

# Reducing Healthcare-Associated Infections Through Integrated Control Measures

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## Abstract

### Background

Healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) affect 5-15% of hospitalized patients in high-income countries and up to 25% in low- and middle-income settings, driving excess mortality, antimicrobial resistance, and substantial costs. These infections span device-associated (e.g., CLABSI, CAUTI), surgical site infections, and those in ICUs, long-term care, and ambulatory settings, underscoring the need for integrated, multimodal infection prevention and control (IPC) strategies combining systems thinking, behavioral science, and evidence-based bundles.

### Methods

This review synthesizes evidence from systematic reviews, meta-analyses, point prevalence surveys, and implementation studies on multimodal IPC interventions, including WHO's eight core components, hand hygiene campaigns, device bundles, surveillance-feedback loops, and human factors approaches. It addresses HAI epidemiology, intervention effectiveness across settings, and frameworks for sustainability, targeting clinicians, infection preventionists, and policymakers.

### Results

Multimodal strategies yield 30-60% reductions in HAIs, with bundle compliance >95% eliminating CLABSI in some ICUs and boosting hand hygiene from <50% to >80%. Environmental innovations (e.g., UV-C disinfection) and tailored measures in high-risk populations (neonates, immunocompromised) curb MDROs and outbreaks, though barriers like staffing shortages and alert fatigue persist.

### Conclusions

Integrated IPC programs, emphasizing leadership, training, and real-time feedback, sustainably lower HAIs across care continuums. Future priorities include scalable tech-AI surveillance, equity-focused research in LMICs, and de-implementation of low-value practices to achieve near-zero HAIs.

**Keywords** Healthcare-associated infections, Infection prevention and control, Multimodal interventions, Hand hygiene, Care bundles.

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## Introduction

Healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) represent one of the most frequent and consequential adverse events in health systems worldwide, affecting hundreds of millions of patients each year and undermining the quality, safety, and equity of care across all income settings. HAIs are typically defined as infections that occur during the process of care in a hospital or other healthcare facility and were neither present nor incubating at the time of admission, encompassing both device-associated and procedure-related infections as well as infections in long-term care, ambulatory, and community-based services. Contemporary estimates suggest that between 5–15% of hospitalized patients in high-income countries and up to 25% or more in many low- and middle-income countries acquire at least one HAI, with point prevalence surveys in Europe alone indicating millions of cases and tens of thousands of attributable deaths annually. Beyond direct patient harm, HAIs erode public trust, drive antimicrobial resistance (AMR), and expose structural weaknesses in infection prevention and control (IPC) capacity, making them a critical priority for national health systems, global health security agendas, and organizations such as WHO, CDC, and ECDC that increasingly emphasize robust, integrated IPC programs as a cornerstone of safe universal health coverage. Against this backdrop, reducing HAIs through integrated control measures is not merely a technical challenge but a systems-level endeavor that links microbiology, clinical practice, human behavior, organizational design, and health policy in a continuously evolving epidemiological landscape (Raoofi et al., 2023).

Globally, the burden and epidemiology of HAIs are shaped by care setting, patient population, pathogen profile, and the maturity of IPC infrastructure, with systematic reviews demonstrating substantial heterogeneity but consistently high risk in intensive care units (ICUs), surgical wards, neonatal services, and long-term care facilities. Point prevalence surveys and meta-analyses suggest that HAIs affect roughly 4–8% of inpatients in high-income regions, but prevalence can exceed 15–20% in some low- and middle-income settings, reflecting crowding, shortages of trained staff, limited supplies, and weak surveillance systems. The most common syndromes include surgical site infections, ventilator-associated pneumonia, catheter-associated urinary tract infections, central line-associated bloodstream infections, and *Clostridioides difficile* infection, frequently caused by antimicrobial-resistant organisms such as methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), carbapenem-resistant Enterobacterales, and vancomycin-resistant Enterococci. Emerging evidence from long-term care and rehabilitation facilities also highlights a high incidence of HAIs among frail older adults, with substantial overlap between healthcare and community reservoirs, while global reports underscore that nearly one in four sepsis cases has a healthcare-associated origin and a large fraction involve resistant pathogens. These epidemiological patterns demonstrate that HAIs are not confined to acute-care hospitals but arise along a continuum of care, reinforcing the need for integrated, cross-setting strategies that couple surveillance and prevention across hospitals, long-term care, outpatient services, and public health (Ricchizzi et al., 2025).

Definitions and classifications of HAIs have evolved to capture this complexity, moving from a narrow focus on “nosocomial” infections in acute hospitals toward broader constructs such as healthcare-associated, device-associated, and procedure-related infections that span inpatient, outpatient, and long-term care environments. Standard definitions from organizations such as CDC and ECDC distinguish HAIs by timing (typically onset  $\geq 48$  hours after admission or within specific windows after procedures), site (e.g., bloodstream, urinary tract, respiratory tract, surgical site), and exposure (e.g., central line-associated, ventilator-associated, catheter-associated), enabling consistent surveillance and benchmarking across institutions and regions. Contemporary frameworks also recognize community-onset, healthcare-associated infections in patients with recent hospitalization, dialysis, surgery, or residence in long-term care, reflecting the permeability of boundaries between hospital and community and the shared reservoirs of resistant organisms. In addition, global burden assessments often stratify HAIs by pathogen group (Gram-negative bacilli, Gram-positive cocci, fungi, viruses), resistance profile, and vulnerability of host populations, while WHO’s global IPC report explicitly differentiates between HAIs and occupational infections among healthcare workers, both of which fall within the scope of IPC programs. Such refined classification schemes are essential for risk adjustment, resource allocation, and evaluating the impact of targeted interventions, but they also underscore that HAIs are

manifestations of broader system failures rather than isolated clinical events, reinforcing the rationale for integrated control measures (Carayon et al., 2014).

The consequences of HAIs extend far beyond individual episodes of infection, encompassing excess mortality, complications, prolonged length of stay, readmissions, high direct and indirect costs, acceleration of antimicrobial resistance, and profound effects on patient and family experience. Global analyses estimate that HAIs account for millions of additional hospital days annually, with European data alone indicating around 16 million extra days of hospitalization and tens of thousands of attributable deaths, while WHO reports that mortality among patients with resistant HAIs is two to three times higher than among those infected by susceptible pathogens. From a health economics perspective, HAIs generate substantial incremental costs due to additional diagnostics, therapeutic interventions, isolation, extended occupancy of high-cost beds such as ICU, and productivity losses, with the burden disproportionately borne by already constrained health systems in low- and middle-income countries. At the microbiological level, high antibiotic consumption in HAI management and empirical coverage for suspected HAIs amplify selection pressure for multidrug-resistant organisms, creating a vicious cycle in which resistant HAIs drive broader AMR and AMR, in turn, renders HAIs more severe, prolonged, and difficult to treat. Patient experience is also deeply affected, as HAIs are perceived as preventable “never events” associated with fear, pain, isolation, loss of trust, and long-term disability, making them central to ethical debates on nonmaleficence, transparency, and the duty of healthcare institutions to provide safe care. These wide-ranging consequences demonstrate that effective HAI prevention is simultaneously a clinical, economic, ethical, and public health imperative, and that piecemeal or single-point interventions are unlikely to deliver the magnitude or sustainability of impact required (Liu et al., 2022).

Evidence accumulated over the past two decades indicates that integrated, multimodal approaches to HAI reduction are consistently more effective and sustainable than single, stand-alone interventions, particularly when they align technical measures with behavioral, organizational, and cultural change. The WHO multimodal improvement strategy articulates five synergistic components (system change, training and education, evaluation and feedback, reminders in the workplace, and an institutional safety climate), and has been shown across multiple settings to improve adherence to key practices and reduce HAI rates more robustly than education or audit alone. Systematic reviews of multimodal IPC interventions demonstrate that bundled strategies combining evidence-based clinical practices (e.g., device bundles, environmental hygiene, antimicrobial stewardship) with performance feedback, leadership engagement, and frontline staff involvement achieve larger and more durable reductions in HAIs compared with singular activities, including in low-resource settings responding to threats such as COVID-19. For example, national programs that adopt multimodal hand hygiene campaigns, surveillance-linked feedback, and targeted bundles for central line-associated bloodstream infection or ventilator-associated pneumonia have reported reductions in infection incidence of 30–50% or more, accompanied by improved safety culture indicators and staff empowerment. Importantly, integrated approaches can be tailored to local context while preserving core elements of a systems-based strategy, providing a flexible template for sustainable HAI reduction across diverse healthcare environments (Kimani et al., 2022).

The theoretical and conceptual frameworks underpinning integrated HAI control increasingly draw on systems thinking, human factors engineering, and behavioral science, reflecting recognition that IPC performance emerges from the interaction of people, technologies, workflows, and organizational structures rather than from isolated guidelines. Systems thinking approaches, including the SEIPS (Systems Engineering Initiative for Patient Safety) model and related human factors frameworks, conceptualize healthcare as a complex socio-technical system in which work system elements (people, tasks, tools and technologies, physical environment, organization) jointly shape processes and outcomes, offering structured methods to identify latent conditions and redesign work to support infection-safe practices. Human factors engineering has contributed practical tools such as usability evaluation, process mapping, and design of visual cues or standardization that reduce cognitive load and make the “right” IPC behavior the path of least resistance, thereby improving adherence to hand hygiene, isolation precautions, and device care bundles. Parallel advances in behavioral science have introduced models that address social and cognitive determinants of IPC behavior, with interventions informed by mental models, social norms, and habit formation demonstrating enhanced impact compared with information-only strategies, particularly when layered within multimodal programs that

align incentives, feedback, and local champions. Systems thinking has also been applied to AMR, framing resistant HAIs as emergent phenomena linked to interconnected drivers across human health, animal health, and the environment, and calling for integrated, One Health-aligned IPC responses that span sectors and levels of care. Collectively, these frameworks provide the conceptual scaffolding for designing, implementing, and evaluating integrated HAI control measures that are technically sound, context-sensitive, and resilient to changing conditions (Mukherjee & Sahay, 2023).

The present review is designed to synthesize and critically appraise current evidence on reducing healthcare-associated infections through integrated, multimodal control measures, with a particular focus on how systems-oriented, human factors-informed, and behaviorally anchored strategies can be operationalized across diverse healthcare settings. Specifically, the review aims to address the following key questions: (1) What is the contemporary global burden and epidemiology of HAIs across different regions, care settings, and patient populations, and how does AMR modify this burden? (2) Which integrated or multimodal IPC interventions have demonstrated effectiveness in reducing HAIs and improving adherence to preventive practices, and under what contextual conditions? (3) How do systems thinking, human factors, and behavioral science frameworks inform the design, implementation, and sustainability of integrated IPC initiatives, including in low-resource and high-stress environments such as ICUs and outbreak settings? (4) What are the key gaps, challenges, and research priorities for scaling and sustaining integrated HAI control measures at facility, subnational, and national levels, particularly in the context of AMR, health emergencies, and equity considerations? The scope of the review encompasses acute-care hospitals, long-term care facilities, and selected ambulatory and community-based services, emphasizing adult and pediatric populations while acknowledging special considerations for neonatal and immunocompromised patients, and it is intended for clinicians, infection preventionists, nurses, allied health professionals, hospital epidemiologists, health system leaders, and policy-makers engaged in designing or strengthening IPC programs. By integrating epidemiological evidence, implementation experience, and conceptual advances, the review seeks to provide a comprehensive, interdisciplinary foundation for future practice, policy, and research aimed at sustainably reducing HAIs through integrated control measures (Mukherjee & Sahay, 2023).

### **Epidemiology Of HAIs**

Healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) are among the most frequent adverse events in health systems, affecting hundreds of millions of patients annually and exerting a disproportionate burden on low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), where limited resources, overcrowding, and gaps in basic infection prevention amplify incidence and severity compared with high-income settings. Point prevalence surveys and systematic reviews indicate that in high-income regions approximately 5–15% of hospitalized patients acquire at least one HAI, whereas the prevalence in LMIC hospitals can be several-fold higher, with intensive care units (ICUs) showing particularly elevated rates. Recent syntheses from adult inpatient populations highlight bloodstream infections (BSIs), urinary tract infections (UTIs), pneumonia, ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP), and surgical site infections (SSIs) as the dominant HAI syndromes, with invasive devices, surgery, and antimicrobial exposure consistently emerging as major risk factors. Regionally, European surveillance data show hospital-wide HAI prevalence typically in the range of 4.6–9.3%, while national reports from North America and other high-income settings report similar or slightly lower point prevalence but substantial incidence over time, underscoring how methodological heterogeneity and incomplete surveillance obscure the true global burden. Across all regions, HAIs drive prolonged hospital stays, long-term disability, greater antimicrobial resistance, increased direct healthcare costs, and catastrophic financial impacts for patients and families, placing HAI reduction at the center of global quality and patient safety agendas (Haque et al., 2018).

The distribution of HAIs varies substantially by healthcare setting, reflecting differences in patient acuity, device use, length of stay, and surveillance intensity across acute care, ICUs, long-term care facilities (LTCFs), ambulatory and dialysis units, and home-care services. In acute care hospitals, point prevalence surveys commonly report that 4–7% of inpatients have at least one HAI on a given day, but in ICUs the proportion of patients with HAIs may reach 20–37%, and incidence densities exceed 5–10 HAI episodes per 1,000 patient-days, especially when stratified by device use. European ICU networks show mean bloodstream infection incidence densities of approximately 5.9 episodes per 1,000 patient-days, with a high proportion associated with central lines, while device-adjusted rates emphasize the intense risk environment created by mechanical ventilation, central venous catheters, and urinary

catheters. In LTCFs HAI prevalence is lower than in ICUs but still clinically significant, with repeated surveys demonstrating around 3–7% of residents affected at a point in time and respiratory, urinary, and skin/soft-tissue infections being most common, often compounded by high antimicrobial use and limited on-site diagnostics. Ambulatory care and dialysis centers contribute an important but often under-measured share of HAIs through procedure-associated infections, vascular access–related BSIs, and transmission of multidrug-resistant organisms (MDROs), while home healthcare and community nursing introduce new ecological niches where device care, wound management, and caregiver practices influence infection risk beyond traditional institutional boundaries (Ripabelli et al., 2019). Device- and procedure-associated infections account for a substantial fraction of the HAI burden and are central targets for surveillance and prevention initiatives, particularly in ICUs and surgical services. Central line–associated bloodstream infections (CLABSI), catheter-associated urinary tract infections (CAUTIs), ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP), and a broad spectrum of SSIs collectively dominate attributable HAI morbidity and mortality, with case fatality estimates for CLABSI and VAP often exceeding 10–15% in some cohorts, compared with lower but still meaningful fatality rates for CAUTI and many SSIs. Large analyses drawing on surveillance data suggest that SSIs contribute roughly one-third of total HAI-attributable costs, followed by VAP, CLABSI, *Clostridioides difficile* infections (CDI), and then CAUTI, reflecting differences in LOS prolongation, intensity of care, and downstream complications. Device-utilization ratios in ICUs, particularly under pandemic or surge conditions, strongly correlate with HAI incidence densities, with recent reports during and after the COVID-19 era documenting increases in standardized infection ratios for CLABSI, CAUTI, ventilator-associated events, and MRSA bacteremia that appear linked to higher patient acuity, longer device dwell times, reduced staffing, and disrupted adherence to bundles. Procedures outside ICU environments also generate significant procedure-associated infection risks, but the magnitude of their contribution is often under-estimated because surveillance concentrates on a limited set of “traditional” HAIs, prompting calls to expand the conceptualization to include non-traditional and emerging healthcare-associated infections across the continuum of care (Al-Tawfiq, 2025).

The pathogen profile of HAIs reflects a dynamic interplay between local ecology, antimicrobial use patterns, and infection prevention performance, with a persistent trend toward MDROs and emerging pathogens that complicate treatment and containment. Historically, HAIs have been dominated by organisms such as *Staphylococcus aureus* (including MRSA), coagulase-negative staphylococci, *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella* species, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Enterococcus* species, and *C. difficile*, but the rise of extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) producers, carbapenem-resistant *Enterobacterales* (CRE), carbapenem-resistant *Acinetobacter* and *Pseudomonas*, and vancomycin-resistant enterococci (VRE) has transformed the clinical and public health impact of HAIs. Among neonates and infants, Gram-negative sepsis due to organisms such as *Klebsiella*, *Acinetobacter*, and ESBL-producing *E. coli* frequently exhibits multidrug-resistant phenotypes, with some series reporting MDR prevalence approaching or exceeding 80–90%, significantly increasing mortality risk and constraining empiric therapy choices. In immunocompromised children and adults MDRO BSIs and invasive infections linked to prior broad-spectrum antibiotic exposure, critical illness, prolonged hospitalization, and residence in long-term care facilities are increasingly recognized, and inappropriate initial empiric therapy in this context may triple mortality risk. Emerging HAI-related threats extend beyond classical bacterial pathogens to include viral and fungal agents such as influenza, SARS-CoV-2, respiratory syncytial virus, and invasive *Candida* spp. or molds in high-risk units, as well as novel or re-emerging organisms that exploit lapses in infection control or colonize new devices and care models, reinforcing the need for integrated antimicrobial stewardship and adaptive surveillance strategies (Dutta & Flores, 2018).

Vulnerable populations and high-risk clinical areas experience disproportionate HAI burden due to intrinsic host factors, intensive exposure to devices and procedures, and cumulative healthcare contact over time. Neonates, especially preterm and low-birthweight infants in neonatal ICUs, face high rates of late-onset sepsis driven by invasive procedures, immature immunity, and environmental colonization, with MDR Gram-negative pathogens causing a large share of these infections and markedly increasing mortality. Pediatric and adult oncology patients and hematopoietic stem cell transplant recipients are similarly vulnerable because of mucosal barrier injury, neutropenia, and prolonged immunosuppression, leading to high incidence of bacterial, viral, and fungal HAIs that impose substantial quality-of-life and

economic burdens and require tailored prophylaxis and environmental controls. Older adults in LTCFs, residents of rehabilitation centers, and patients with chronic comorbidities such as diabetes, chronic kidney disease on dialysis, chronic lung disease, or advanced heart failure accumulate repeated exposures to catheters, dialysis access, and broad-spectrum antimicrobials, enhancing both colonization and infection with MDROs and driving frequent readmissions with healthcare-associated BSIs, pneumonias, and UTIs. High-risk clinical environments combine frail hosts, high device utilization, frequent antibiotic use, and complex workflows, creating ecological “hotspots” where small lapses in infection prevention can trigger outbreaks and where integrated, multimodal control strategies are essential to move toward ambitious targets such as “zero” traditional and non-traditional HAIs (Solomon et al., 2021).

### **Core Elements of Infection Prevention and Control**

National and facility-level IPC program components form the foundational framework for reducing healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) through structured, evidence-based strategies that integrate governance, guidelines, training, surveillance, multimodal interventions, monitoring, and infrastructure support. The World Health Organization (WHO) delineates eight core components essential for effective IPC programs, including dedicated IPC programs at both national and acute healthcare facility levels, evidence-based IPC guidelines, comprehensive education and training for healthcare workers, robust HAI surveillance systems, implementation of multimodal strategies to promote adherence, ongoing monitoring and auditing of IPC practices with feedback, optimization of workload, staffing, and bed occupancy to prevent overburdening, and provision of built environments, materials, and equipment conducive to IPC. These components are interdependent and require national oversight to develop policies, allocate resources, and monitor compliance, while facility-level programs adapt them to local contexts, such as establishing hospital infection control committees (HICCs) with defined roles for action planning, guideline revision, training organization, antimicrobial stewardship, surveillance, compliance assessment, and outbreak investigation. Implementation at both levels has demonstrated reductions in HAI rates, with national programs providing regulatory frameworks and facility programs ensuring operational execution, ultimately contributing to safer patient care and containment of antimicrobial resistance (Storr et al., 2017).

IPC infrastructure encompasses governance, leadership, staffing, and funding as critical pillars that enable sustained infection prevention efforts by providing organizational structure, accountability, and resources necessary for program success. Effective governance involves clear leadership from hospital executives and dedicated infection preventionists, with recommended staffing ratios such as one full-time equivalent infection preventionist per 100-250 beds, supported by adequate funding for training, surveillance tools, and infrastructure improvements like hand hygiene stations and isolation rooms. Leadership must prioritize IPC in strategic planning, integrate it into risk management, and foster a culture of safety, while multidisciplinary teams including epidemiologists, pharmacists, and microbiologists collaborate under hospital leadership to address workload pressures and ensure compliance with standards. Deficiencies in these elements, such as understaffing or insufficient budgets, correlate with higher HAI rates, underscoring the need for dedicated resources and executive commitment to build resilient IPC systems (Bryant et al., 2016).

Infection control teams (ICTs) and link nurses or champions serve as vital on-the-ground implementers, bridging central IPC expertise with ward-level practices to enhance guideline adherence and reduce HAIs through education, surveillance, and peer influence. ICTs, typically comprising infection preventionists, physicians, and nurses, oversee program implementation, outbreak investigations, and multimodal strategies, with evidence showing their effectiveness in lowering HAI incidence when augmented by link nurses, who act as ward-based advocates trained to educate peers, monitor compliance, and facilitate early outbreak detection. Link nurses, often clinically experienced and voluntarily selected for their motivation and assertiveness, perform roles including role modeling, auditing, surveillance, and disseminating knowledge on topics like hand hygiene and catheter care, with programs providing initial training (1-10 days) followed by regular meetings for skill-building in change management and implementation. Systematic reviews indicate short-term improvements in practices like hand hygiene compliance and reductions in MRSA or CLABSI rates attributable to these

networks, though sustained impact requires management support, time allocation (e.g., 8 hours weekly), and networking to overcome barriers like high workload and physician resistance (Dekker et al., 2019). Surveillance systems and feedback mechanisms are indispensable for detecting HAIs, tracking trends, and driving continuous improvement by providing actionable data to prioritize interventions and evaluate program efficacy. Standardized surveillance, aligned with WHO or national protocols, involves prospective monitoring of key HAIs like central line-associated bloodstream infections or catheter-associated urinary tract infections, using electronic health records for automation to enhance accuracy, timeliness, and efficiency over manual methods, with pooled sensitivities of 54-100% and specificities of 63-100% for AI-assisted detection. Feedback loops disseminate findings through regular reports to healthcare workers, leadership, and committees, fostering behavioral change via multimodal strategies that include tailored education and audits, while evaluation assesses surveillance impact on HAI reduction and program adjustments. Robust systems not only quantify HAIs but also measure process metrics like hand hygiene adherence, enabling targeted responses that have proven effective in decreasing infection burdens in diverse settings (Cozzolino et al., 2025).

Standard and transmission-based precautions constitute the bedrock of IPC, mandating universal practices like hand hygiene, personal protective equipment use, safe sharps handling, aseptic techniques, environmental cleaning, and linen management for all patients, supplemented by targeted contact, droplet, or airborne precautions based on transmission modes. These precautions interrupt pathogen spread by addressing source, transmission routes, and host susceptibility, with standard precautions applied routinely regardless of infection status and transmission-based measures added for known or suspected cases, such as gowns and gloves for contact precautions or N95 masks for airborne pathogens. Consistent implementation via education, auditing, and resource provision yields substantial HAI reductions, forming the cornerstone of multimodal strategies that integrate with surveillance and leadership for comprehensive control (Takaya et al., 2020).

### **Hand Hygiene and Environmental Measures**

Hand hygiene stands as the cornerstone of integrated infection control measures in healthcare settings, serving as the primary defense against the transmission of healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) due to healthcare workers' hands being the most common vehicle for pathogen spread from patient to patient and across the environment. Extensive evidence underscores its pivotal role in curbing antimicrobial resistance and reducing HAI incidence, with studies demonstrating that optimal hand hygiene practices can virtually eradicate transient carriage of pathogens like methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) on healthcare personnel hands, leading to measurable declines in infection rates even in high-risk intensive care units. Despite this, compliance remains suboptimal globally, often below 50% in many facilities, necessitating sustained promotion efforts to embed it as a non-negotiable core measure within multifaceted strategies; for instance, controlled trials have shown significant reductions in HAI outcomes, including *Klebsiella* species transmission, following enhanced adherence, highlighting hand hygiene's unmatched simplicity, cost-effectiveness, and efficacy as the single most important intervention for HAI prevention (Mathur, 2025).

Multimodal hand hygiene improvement strategies, as championed by the World Health Organization (WHO), integrate system changes, training/education, performance monitoring with feedback, workplace reminders, and safety culture cultivation to drive sustained compliance gains, proving far superior to isolated interventions like education alone. These strategies have yielded compliance increases from as low as 12.6% to over 55% in diverse settings, including nursing homes and hospitals, correlating with dramatic HAI reductions while also curbing glove misuse and fostering behavioral shifts among all healthcare worker types. Implementation toolkits, including the WHO's five-pillar approach with alcohol-based hand rubs (ABHR) at the point-of-care, enable adaptability across resource-limited environments, generating economic savings up to 16-fold the investment by preventing up to 50% of avoidable HAIs, with direct observations combined with automated monitoring emerging as optimal for accurate adherence measurement and continuous improvement (Mathur, 2025).

Environmental cleaning and disinfection programs form an essential complement to hand hygiene, targeting high-touch surfaces that harbor nosocomial pathogens like *Clostridium difficile*, MRSA, and vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus*, where manual methods often fall short, leaving contamination that

fuels HAIs. Sustained enhancements in these programs, through standardized protocols and audits, have achieved 70-75% reductions in hospital-onset *C. difficile* and overall HAI rates over a decade in community hospitals, with pragmatic trials confirming that while disinfectants match soap-based cleaning in non-ICU wards (incidence densities ~2.2-2.3 per 1000 exposure days), probiotic alternatives offer environmentally friendly equivalence without compromising efficacy. Integrating daily and terminal cleaning with bioburden monitoring addresses persistent reservoirs, proving indispensable for breaking transmission chains in routine and outbreak scenarios alike (Parry et al., 2022).

Healthcare infrastructure plays a critical enabling role in hand hygiene and environmental control, encompassing accessible sinks with safe water supplies, strategic ABHR dispensers at point-of-care, adequate ventilation to minimize airborne contaminants, and premise plumbing systems free from biofilms that amplify pathogen persistence. Studies reveal that sink components like faucet aerators serve as reservoirs for antibiotic-resistant organisms (AROs), with heterotrophic plate counts varying significantly (up to  $10^4$  CFU/mL) based on design, underscoring the need for aerator-free fixtures, regular flushing, and water quality monitoring below EPA guidelines (<500 CFU/mL) to prevent HAI-linked outbreaks. Proper infrastructure not only boosts compliance by removing barriers but also integrates with ventilation and plumbing maintenance to create holistic environments that sustain low bioburden, as evidenced by higher ARO percentages in patient-room sinks versus staff areas due to selective pressures from waste disposal (Dancer & King, 2021).

Emerging technologies, including UV-C light devices, vaporized hydrogen peroxide (HPV) systems, and automated monitoring platforms, augment traditional measures by providing "no-touch" room decontamination, achieving superior microbial reduction on surfaces where manual cleaning fails. Clinical trials demonstrate these tools significantly lower HAIs, with UV-C systems like UVCeel using AI, sensors, and precise dosing for rapid, residue-free disinfection in pediatric and neonatal units, while HPV eradicates key pathogens in outbreak settings; systematic reviews confirm multimodal adoption reduces cross-transmission without disrupting workflows. Automated hand hygiene sensors paired with direct observation refine compliance tracking, and self-disinfecting surfaces show promise, positioning these innovations as scalable adjuncts for resource-strapped facilities aiming for near-zero HAI environments (Dancer & King, 2021).

### **Device- And Procedure-Related Bundles**

Care bundles represent a structured approach to infection prevention, consisting of three to five evidence-based interventions implemented concurrently to achieve superior outcomes compared to isolated measures, as pioneered by the Institute for Healthcare Improvement for critical care challenges like ventilator-associated pneumonia and central line infections. This concept leverages the synergistic effect of reliable, high-compliance practices where full bundle adherence (typically  $\geq 95\%$ ) yields statistically significant reductions in healthcare-associated infections (HAIs), with meta-analyses showing up to 60% decreases in central line-associated bloodstream infections (CLABSI) in neonatal and adult intensive care units (ICUs). The evidence base stems from large-scale collaboratives like the Keystone ICU project, which demonstrated sustained CLABSI reductions through bundled practices, and national surveillance data confirming that bundles outperform single interventions when compliance exceeds 75%, though variability persists due to implementation challenges in real-world settings outside controlled trials (Furuya et al., 2016).

Central line-associated bloodstream infection (CLABSI) prevention bundles, comprising hand hygiene, maximal sterile barriers, chlorhexidine gluconate antisepsis, optimal site selection (subclavian preferred over femoral in adults), and daily line necessity review, have transformed ICU practices, with national U.S. data from nearly 1,000 adult ICUs showing  $\geq 95\%$  compliance with all five elements linked to a 33% CLABSI rate reduction (incidence rate ratio 0.67, 95% CI 0.59-0.77), even as single-element excellence yields 23% drops. Multivariable analyses control for confounders like ICU type and resources, revealing no benefit from written policies alone or partial compliance (<75%), but emphasizing bundle synergy, as seen in coronary ICUs achieving zero CLABSI over 757 days post-implementation via simulation training and real-time audits. Compliance challenges remain, with only 20% of ICUs reporting full excellence, yet even one high-fidelity element trends protective, underscoring bundles' role in national HAI declines (46% from 2008-2013) (Lietzén et al., 2011).



Ventilator-associated events (VAEs) and pneumonia (VAP) bundles target elevation of the head of the bed (30-45°), daily sedation vacations and spontaneous breathing trials, peptic ulcer prophylaxis, venous thromboembolism prevention, and oral care with chlorhexidine, evolving from VAP-specific to broader VAE surveillance to capture noninfectious complications, with meta-analyses confirming reduced VAP episodes (OR 0.42, 95% CI 0.33-0.54) and mechanical ventilation duration alongside shorter ICU stays when bundled with education. Ordinal logistic models show bundle compliance halves VAE odds (OR -1.19, 95% CI -2.01 to -0.38), particularly infection-related ventilator-associated complications (IVACs) and possible VAPs (PVAPs), though effects on ventilator-associated conditions (VACs) vary; highest reductions occur with Institute for Healthcare Improvement (IHI) bundles plus subglottic suctioning and cuff pressure maintenance. Sustained implementation via multidisciplinary teams and compliance tracking yields zero-VAP periods, but transitions to VAE metrics highlight noninfectious contributors, reinforcing bundles' multifaceted impact (Martinez-Reviejo et al., 2023). Catheter-associated urinary tract infection (CAUTI) prevention bundles emphasize aseptic insertion, daily necessity reviews, alternatives to indwelling catheters, proper maintenance (securement, closed drainage), and timely removal, achieving 73% incidence reductions (from 5.4 to 1.41 per 1,000 catheter-days) in ICUs through nurse-driven protocols boosting compliance from 56% to 93%, alongside 41% drops in catheter-days per patient. Systematic reviews and meta-analyses affirm bundles' efficacy, especially in older adults, lowering utilization (71% to 63%) and duration while curbing multidrug-resistant pathogens; nurse-led education and audits sustain gains, with multimodal strategies integrating bundles reducing overall HAIs. Compliance  $\geq 95\%$  mirrors CLABSI/VAP successes, though challenges like device necessity persist, yet bundles outperform isolated hygiene, evidenced by stable utilization amid plummeting rates (Chau et al., 2023).

Surgical site infection (SSI) prevention bundles incorporate perioperative elements like MRSA screening/decolonization, preoperative showering, clipper hair removal, timely antibiotic prophylaxis (within 60 minutes pre-incision), chlorhexidine-alcohol skin prep, normothermia maintenance (including preoperative warming), incise drapes, supplemental oxygen, and glycemic control, with interrupted time-series meta-analyses showing level changes of -1.16 SSI events (95% CI -1.78 to -0.53) for colorectal procedures, though randomized trials display heterogeneity. Larger bundles (more interventions) do not amplify effects unless enriched with evidence-based components (e.g., preoperative warming reducing SSIs from 28% to 10%,  $p=0.032$ ), and high-impact interventions like the UK's DH HII bundle yield mixed results due to baseline compliance (e.g., 19% full adherence post-implementation). Propensity-matched colorectal cohorts report superficial SSI drops (19.3% to 5.7%,  $p<0.001$ ) and sepsis reductions, attributing gains to additive fidelity across phases; bundles excel in high-risk surgeries when multidisciplinary (Wolfhagen et al., 2022).

Integrating bundles into routine workflows demands multidisciplinary champions, Plan-Do-Study-Act cycles, simulation training, and real-time monitoring via direct observation or electronic checklists, which visualize compliance (e.g., ICU "Bundle Boards" displaying device observations) and trigger alerts, sustaining  $\geq 95\%$  adherence as in zero-CLABSI units with 100% bundle fidelity over years. Electronic health record-embedded checklists automate prompts for daily reviews and necessity assessments, reducing cognitive burden while feeding surveillance dashboards with machine learning analytics for deviations, as IoT-integrated systems track hand hygiene and vitals in real-time. National efforts like Matching Michigan emphasize "all-or-nothing" scoring with feedback loops, yielding 60%+ CLABSI/VAP reductions; barriers like staff silos dissolve through PDSA iterations and education, ensuring scalability beyond ICUs (Furuya et al., 2016).

### Special Settings and Populations

Intensive care units (ICUs) and high-dependency units (HDUs) represent high-risk environments for healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) due to the concentration of critically ill patients requiring invasive devices such as central venous catheters, mechanical ventilation, and urinary catheters, which serve as entry points for pathogens, compounded by factors like immunosuppression, prolonged length of stay, and frequent staff-patient interactions that facilitate transmission. Integrated control measures in these settings emphasize multimodal strategies, including rigorous hand hygiene protocols, evidence-based catheter bundles (encompassing insertion checklists, chlorhexidine gluconate skin antisepsis, and daily review for necessity), ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP) prevention through elevation of the

head of the bed, oral chlorhexidine washes, and subglottic secretion drainage, alongside antimicrobial stewardship programs to curb multidrug-resistant organism (MDRO) emergence, daily chlorhexidine bathing for high-risk patients, and environmental cleaning with sporicidal agents to target *Clostridium difficile* and other resilient pathogens. Recent advancements highlight the role of real-time surveillance systems using electronic health records for early detection of clusters, multidisciplinary rounds incorporating infection preventionists, and decolonization protocols with nasal mupirocin and chlorhexidine for *Staphylococcus aureus* carriers, achieving reductions in central line-associated bloodstream infections (CLABSI) by up to 50% and VAP rates by 35-55% in resource-constrained settings through quality improvement projects that ensure bundle compliance exceeding 95%, while post-COVID adaptations stress source control via high-efficiency particulate air (HEPA) filtration and negative pressure rooms for airborne threats. Ongoing challenges include MDROs like carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae, necessitating pre-emptive isolation based on admission screening and rapid diagnostic tools such as multiplex PCR for guiding empirical therapy, with studies underscoring that tailored vertical strategies against local epidemiology, combined with horizontal precautions like contact isolation and dedicated equipment, yield sustained HAI declines without fostering resistance (Mazzeffi et al., 2021).

Long-term care facilities (LTCFs) and rehabilitation units face unique HAI burdens from aging, multimorbid residents with reduced mobility, indwelling devices, and communal living that amplifies respiratory tract infections (RTIs, 33.6% prevalence), urinary tract infections (UTIs, 38.9%), and skin/soft tissue infections (SSTIs, 23.7%), with point prevalence rates around 3.5-4.0% globally, exacerbated by staffing shortages, shared bathrooms, and delayed symptom recognition in cognitively impaired patients. Effective integrated measures draw from WHO's eight core components, prioritizing IPC programs with leadership commitment, standardized guidelines for UTI prevention via scheduled toileting and avoidance of unnecessary catheters, hand hygiene campaigns using alcohol-based rubs at point-of-care, and staff training via multimodal strategies including audits, feedback, and simulation-based education to boost compliance from 40% to over 80%. In rehabilitation settings, where tracheal intubation, mechanical ventilation, and glucocorticoids heighten risks, targeted interventions include ward-specific surveillance revealing variability in infection rates, bundle adherence for ventilator care, and environmental modifications like single rooms for high-risk patients, alongside oral hygiene protocols with chlorhexidine to prevent aspiration pneumonia, resulting in significant morbidity reductions and economic savings through decreased antibiotic use and hospitalizations. Lean Six Sigma methodologies have proven instrumental in identifying workflow bottlenecks, such as inadequate cleaning frequencies, leading to corrective actions like optimized nurse-patient ratios and real-time digital dashboards for HAI tracking, while outbreak responses incorporate mass testing and cohorting, ensuring resilience against seasonal RTIs and emerging threats like SARS-CoV-2 variants in congregate settings (Bennett et al., 2024).

Outpatient, ambulatory, dialysis, and home care settings demand tailored HAI prevention due to repeated vascular access, community pathogen influx, and less structured oversight, with dialysis patients experiencing 43% higher infection hospitalization rates over decades from access-related bacteremias caused by *Staphylococcus* species, peritonitis in peritoneal dialysis, and viral transmissions like hepatitis. Integrated strategies encompass staff vaccination mandates (influenza, hepatitis B), patient education on exit-site care using mupirocin prophylaxis and daily chlorhexidine washes, multimodal bundles for hemodialysis including maximal sterile barriers during catheter insertion, cinacalcet to reduce parathyroidectomy-related infections, and human factors engineering to address ergonomic barriers like poor handwashing station placement in busy clinics. In home dialysis, structured training programs for patients and caregivers emphasize modifiable risk mitigation by reducing peritonitis by 30-50%, complemented by telehealth surveillance for early vascular access dysfunction detection and remote adherence monitoring via apps. Ambulatory innovations include pre-procedure chlorhexidine showers, single-use device policies, and post-exposure prophylaxis algorithms, achieving zero outbreaks in some networks through macroergonomic audits aligning workflows with infection prevention, while national agendas coordinate vascular access stewardship to prioritize arteriovenous fistulas over catheters, underscoring the shift toward patient-empowered, decentralized care without compromising safety (Gupta et al., 2013).

Maternal, neonatal, and pediatric settings require nuanced HAI controls attuned to developmental vulnerabilities, with neonatal ICUs (NICUs) reporting high late-onset sepsis from coagulase-negative staphylococci via skin flora translocation during device handling, and maternal wards facing endometritis/chorioamnionitis from group B *Streptococcus*, alongside pediatric RTIs and CLABSI amplified by immature immunity and prolonged hospitalizations. Bundles like S-A-F-H (Screening, Antibiotics, Feeding, Hand hygiene) in NICUs have slashed rates by enhancing compliance through multidisciplinary teams involving neonatologists, nurses, and microbiologists, incorporating kangaroo mother care to bolster immunity, delayed cord clamping, and zero-horizontal positioning for very low birthweight infants, yielding 16% incidence drops via root-cause analyses addressing knowledge gaps. Pediatric protocols integrate WHO multimodal hand hygiene with play-based education, chlorhexidine skin antisepsis from birth (excluding preterm <1000g), and maternal GBS screening with intrapartum antibiotics, while rehabilitation extensions emphasize enteral feeding hygiene and mobility aids disinfection; low-resource adaptations prioritize simple interventions like 4% chlorhexidine umbilical cord care reducing omphalitis by 40%, bundled with early discharge planning and family IPC training. Surveillance harmonization across units facilitates benchmarking, with infection control teams achieving 35-55% HAI reductions via feedback loops and stewardship, mitigating AMR in vulnerable populations through judicious empiric therapy guided by local antibiograms (Kallimath et al., 2024). Immunocompromised patients in transplant units and oncology wards endure amplified HAI risks from neutropenia, mucositis, graft-versus-host disease, and indwelling lines, with stem cell transplant cohorts facing 35-40 HAIs per 1000 neutropenia days from Gram-negative bacteremias, fungal invasions, and viral reactivations like cytomegalovirus. Integrated measures feature neutropenic precautions with low-microbial diets, HEPA-filtered rooms, and twice-daily chlorhexidine baths, alongside pre-transplant decolonization (mupirocin nasal 5 days, chlorhexidine body washes), central line bundles with antimicrobial-impregnated catheters, and daily line necessity reviews reducing CLABSI by 50%; oncology-specific protocols include *Pneumocystis jirovecii* prophylaxis with trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, antifungal stewardship via biomarkers like galactomannan, and contact isolation for MDRO-colonized patients identified via admission rectal swabs. Multifaceted interventions have curbed outbreaks, with quality improvement showing no CAUTI/CLABSI differences post-implementation in high-risk hematology but sustained declines via ICLN systems linking bedside staff to experts. Post-transplant vigilance extends to home care transitions with caregiver training on fever thresholds and wound care, emphasizing antimicrobial stewardship to preserve options amid rising MDROs like vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus* (Bobbitt et al., 2022).

### **Challenges, Barriers, and Unintended Consequences**

Organizational, behavioral, and resource barriers significantly impede the integration of infection prevention and control (IPC) measures in healthcare settings, often manifesting as heavy workloads from staff shortages, inadequate teamwork across interdisciplinary teams, and limited hospital management support that fragments communication and undermines collaborative efforts essential for effective IPC. Behavioral challenges compound these issues, with healthcare workers facing insufficient knowledge of IPC principles, lack of formal training, and low self-efficacy due to unskilled or negligent staffing, while resource constraints like limited availability of infection control supplies and high workload pressures further erode adherence to guidelines, particularly in intensive care units where emergent workflows exacerbate perceived impracticality of protocols. These interconnected systemic factors create a vicious cycle, where defective professional infrastructures and poor organizational leadership not only hinder consistent guideline implementation but also perpetuate substandard care, as evidenced by qualitative studies highlighting how fragmented interdepartmental cooperation and inadequate refresher courses lead to persistent gaps in IPC practice across diverse healthcare environments (Rezaee et al., 2025).

Competing priorities among clinical demands, alert fatigue from excessive electronic health record notifications, and the substantial implementation burden of multifaceted IPC protocols represent critical hurdles that dilute focus and sustainability of integrated strategies aimed at reducing healthcare-associated infections (HAIs). Alert fatigue arises from cognitive overload due to high volumes of interruptive alerts leading to desensitization and override rates as high as 90% for low-value repeated

notifications, compounded by work complexity such as patient comorbidities and the effort required to discern informative signals amid noise, which systematically erodes provider responsiveness. Implementation burdens are amplified by time constraints and increased workloads (reported by 6.1% of workers as primary barriers), where competing clinical priorities force adaptations or non-adherence, as seen in integrated primary care models where brief visit durations and provider skill gaps limit evidence-based intervention delivery, ultimately perpetuating HAI risks through diminished fidelity to core practices like hand hygiene and surveillance (Ancker et al., 2017).

Potential unintended consequences of rigorous IPC integration include over-isolation practices that prolong patient recovery and increase psychological harm, alongside staff burnout from sustained stress, heavy caregiving demands, and moral injury from errors, which collectively undermine care quality and elevate HAI rates. Over-isolation, driven by precautionary protocols, can lead to deconditioning and higher mortality in vulnerable populations, while burnout manifests as depersonalization, reduced protocol adherence, and higher medical errors, with nurse staffing shortages mediating a direct link to infection spread through fatigue-induced lapses in horizontal prevention measures. These consequences form a feedback loop, where burnout diminishes productivity, prolongs patient stays, and erodes safety culture, as longitudinal data show higher HAI incidence in facilities with elevated staff exhaustion, emphasizing the need for balanced interventions that mitigate emotional toll without compromising efficacy (Cimiotti et al., 2012).

Ethical and equity considerations in IPC policies and resource allocation demand careful navigation of tensions between utilitarian efficiency, prioritarian focus on vulnerable groups, and principles like reciprocity, transparency, and justice, particularly when scarce supplies and personnel force prioritization may marginalize underserved populations. Frameworks such as accountability for reasonableness and multi-criteria decision analysis strive to balance cost-effectiveness with equity, yet persistent disparities in access raise dilemmas in allocating protective equipment or surveillance tools during crises, where overemphasis on high-burden HAIs can inadvertently neglect chronic care needs. Transparent, inclusive processes involving public dialogue are essential to build trust, as ethical lapses in equitable distribution during events like COVID-19 highlighted how failing to incorporate marginalized voices perpetuates health inequities, underscoring the imperative for IPC policies that embed stewardship and proportionality to ensure fair outcomes across socio-economic strata (O'Sullivan et al., 2022).

### **Future Directions and Research Priorities**

Priority research questions on integrated IPC strategies must target underexplored gaps, such as the long-term efficacy of multimodal bundles in low-resource settings, the scalability of tailored interventions across care continuums, and the mediators of compliance like attitudes and barrier perceptions that indirectly influence practice through structural equation modeling. Investigations should prioritize comparative effectiveness of first- and second-order implementation strategies, including how IPC teams as both providers and recipients can be empowered via training and feedback to enhance clinician adherence, while addressing contextual variations in neonatal ICUs and home healthcare where traditional models falter. Robust designs incorporating real-world heterogeneity, such as hybrid trials blending efficacy with dissemination, will clarify optimal bundles for diverse HAIs like surgical site and urinary tract infections, informing adaptive protocols that evolve with pathogen dynamics (Yee et al., 2021).

A pressing need exists for robust implementation and health services research to bridge evidence-practice gaps in IPC, emphasizing quality improvement projects that integrate support systems, training, and behavioral nudges to boost hand hygiene compliance and reduce HAIs by up to 50% in African facilities through multimodal strategies. Health services studies should evaluate de-implementation of outdated alerts, workforce engagement via social support, and economic analyses of scalable tools like WHO's core components, which succeed when paired with organizational culture shifts and point-of-care behavioral change. Prioritizing mixed-methods approaches will reveal facilitators like leadership buy-in and barriers like capacity deficits, enabling tailored frameworks that sustain gains beyond pilots,

particularly in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) where evidence remains sparse (Tomczyk et al., 2021).

Global collaborations, networks, and data platforms play a pivotal role in advancing IPC by harmonizing surveillance through alliances like the International Pathogen Surveillance Network (IPSN) and Pasteur Network, which enhance outbreak detection via shared genomic sequencing and AI-driven pattern recognition across borders. Initiatives such as the Global Infection Prevention and Control Network (GIPCN) foster capacity-building in LMICs, promoting equitable data-sharing frameworks and real-time platforms that integrate multimodal data for predictive analytics, reducing disparities in HAI burdens. Multicenter validations and interdisciplinary partnerships will standardize metrics, accelerate response to emerging threats, and democratize access to innovations, ensuring resilient systems through collective intelligence rather than siloed efforts (Fanning et al., 2021).

Opportunities for innovation abound in technology like AI models achieving AUC >0.80 for HAI prediction, behavioral interventions leveraging consumer IT for equity-focused nudges, and policy reforms embedding explainable AI with clinician training to combat surveillance gaps. Advances in automation for objective HAI rates, non-real-time frameworks for LMICs, and persuasive digital designs tailored to disparity populations promise transformative shifts, while policy foresight integrates interoperability and measurement-informed care. Future efforts should prioritize cost-effectiveness trials, user-friendly interfaces, and hybrid tech-behavioral bundles to scale impact, fostering a proactive ecosystem that anticipates threats through genomic integration and global data ecosystems (van der Werff et al., 2025).

### **The role of radiology technician**

Radiology technicians play an essential role in preventing healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) within diagnostic and imaging departments, where frequent patient turnover and equipment contact make infection control critical. Their responsibilities include rigorous disinfection of imaging devices such as X-ray machines, CT gantries, ultrasound probes, and MRI coils after each use, using standardized cleaning agents and protective barriers to prevent cross-contamination by pathogens like MRSA and *Acinetobacter* species. They practice strict hand hygiene, apply aseptic techniques during interventional procedures, and use personal protective equipment in alignment with standard and transmission-based precautions. Radiology technicians also collaborate with infection control teams on surveillance, reporting, and audits to identify contamination risks, while participating in ongoing education that strengthens compliance and awareness. By adopting innovations such as UV-C disinfection systems, automated hygiene monitoring, and adherence to WHO's core infection prevention components, radiology departments can significantly reduce HAI incidence, ensuring imaging services function as a cornerstone of safe and infection-free healthcare delivery (Freihat et al., 2024).

### **The role of health security**

Health security plays a vital role in preventing healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) by integrating infection prevention and control (IPC) within global and national frameworks that strengthen health system preparedness and resilience. Through initiatives such as the Global Health Security Agenda (GHSA), which unites governments, international organizations, and civil society, health security efforts enhance surveillance, laboratory capacity, and rapid response mechanisms essential for detecting and controlling HAIs and antimicrobial resistance (AMR). By embedding IPC as a core element of national action plans for health security, countries can prevent cross-border transmission of pathogens, mitigate the impact of outbreaks, and maintain safe, high-quality healthcare during emergencies. These measures align with the World Health Organization's core components for IPC by reinforcing leadership, governance, and workforce competencies while promoting multimodal strategies and data-driven surveillance that collectively safeguard patient safety, protect healthcare workers, and contribute to global epidemic preparedness (Haque et al., 2020).

### **The role of epidemiology technician**

Epidemiology technicians play a pivotal role in infection prevention and control by supporting surveillance, data management, and outbreak investigation activities essential for reducing healthcare-associated infections (HAIs). They collect, analyze, and interpret HAI data using standardized

surveillance tools such as the National Healthcare Safety Network, enabling the early detection of infection trends and the timely identification of clusters involving multidrug-resistant organisms. Working closely with infection preventionists, nurses, and laboratorians, they conduct case investigations, track laboratory results, and prepare surveillance summaries and performance reports for infection control committees and health authorities. During outbreaks, epidemiology technicians assist in source tracing, data validation, and risk communication, ensuring evidence-based interventions are rapidly implemented. Their work bridges epidemiological intelligence with frontline infection control measures, providing actionable insights that enhance compliance with WHO's core IPC components and sustain significant reductions in HAI rates through integrated, real-time surveillance feedback systems (Shenoy & Branch-Elliman, 2023).

#### **The role of pharmacy technician**

Pharmacy technicians play a vital role in reducing healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) by supporting antimicrobial stewardship programs, ensuring safe medication handling, and promoting adherence to infection prevention practices within multidisciplinary healthcare teams. Their contributions include monitoring antibiotic use for appropriateness, documenting allergy information, optimizing therapy duration, and minimizing unnecessary intravenous antibiotic administration key measures that help limit the spread of multidrug-resistant organisms. Additionally, pharmacy technicians enhance medication safety by maintaining aseptic preparation techniques, managing proper storage of disinfectants and antiseptics, and preventing cross-contamination during medication dispensing. They also assist in infection control education, collaborate in audit and surveillance activities, and reinforce compliance with IPC bundles and protocols, complementing the efforts of pharmacists, nurses, and infection control practitioners in achieving sustained HAI reduction across healthcare settings (Shenoy & Branch-Elliman, 2023).

#### **The role of lab technician**

Laboratory technicians play a pivotal role in infection prevention and control by ensuring timely microbiological surveillance, pathogen identification, and antimicrobial susceptibility testing that support outbreak detection and guide clinical interventions. Through prompt processing of clinical specimens, they enable early recognition of healthcare-associated infection clusters, multidrug-resistant organisms, and epidemiological trends, facilitating rapid feedback to infection control teams for targeted responses like isolation or bundle reinforcement. Their contributions extend to antibiotic stewardship by generating cumulative antibiograms and validating rapid diagnostics, ultimately reducing HAI incidence across care settings when integrated into multimodal IPC programs (Pfaller & Diekema, 2018).

#### **The role of surgical technician**

Surgical technologists play a critical role in preventing surgical site infections (SSIs) and maintaining aseptic integrity throughout the perioperative process. They prepare the operating room by ensuring all instruments and surfaces are sterilized, setting up and maintaining the sterile field, and adhering to strict aseptic techniques during procedures. Their responsibilities include proper surgical hand antisepsis, sterile gowning and gloving, monitoring for any breaks in sterility, minimizing traffic in the operating room, and ensuring appropriate environmental and instrument disinfection. By collaborating closely with surgeons, nurses, and infection prevention teams, surgical technologists contribute directly to the effectiveness of surgical site infection prevention bundles and help reduce healthcare-associated infection rates across surgical settings (de Oliveira & Sarmiento Gama, 2017).

#### **The role of laboratory & blood banks administration**

The Laboratory and Blood Banks Administration plays a pivotal role in reducing healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) through timely microbial identification, antimicrobial susceptibility surveillance, and prevention of transfusion-transmitted infections. Microbiology laboratories support infection control teams by detecting outbreaks via phenotypic clustering, providing rapid diagnostics with tools like multiplex PCR and automated systems, and generating cumulative antibiograms to guide antimicrobial stewardship, thereby enabling early isolation, targeted therapy, and HAI trend monitoring. Blood banks minimize transfusion risks through donor screening, nucleic acid testing for HIV/HCV/HBV, diversion

pouches to reduce bacterial contamination, leukoreduction, pathogen inactivation, and culture-based platelet checks, achieving near-elimination of window-period transmissions in high-income settings. Integrated within multimodal IPC programs, these services ensure prompt feedback to clinicians, outbreak investigations, and biosafety compliance, sustaining HAI reductions across care continuums (Pfaller & Diekema, 2018).

### **The role of assistant agency for primary health care**

The Assistant Agency for Primary Health Care plays a central role in reducing healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) by extending infection prevention and control (IPC) measures from hospital settings to primary and community health facilities. As part of Egypt's national IPC strategy, the agency strengthens surveillance networks, provides training for healthcare workers on standard precautions and hand hygiene, and promotes the early detection and reporting of HAIs in outpatient and ambulatory services. It also supports the implementation of multimodal strategies to curb infection spread at the point of first contact. By linking primary care units with national HAI surveillance and adopting WHO's core IPC components, the Assistant Agency helps close critical gaps in infection control capacity, ensuring continuity of safe care and reducing the overall burden of HAIs across the healthcare system (Talaat et al., 2016).

### **The role of dental lab technician**

Dental laboratory technicians play a crucial role in preventing healthcare-associated infections by minimizing cross-contamination from patient-derived materials such as impressions, prosthetics, and casts. They are responsible for disinfecting all items received from dental clinics using approved intermediate-level disinfectants like sodium hypochlorite, chlorhexidine, or glutaraldehyde before further manipulation, thereby preventing the transmission of pathogens including hepatitis B virus, HIV, and multidrug-resistant bacteria. Adhering to strict infection control measures ensures biosafety within the lab. Heat-tolerant instruments are sterilized, while disinfected prosthetics and appliances are packaged in sealed, labeled containers before being returned to dental operators. Technicians also maintain compliance with institutional and WHO/CDC guidelines through ongoing training, documentation, and reporting of occupational exposures, thus actively integrating their practices within broader multimodal infection prevention and control programs that aim to reduce transmission risks and protect both healthcare workers and patients receiving prosthodontic care (Al-Aali et al., 2021).

### **The role of operating rooms**

Operating rooms play a pivotal role in reducing healthcare-associated infections, particularly surgical site infections (SSIs), which remain a leading contributor to postoperative morbidity and mortality. Effective infection control in ORs relies on integrated measures combining strict aseptic techniques, environmental controls, and compliance with evidence-based perioperative bundles. Key elements include rigorous hand hygiene, maximal sterile barriers, chlorhexidine-alcohol skin preparation, timely administration of prophylactic antibiotics within 60 minutes before incision, and maintenance of normothermia to support host immunity. Environmental parameters are equally essential; operating rooms should maintain at least 20 air changes per hour, HEPA filtration, and positive air pressure to minimize airborne contamination, alongside limiting door openings and personnel movement to reduce turbulence and microbial dissemination. Thorough cleaning between cases using sporicidal agents and regular terminal disinfection further eliminates residual pathogens. When implemented as part of a comprehensive, multimodal infection prevention program with adherence rates exceeding 95%, these strategies can reduce SSIs and related HAIs by up to 50%, underscoring the central role of the OR in hospital-wide infection control (Bali, 2020).

### **Conclusion**

Integrated, multimodal infection prevention and control measures represent the most effective and sustainable approach to reducing healthcare-associated infections across diverse healthcare settings and resource contexts. By combining evidence-based clinical practices such as hand hygiene, device bundles, and environmental cleaning with systems-level strategies including leadership engagement, surveillance feedback, and behavioral interventions, substantial reductions in HAI incidence have been achieved globally, including in low- and middle-income countries. Future efforts must prioritize

overcoming implementation barriers through innovation, equitable resource allocation, and interdisciplinary research to sustain these gains amid evolving threats like antimicrobial resistance and health emergencies.

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