including *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, *Acinetobacter* spp, and *Enterobacter* spp. were discovered on hospital surfaces in Nasiriyah. It would be fascinating to investigate the effectiveness of various disinfectants and seek natural alternatives.

## 5. Conclusion

The study revealed that the effectiveness of disinfectants is influenced by various factors including the active molecule, genus, and structure of the bacteria, as well as the disinfection protocol. The study found that the disinfectants tested had varying degrees of efficacy. Sani wash does not have an antibacterial impact on Gram-positive and Gram-negative microorganisms. Actoman Plus and disinfectant spray were efficacious against specific positive and negative strains. The study's findings will benefit healthcare-associated infection control committees and hygiene departments responsible for preventing and correcting environmental and surface risks.

## REFERENCES

- [1] ECHA, "Biocidal Products Regulation—Product Types," Available online: <https://echa.europa.eu/regulations/biocidal-productsregulation/product-types> (accessed on 10 February 2021).
- [2] J.-Y. Maillard, "Bacterial Resistance to Biocides in the Healthcare Environment: Should it be of Genuine Concern?," *J. Hosp. Infect.*, vol. 65, pp. 60–72, 2007.
- [3] J.-Y. Maillard, "Bacterial Target Sites for Biocide Action," *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, vol. 92, pp. 16S–27S, 2002.
- [4] Y. Ez Zoubi, A. Farah, H. Zaroual, and A. El Ouali Lalami, "Antimicrobial Activity of Lavandula Stoechas Phenolic Extracts Against Pathogenic Bacteria Isolated from a Hospital in Morocco," *Vegetos*, vol. 33, no. 4, pp. 703–711, 2020.
- [5] MSSS: Ministère de Santé et des Services Sociaux, "D'abord, ne pas nuire... Les Infections Nosocomiales au Québec, un Problème Majeur de Santé, une Priorité," in Report of the Nosocomial Infections Prevention and Control Review Committee, Direction des Communications du Ministère de la Santé et des Services Sociaux, Québec, 2005.
- [6] A. El Ouali Lalami, F. El-Akhal, and B. Oumokhtar, "Assessment of Risk of Infection Related to Surface Contamination and Equipment in a Hospital in the City of Fez (Center of Morocco)," *Int. J. Pharm. Bio Sci.*, vol. 6, no. 2, pp. 36–52, 2015.

- [7] P. Damiano, V. Silago, H. A. Nyawale, M. F. Mushi, M. M. Mirambo, E. E. Kimaro, and S. E. Mshana, "Efficacy of Disinfectants on Control and Clinical Bacteria Strains at a Zonal Referral Hospital in Mwanza, Tanzania: A Cross-Sectional Hospital-Based Study," *Sci. Rep.*, vol. 13, no. 1, p. 17998, 2023.
- [8] A. T. Sheldon Jr., "Antiseptic 'Resistance': Real or Perceived Threat?," *Clin. Infect. Dis.*, vol. 40, no. 11, pp. 1650–1656, 2005.
- [9] M. Haque, M. Sartelli, J. McKimm, and M. A. Bakar, "Health Care-Associated Infections—An Overview," *Infect. Drug Resist.*, vol. 11, pp. 2321–2333, 2018.
- [10] S. M. Murtough, S. J. Hiom, M. Palmer, and A. D. Russell, "Biocide Rotation in the Healthcare Setting: Is There a Case for Policy Implementation?," *J. Hosp. Infect.*, vol. 48, no. 1, pp. 1–6, 2001.
- [11] S. Rouillon, S. Ourdanabia, S. Jamart, C. Hernandez, and O. Meunier, "Étude de l'Efficacité d'un Produit Détergent Désinfectant pour Sols et Surfaces sur les Souches Bactériennes Isolées à Partir de l'Environnement Hospitalier," *Pathol. Biol.*, vol. 54, no. 6, pp. 325–330, 2006.
- [12] S. Jaouhar, A. E. O. Lalami, J. Bouzid, I. Zeouk, and K. Bekhti, "Susceptibility Patterns of Bacteria Isolated from the Hospital Environment Towards Disinfectants Commonly Used for Surfaces and Medical Devices," in *E3S Web of Conferences*, vol. 319, p. 01081, EDP Sciences, 2021.
- [13] R. Amiyare, A. Esmail, Y. Ghanmi, and M. Ouhssine, "Evaluation de l'effet d'un Désinfectant à Base de Glutaraldehyde à 2% sur le Biofilm d'Acinetobacter Baumannii," *J. Nanomater.*, vol. 2018, Article ID 8950143, 9 pages, 2018.
- [14] T. Wassenaar, D. Ussery, L. Nielsen, and H. Ingmer, "Review and Phylogenetic Analysis of Qac Genes that Reduce Susceptibility to Quaternary Ammonium Compounds in Staphylococcus Species," *Eur. J. Microbiol. Immunol.*, vol. 5, no. 1, pp. 44–61, 2015.
- [15] M. Diduch, Ż. Polkowska, and J. Namieśnik, "The Role of Heterotrophic Plate Count Bacteria in Bottled Water Quality Assessment," *Food Control*, vol. 61, pp. 188–195, 2016.
- [16] F. Barbut and D. Neyme, "Les Difficultés d'Interprétation des Contrôles Microbiologiques Environnementaux," *Rev. Francophone Lab.*, no. 382, pp. 27–32, 2006.
- [17] L. Chaoui, R. Mhand, F. Mellouki, and N. Rhallabi, "Contamination of the Surfaces of a Health Care Environment by Multidrug-Resistant (MDR) Bacteria," *Int. J. Microbiol.*, vol. 2019, Article ID 3236526, 7 pages, 2019.
- [18] Organisation Mondiale de la Santé, *Prévention des Infections Nosocomiales 2ème Édition: Guide Pratique*, 2008. [Online]. Available: [https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/69751/WHO\\_CDS\\_CSR\\_EPH\\_2002.12\\_fre.pdf](https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/69751/WHO_CDS_CSR_EPH_2002.12_fre.pdf) (accessed on 15 October 2019).
- [19] J. M. Boyce, "Modern Technologies for Improving Cleaning and Disinfection of Environmental Surfaces in Hospitals," *Antimicrob. Resist. Infect. Control*, vol. 5, pp. 1–11, 2016.
- [20] J. S. Chapman, "Disinfectant Resistance Mechanisms, Cross-Resistance, and Co-Resistance," *Int. Biodeter. Biodegrad.*, vol. 51, no. 4, pp. 271–276, 2003.
- [21] O. O. Ayepola, L. O. Egwari, and G. I. Olasehinde, "Evaluation of Antimicrobial and Disinfectant Resistant Bacteria Isolated from the Environment of a University Health Centre," *Int. J. Infect. Dis.*, vol. 45S, pp. 1–477, 2016.
- [22] S. Langsrud, G. Sundheim, and R. Borgmann-Strahsen, "Intrinsic and Acquired Resistance to Quaternary Ammonium Compounds in Food-Related Pseudomonas Spp.," *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, vol. 95, pp. 874–882, 2003.
- [23] R. Datta, R. Platt, D. S. Yokoe, and S. S. Huang, "Environmental Cleaning Intervention and Risk of Acquiring Multidrug-Resistant Organisms from Prior Room Occupants," *Arch. Intern. Med.*, vol. 171, no. 6, pp. 491–494, 2011.
- [24] E. A. Grabsch, A. A. Mahony, D. R. M. Cameron, et al., "Significant Reduction in Vancomycin-Resistant Enterococcus Colonization and Bacteraemia after Introduction of a Bleach-Based Cleaning-Disinfection Programme," *J. Hosp. Infect.*, vol. 82, no. 4, pp. 234–242, 2012.
- [25] P. Araújo, M. Lemos, F. Mergulhão, L. Melo, and M. Simões, "Antimicrobial Resistance to Disinfectants in Biofilms," in *Science Against Microbial Pathogens: Communicating Current Research and Technological Advances*, vol. 3, pp. 826–834, 2011.

- 
- [26] M. Saccucci, E. Bruni, D. Uccelletti, et al., "Surface Disinfections: Present and Future," *J. Nanomater.*, vol. 2018, Article ID 8950143, 9 pages, 2018.
- [27] D. C. Esteves, V. C. Pereira, J. M. Souza, et al., "Influence of Biological Fluids in Bacterial Viability on Different Hospital Surfaces and Fomites," *Am. J. Infect. Control*, vol. 44, no. 3, pp. 311–314, 2016.
- [28] T. Takigawa and Y. Endo, "Effects of Glutaraldehyde Exposure on Human Health," *J. Occup. Health*, vol. 48, pp. 75–87, 2006.
- [29] S. M. Murtough, S. J. Hiom, P. Palmer, and A. D. Russell, "A Survey of Rotational Use of Biocides in Hospital Pharmacy Aseptic Units," *J. Hosp. Infect.*, vol. 50, pp. 228–231, 2002.
- [30] S. M. Murtough, S. J. Hiom, M. Palmer, and A. D. Russell, "Biocide Rotation in the Healthcare Setting: Is There a Case for Policy Implementation?," *J. Hosp. Infect.*, vol. 48, pp. 1–6, 2001.
- [31] N. L. Cowley, S. Forbes, A. Amézquita, P. McClure, G. J. Humphreys, and A. J. McBain, "Effects of Formulation on Microbicide Potency and Mitigation of the Development of Bacterial Insusceptibility," *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, vol. 81, pp. 7330–7338, 2015.
- [32] K. A. G. Karatzas, M. A. Webber, F. Jorgensen, M. J. Woodward, L. J. Piddock, and T. J. Humphrey, "Prolonged Treatment of *Salmonella* Enterica Serovar Typhimurium with Commercial Disinfectants Selects for Multiple Antibiotic Resistance, Increased Efflux and Reduced Invasiveness," *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.*, vol. 60, no. 5, pp. 947–955, 2007.