

## Surgical Site Infections is the Concerning Issue in Pakistan: A Review Article

Musawir Hussain<sup>1</sup>, Muhammad Hamayun<sup>2</sup>, Umair Shafique<sup>3</sup>, Muhammad Zaman<sup>4</sup>, Muhammad Abdul Rahman<sup>5</sup>, Zain Ul Abbas<sup>6</sup>,  
Muhammad Aqib<sup>2</sup>, Khadija Muqadas<sup>2\*</sup>, Muhammad Subhan Nazar<sup>2\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Pakistan Institute of Medical and Management Sciences, Khyber Medical University, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.

<sup>2</sup>Department of Public Health, the University of Haripur, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.

<sup>3</sup>Department of Emerging Allied Health Technologies, Superior University Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan.

<sup>4</sup>Department of Microbiology, the Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Punjab, Pakistan.

<sup>5</sup>Department of Public Health, Times Institute Multan, Punjab, Pakistan.

<sup>6</sup>Department of Microbiology, Government College University, Faisalabad, Punjab, Pakistan.

\*Corresponding author's email address: [drsubhannazar@gmail.com](mailto:drsubhannazar@gmail.com), [khankhadijam123@gmail.com](mailto:khankhadijam123@gmail.com),

(Received, 24<sup>th</sup> November 2024, Revised 2<sup>nd</sup> January 2025, Published 31<sup>st</sup> January 2025)

**Abstract:** Surgical Site Infections (SSIs) are a significant healthcare-associated infection, particularly in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) like Pakistan. This review article evaluates the incidence, prevalence, risk factors and role of medical devices in surgical site infections. A literature review was conducted to assess the incidence, risk factors, and preventive strategies for SSIs. Studies comparing povidone-iodine (PI) and chlorhexidine gluconate (CHG) for skin antiseptics, normothermia and data on the effectiveness of sterile surgical attire and negative pressure wound therapy were analysed. SSI rates in LMICs range from 8-30%, compared to 1-4% in high-income countries. Risk factors include patient-related variables (e.g., malnutrition, immunosuppression), surgical factors (e.g., contamination, poor sterilisation), and physiological factors (e.g., postoperative hypoxia). CHG combined with alcohol-based preparations is more effective than PI. Maintaining normothermia, proper sterilisation, and using disposable medical equipment can reduce SSI rates. Preventive strategies include training on CHG use, mandatory disposable sterile drapes and gowns, adherence to AST and AORN guidelines for surgical attire, and continuous education for perioperative staff. Implementing comprehensive CHG combined with alcohol-based preparations, normothermia, negative pressure wound therapy, ongoing education programs, and robust preventive strategies are essential to reduce SSIs, especially in LMICs, improving patient outcomes and healthcare sustainability.

**Keywords:** Incidence, Prevalence, SSI, AMR, CHG, Medical device, AORN, Pakistan

**[How to Cite:** Hussain M, Hamayun M, Shafique U, Zaman M, Abdul Rahman M, Abbas ZU, Aqib M, Muqadas K, Nazar MS. Surgical site infections is the concerning issue in Pakistan: a review article. *Biol. Clin. Sci. Res. J.*, 2025; 6(1): 63-71. doi: <https://doi.org/10.54112/bcsrj.v6i1.1519>

### Introduction

The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) defines a Surgical Site Infection (SSI) as an infection occurring within 30 days after surgery. SSIs are classified into three categories: superficial incisional infections (primary and secondary), deep incisional infections (primary and secondary), and organ/space infections. (Kim et al., 2022). The Lancet Infectious Diseases reported that surgical site infections (SSIs) pose a major global challenge to healthcare systems and insurance providers. These infections are a leading postoperative complication worldwide, causing substantial patient morbidity and mortality and significantly increasing costs. Despite being highly preventable, SSIs impose a heavy financial burden on both patients and healthcare systems. (World Health Organization, 2011). Individuals with SSI experience pain, impairment, inadequate healing that increases the risk of hernias and wound collapse, prolonged healing periods, and psychological difficulties that result in increased resource utilisation (Badia et al., 2017). Even after considering patient and operation risk factors, patients in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) are disproportionately impacted by greater incidence of SSI as compared to those in high-income countries. (Bhangu et al., 2018).

#### SSI Prevalence in Global:

Mortality within 30 days of surgery is the third largest contributor to global deaths (Nepogodiev et al., 2019). Surgical Site Infection (SSI) is linked to 38% of deaths in patients with SSI. (Monahan et al., 2020). The incidence rate of SSIs is significantly higher in low- and middle-income countries (LMIC) than it is in Western Europe's comparatively high-

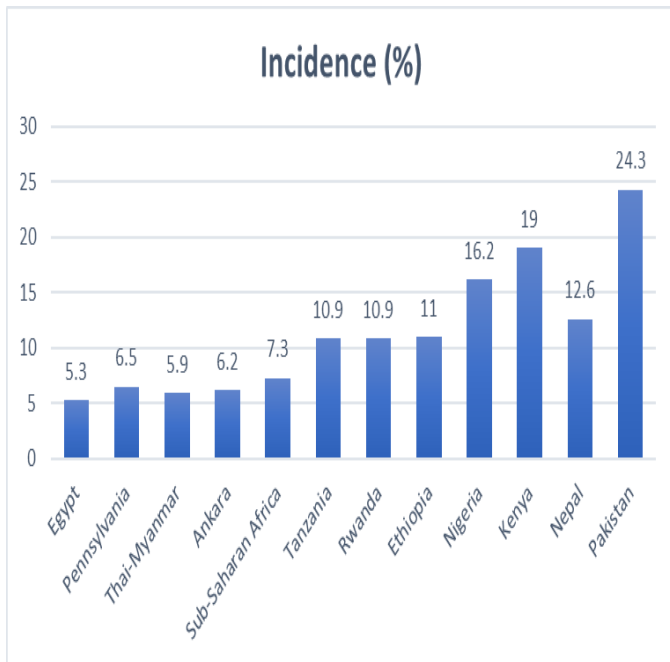
income countries (HICs) (Bowley et al., 2018) Here, the patient bears most of the hospital care cost. (Mills, 2014). Hospital-acquired infections (HAIs) that are preventable by recognised methods include surgical site infections (SSIs) in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs). Healthcare-associated infections are a significant threat to patient health globally, with surgical site infections (SSIs) being the most commonly reported. A meta-analysis analysed 43 articles across 39 countries, finding a global pooled SSI incidence of 2.5%. The highest incidence was in the African region at 7.2%. The findings underscore the need for improved safety measures and interventions to reduce SSIs and enhance patient safety. (Mengistu et al., 2023). SSI rates are falling in high-income nations with efficient operations, averaging 1-4 per cent. (Monahan et al., 2020). This reduction in SSI rates is not reflected in LMICs. SSI rates in LMICs range from 8 to 30% (Biccard et al., 2018).

Different rates of SSI post-cesarean section were reported in many countries: 16.2% in Nigeria (Monahan et al., 2020), 10.9% in Tanzania (Mpogoro et al., 2014), 19% in Kenya (Aiken et al., 2013) and 9.7% in Vietnam (Viet Hung et al., 2016). Also, SSI complicated 14.4% of CSs in Jordan (Abdel Jalil et al., 2017), 6.2% in Turkey (Çınar et al., 2016), 4.5% in Saudi Arabia (Alsareii, 2021) 10.9% in Rwanda (Mukagendaneza et al., 2019), 12.6% in Nepal (Shrestha et al., 2014), 11% in Ethiopia (Wodajo et al., 2017) and 24.3% in Pakistan (Jabbar et al., 2016) graphical representation of LMICs showed in figure 1. However, lower rates were reported in Israel at 3.7% (Salim et al., 2012) and in China at 3.34% (Lin et al., 2024). Meanwhile, in another study, this rate was found in 48.2% of cesarean deliveries (CDs) at a referral centre in Tanzania (De Nardo et al., 2016). In LMICs, Pakistan is the most affected country of SSI. There



are many contributing factors, such as the lack of proper sterilisation of instruments, the CSSD department of a hospital not working correctly, the use of reusable linen surgical gowns, lack of knowledge about surgical attires, and lack of infection prevention training programs.

**Figure: 1 Incidence of Surgical site infection in different countries**



**SSI Prevalence in Pakistan:**

In Pakistan, the study conducted at Ayub Teaching Hospital found a 33.68% SSI rate among 95 patients, with higher rates in older, urban, obese, and diabetic patients and those with co-morbidities. Major risk factors included age, urban residency, obesity, diabetes, type and duration of surgery, and anaemia. Targeted interventions are essential to reduce SSIs in these high-risk groups. (Sattar et al., 2019). The study found a 9.6% SSI rate after cesarean sections among 874 women. Risk factors included older age, obesity, medical complications, labour during surgery, and multiple PV examinations. The majority of infections were superficial. Obstetricians should take precautions to mitigate these risks and reduce the incidence of SSIs (Bukhari et al., 2022).

Despite advancements, SSIs continue to increase morbidity and mortality. Effective prevention involves improving operating theatre environments, treatment, and patient factors. SSI surveillance and maintaining high operation theatre standards are crucial, though further research is needed to enhance infection control and surveillance practices (Fayyaz et al., 2023). According to this study, in a large Pakistan public hospital, 412 patients had a 29.8% SSI rate. Hospital-related variables, surgical procedures, and patients were important risk factors. The majority of SSIs occurred during exploratory laparotomies. Adherence to surgical protocols, hospital-based antimicrobial stewardship, and enhanced patient education and care at the ward level are all necessary to effectively prevent surgical site infections. (Khan, Fang, et al., 2020).

In a Pakistan tertiary care hospital, general surgery cases had an 8.84% SSI incidence, according to this study. Older patients, those with more extended preoperative hospital stays, longer surgical times, emergency surgeries, and higher ASA indices all had increased risks of surgical site infections (SSIs). The high rates can be attributed to inadequate resources, disregard for infection control recommendations, and inadequate sterilising procedures. (Ansari et al., 2019). Among 83 patients, the Lahore General Hospital study revealed a 27.71% SSI rate. Advanced

age, urban residency, elective surgeries, obesity, co-morbidities, and anaemia were all linked to higher SSI rates. These high-risk groups should be the primary target of efforts to lower SSIs through enhanced patient care plans and infection control practices. (Nasir UB, Jawaid SN, Kharl RAK, Riaz N, Ullah MK, 2024). This multicentre prospective cohort study in Pakistan aims to determine the prevalence and risk factors of surgical site infections (SSIs) after elective procedures in nine subspecialties. The trial monitors 30-day SSIs and secondary outcomes, such as antibiotic-resistant infections and mortality, excluding patients with preoperative illnesses or emergency procedures. The findings will influence nationally adopted evidence-based guidelines for SSI prevention. (PakSurg Collaborative, 2023). Among 240 patients, the Bolan Medical Complex Hospital study revealed a 9.16% SSI rate. Older age, diabetes, wound type, length of surgery, hospital stay, and drain presence were important risk factors. Compared to clean wounds (3.57%), infections were substantially more common in dirty wounds (22.22%). Reducing SSIs requires addressing these issues. (Saeed et al., 2022).

**SSI Risk Factors:**

Pre-existing medical conditions, malnutrition, obesity, low serum albumin levels, age, smoking, and factors like immunosuppression (such as diabetes mellitus and radiation therapy) are key patient-related factors that increase the risk of secondary infections (Ansari et al., 2019). Surgery-related issues include contamination during the procedure, emergency surgeries, extended operation times, inadequate sterilisation, mishandling of instruments, and inadequate antiseptic preparation of the surgical site. (Isaacson et al., 2020). Physiological factors that increase the risk of surgical site infections (SSI) include severe trauma, hemodynamic instability, shock, extensive blood transfusions during surgery, and postoperative conditions such as hypoxia, hypothermia, and hyperglycaemia. (Ansari et al., 2019). Other independent predictors of SSI include abdominal surgeries, contaminated procedures, and three or more diagnoses upon hospital discharge. (Emil et al., 2015). Treatment costs and hospital stays are increased when SSI is not well managed and is not recognised promptly. Patients with SSI are more likely to die than those without SSI. (Khan, Khan, et al., 2020). Risk factors are highlighted in Figure 2.

**Role of Medical Devices (Surgical attires) in SSI**

In the operating room (OR), surgical site infections (SSI) are an ongoing source of concern. Patients who have skin incisions made for surgical procedures face the risk of getting serious or even deadly skin infections. (Spagnolo et al., 2013). Using disposable medical equipment can significantly lower the rate of surgical site infections. Let us examine SSIs in detail and discuss how single-use medical equipment might help prevent them. Clean surgical attire reduces bacterial contamination and SSI rates. Conflicting evidence exists on single-use vs. reusable gowns. Double gloving and surgical headgear can also reduce bacterial contamination. Further research is needed. (McHugh et al., 2014). Despite implementing stringent operating room attire policies, SSIs did not decrease. SSI rates increased post-implementation, with key predictors being preoperative infection, longer operative times, and contaminated wounds. Proving a significant SSI reduction through further study is impractical (Farach et al., 2018). The updated AORN "Guideline for Surgical Attire" emphasises the importance of wearing antimicrobial scrub attire, covering arms in restricted areas, managing personal items, and adequately laundering reusable attire. Adhering to these guidelines helps protect patients from microorganisms shed by perioperative personnel. (Cowperthwaite & Holm, 2015).

Healthcare personnel (HCP) attire plays a role in the cross-transmission of pathogens. Balancing professional appearance and practicality, this article reviews perceptions, evidence, and policies on HCP attire and offers recommendations, emphasising education and appropriately designed studies (Bearman et al., 2014). AORN's "Recommended practices for surgical attire" guide perioperative RNs in selecting,

wearing, and laundering attire, emphasising evidence-based practices, proper laundering, and collaboration with vendors and managers for appropriate execution (Braswell & Spruce, 2012). This guide addresses OR protocols for diverse religious and cultural practices, including hijab, natural hair, and beards, aiming to update medical education while ensuring patient safety and considering COVID-19-specific PPE changes (Abdelwahab et al., 2021).

Al-Aamri et al. found insufficient evidence to suggest that healthcare workers wearing scrubs outside the operating theatre increases the incidence of surgical site infections, with no definitive support for or against the practice based on the available data. (Al-Aamri et al., 2024). Modern surgical gowns made from disposable materials mitigate bacterial breakthrough issues associated with cotton gowns, enhancing patient protection. Surgeons often use dual gloves in orthopaedic procedures to reduce intraoperative perforation risks, with outer gloves changed before incising to minimise fingertip contamination post-skin preparation. (Manley & McNamara, 2011).

This multicentre, cluster-randomised trial demonstrated that routinely changing gloves and instruments before abdominal wound closure significantly reduced surgical site infection (SSI) rates from 18.9% to 16.0%. This practice, showing robust benefits, should be widely implemented globally to improve surgical outcomes and reduce SSI incidence. (Ademuyiwa et al., 2022).

Stepping motion significantly increases airborne dust contamination in orthopaedic operating rooms, exceeding NASA100 cleanliness standards. Using non-dedicated shoes and unsterilised scrub uniforms poses a risk for surgical site infections. Further research is needed to validate the efficacy of dedicated footwear and sterilised clothing in preventing SSIs (Tateiwa et al., 2020).

The exposure of surgical instruments and fluids to a contaminated operating-room environment, inadequate sterilisation and disinfection practices, and breaches in aseptic technique can all contribute to developing surgical site infections. Adherence to evidence-based infection prevention and control measures is crucial to mitigate these risks. (Ronghe et al., 2023).

#### **Role of chlorhexidine gluconate (CHG) in SSI**

Implementing a preoperative bathing regimen with 4% chlorhexidine gluconate (CHG) reduced surgical site infection (SSI) rates from 7.2% to 3.5% per 1,000 surgeries on a military medical-surgical unit, suggesting potential infection control benefits warranting further research. (Scallan et al., 2020). Preoperative chlorhexidine reduces surgical site infections after total knee arthroplasty, especially in moderate and high-risk patients, but not significantly in low-risk individuals. While promising, further high-quality randomised controlled trials are necessary to strengthen these findings and establish definitive recommendations. (Wang et al., 2017).

Povidone-iodine combined with alcohol demonstrated superior effectiveness against anaerobic flora, including *Cutibacterium acnes*, in shoulder skin preparation compared to chlorhexidine-alcohol, emphasising its potential in preventing surgical site infections, though further clinical validation is needed. (Dörfel et al., 2021). Springel et al. conducted a randomised trial; chlorhexidine-alcohol and povidone-iodine showed comparable efficacy in preventing caesarean-related surgical site infections. Both preparations yielded similar infection rates, indicating povidone-iodine remains a viable option for preoperative skin antisepsis in caesarean deliveries. (Springel et al., 2017). A randomised controlled experiment comparing povidone-iodine with chlorhexidine gluconate (CHG) was carried out by Kunkel et al. The study showed that positive cultures with povidone-iodine incidence were seven times higher in the povidone-iodine group than in the CHG group. (Kunkle et al., 2015).

#### **Role of Negative pressure wound therapy (NPWT) for the prevention of SSIs**

Negative pressure wound therapy (NPWT) promotes wound healing by applying a vacuum to reduce inflammatory exudate and stimulate granulation tissue formation. This method is primarily utilised for complex wounds, such as diabetic foot ulcers and skin grafts, that either are not healing or are at risk of not healing. (Zaver & Kankanal, 2023). In a multicentre randomised trial, incisional negative pressure wound therapy (iNPWT) did not lower the rates of surgical site infections (SSIs) following lower extremity bypass surgery. However, it significantly reduced wound dehiscence compared to standard dressings. No severe adverse events related to iNPWT were observed. (Rezk et al., 2024). A retrospective study of patients undergoing cytoreductive surgery (CRS) and hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (HIPEC) for peritoneal malignancy revealed that negative pressure wound therapy (NPWT) notably decreased the rates of surgical site infections (SSIs) compared to standard postoperative dressings.

Multivariate analysis further validated the effectiveness of NPWT, emphasising its potential advantages for this patient group. (Nabata et al., 2024). A thorough meta-analysis of 13 studies with 8,495 cardiac surgery patients found that negative pressure wound therapy (NPWT) substantially decreases surgical site infections and shortens hospital stays compared to standard dressings. However, NPWT did not show a significant effect on superficial wound infections. Additional research is required to verify these results. (Tao et al., 2024) A meta-analysis revealed that the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) evaluation provides strong evidence that negative pressure wound therapy (iNPWT) effectively reduces surgical site infections (SSIs).

Trial sequential analysis (TSA) suggests that additional studies will unlikely alter the current reliable effect estimate. (Groenen et al., 2023). Costa et al.'s randomised clinical trial found no significant difference in deep surgical site infection rates at 30 or 90 days between incisional negative pressure wound therapy and standard wound dressings for lower limb fractures resulting from significant trauma. The results do not support negative pressure wound therapy in this scenario. (Costa et al., 2020).

#### **Preventive strategies for SSI in Pakistan**

- According to the Association of PeriOperative Registered Nurses (AORN) guidelines, microbial contamination of the surgical site can be decreased when perioperative nurses follow AORN guidelines (AORN 2014).
- Ensure proper sterilisation of instruments and adherence to aseptic techniques during surgeries to prevent contamination and subsequent infections.
- Address patient-related risk factors such as malnutrition, obesity, smoking, and diabetes through preoperative assessment and optimisation to reduce the likelihood of SSIs.
- In Pakistan, perioperative nurses used scrubs-based povidone-iodine (PI) to disinfect the skin. This surgical preparation was unable to make SSI alleviation.
- Maintaining normothermia during surgery further contributes to infection control, as does proper sterilisation and disinfection of the surgical environment.
- Adhering to the Association of Surgical Technologists (AST) Guidelines for surgical attire and drapes in the operating theatre is essential for minimising contamination and reducing SSI.

Develop and implement policies for continuous monitoring and adherence to infection control practices, including evidence-based protocols for surgical attire and antiseptic use.



# Risk Factors of Surgical site Infection



## *Patient factors*

- Age
- Obesity
- Smoking status
- Cancer
- Diabetes Mellitus
- HIV
- Nutritional indices
- Hemoglobin

## **PRE-OPERATIVE FACTORS**

- Nasal decontamination
- Mechanical bowel preparation
- Skin preparation



## **OPERATIVE FACTORS**

- Previous surgery
- Antiseptic impregnated incise drapes
- Length and complexity of operation
- Operating surgeon
- Blood loss
- Sterilized sutures

## **POST-OPERATIVE FACTORS**

- Antiseptic lavage of wounds and cavities
- Antimicrobial dressings
- Supplemental oxygen in recovery



## **Operating room related Factors**

- Theater environment
- Preoperative showering
- Theater wear (Surgical attire)
- OR Trafficking
- Banning of jewelry and nail polish
- Drapes and gowns

## **References/Sources**

1. (25867631) PMID
2. (doi:10.1136/ bmjsit-2023-000182)
3. (doi:10.1136/ bmjsit-2023-000182)



Figure: 2 Risk factors of surgical site infection

# Role of medical devices (Surgical attires ) in SSI

Innovations and Technological Advances in surgery



## SURGICAL ATTIRES

Surgical attire is the clothing worn in the operating theatre by the surgical team for protection of the patient and the nurses from bacterial infection and contamination.

### ROLE OF SURGICAL ATTIRES IN SSI PREVENTION

- Operative teams wear clean scrubs, gowns, and headgear to reduce SSIs.
- Mangram AJ et al Study showed the use of clean surgical attire (i.e. scrubs, caps, masks, gloves and gowns) strictly regulated.



Little evidence to suggest that the wearing of surgical facemasks and caps reduces SSI rates. Bacterial contamination of the operative field has been shown to be decreased SSI.

- The AORN guidelines ban surgeon skull caps, mandate bouffant caps covering all head skin, and require long-sleeved jackets for non-scrubbed personnel.
- The AORN policy aims to reduce skin shedding, microorganism including Staphylococcal aureus, by covering all exposed skin.



### FEATURES OF SURGICAL ATTIRES

- Cool and comfortable for operating theatre personnel.
- An effective barrier to microorganisms.
- Both reusable woven and disposable nonwoven material is used, thus minimizing microbial shedding.
- Flexible, for effective movement.
- Easy to don and remove.
- Resistant to fluids and blood to prevent penetration by microorganisms.
- Covering the entire body and skin.
- Able to transmit heat and water vapour to protect the wearer.

Figure: 3 Role of surgical attires in SSI prevention.

# Preventive strategies for SSI in Pakistan



Figure: 4 Preventive strategies for the prevention of SSI in Pakistan



**Recommendation:**

- Organize training sessions to decrease surgical site infections (SSI) in Pakistan by adhering to guidelines from the World Health Organization (WHO), the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA), and the Association of Perioperative Registered Nurses (AORN).
- Conduct regular workshops and training sessions for perioperative nurses on the importance and techniques of using chlorhexidine gluconate (CHG) combined with alcohol-based skin preparation agents. Emphasise the efficacy of CHG over povidone-iodine in reducing microbial presence and preventing SSIs.
- Develop a policy mandating using disposable, sterile drapes and gowns in the operating theatre. Ensure that all surgical staff are trained on properly using and disposing of these items to minimise contamination and infection risks.
- Adopt the Association of Surgical Technologists (AST) Guidelines for surgical attire, including sterile gowns, gloves, and face masks. Regularly train surgical staff on proper donning and doffing techniques to maintain asepsis and reduce the incidence of SSIs.
- Continuous education is essential for preventing surgical site infections (SSIs). Regular training and workshops should be mandated for all perioperative staff to stay updated on the latest SSI prevention protocols, including proper aseptic techniques, effective use of antiseptics like chlorhexidine gluconate, and adherence to sterilisation standards.

Implementing a comprehensive, ongoing education program will ensure that healthcare professionals maintain high infection control standards, ultimately reducing the incidence of SSIs.

**Conclusion**

Surgical site infections (SSIs) are a significant global burden, particularly in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs). Patient risk factors include pre-existing medical conditions, malnutrition, and immunosuppression. Surgical factors like contamination and poor sterilisation also increase SSI risk. Preventive strategies include using chlorhexidine gluconate, maintaining normothermia, and proper sterilisation. Implementing negative pressure wound therapy and disposable medical equipment can further reduce SSI rates. Organise and conduct comprehensive training and workshops for perioperative staff, following guidelines to reduce surgical site infections (SSIs).

**Acknowledgement:**

We extend our heartfelt thanks to our research team for their invaluable support in providing the opportunity to write this review article. Their assistance has facilitated our research and allowed us to share our findings with the broader scientific community. Thank you for your unwavering support.

**Declarations****Data Availability statement**

All data generated or analysed during the study are included in the manuscript.

**Ethics approval and consent to participate**

Approved by the department concerned. **Consent for publication**

Approved

**Funding**

Not applicable

**Conflict of interest**

The authors declared the absence of a conflict of interest.

**Author Contribution**

All authors contributed equally

All authors reviewed the results and approved the final version of the manuscript. They are also accountable for the integrity of the study.

**References**

1. Abdel Jalil, M. H., Abu Hammour, K., Alsous, M., Awad, W., Hadadden, R., Bakri, F., & Fram, K. (2017). Surgical site infections following caesarean operations at a Jordanian teaching hospital: Frequency and implicated factors. *Scientific Reports*. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-12431-2>
2. Abdelwahab, R., Aden, A., Bearden, B., Sada, A., & Bostwick, J. M. (2021). Surgical Scrubbing and Attire in the Operating Room and ICU: A Multicultural Guide. *Journal of the American College of Surgeons*, 233(2), 321–327. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JAMCOLLSURG.2021.05.005>
3. Ademuyiwa, A. O., Adisa, A. O., Bhangu, A., Brocklehurst, P., Chakraborty, S., Ghosh, D., Glasbey, J., Haque, P. D., Hardy, P., Harrison, E., Ingabire, J. A., Ismail, L., Lillywhite, R., Magill, L., Ramos de la Medina, A., Moore, R., Pinkney, T., Winkles, N., Monahan, M., ... Brown, J. (2022). Routine sterile glove and instrument change during abdominal wound closure to prevent surgical site infection (ChEETAh): a pragmatic, cluster-randomised trial in seven low-income and middle-income countries. *Lancet (London, England)*, 400(10365), 1767–1776. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(22\)01884-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(22)01884-0)
4. Aiken, A. M., Wanyoro, A. K., Mwangi, J., Mulingwa, P., Wanjohi, J., Njoroge, J., Juma, F., Mugoya, I. K., Scott, J. A. G., & Hall, A. J. (2013). Evaluation of surveillance for surgical site infections in Thika Hospital, Kenya. *Journal of Hospital Infection*, 83(2), 140–145. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhin.2012.11.003>
5. Al-Aamri, H. H. M., Nair, A. S., Al Sawafi, K. M., Al Sharji, I., & Al Jabri, A. (2024). Influence of surgical scrubs outside the operation theatre on post-operative infections - A systematic review. *Indian Journal of Anaesthesia*, 68(3). [https://doi.org/10.4103/IJA.IJA\\_949\\_23](https://doi.org/10.4103/IJA.IJA_949_23)
6. Alsareii, S. A. (2021). Surgical Site Infections at a Saudi Hospital: The Need for a National Surveillance Program. *International Surgery*, 105(1–3), 265–270. <https://doi.org/10.9738/INTSURG-D-16-00199.1>
7. Ansari, S., Hassan, M., Barry, H. D., Bhatti, T. A., Hussain, S. Z. M., Jabeen, S., & Fareed, S. (2019). Risk Factors Associated with Surgical Site Infections: A Retrospective Report from a Developing Country. *Cureus*. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.4801>
8. Badia, J. M., Casey, A. L., Petrosillo, N., Hudson, P. M., Mitchell, S. A., & Crosby, C. (2017). Impact of surgical site infection on healthcare costs and patient outcomes: a systematic review in six European countries. In *Journal of Hospital Infection*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhin.2017.03.004>
9. Bearman, G., Bryant, K., Leekha, S., Mayer, J., Munoz-Price, L. S., Murthy, R., Palmore, T., Rupp, M. E., & White, J. (2014). Healthcare Personnel Attire in Non-Operating-Room Settings. *Infection Control & Hospital Epidemiology*, 35(2), 107–121. <https://doi.org/10.1086/675066>
10. Bhangu, A., Ademuyiwa, A. O., Aguilera, M. L., Alexander, P., Al-Saqqa, S. W., Borda-Luque, G., Costas-Chavarri, A., Drake, T. M., Ntiringanya, F., Fitzgerald, J. E., Fergusson, S. J., Glasbey, J., Ingabire, J. A., Ismail, L., Salem, H. K., Kojo, A. T. T., Lapitan, M. C., Lilford, R., Mihaljevic, A. L., ... Blanco, R. (2018). Surgical site infection after gastrointestinal surgery in high-income, middle-income, and low-income

- countries: a prospective, international, multicentre cohort study. *The Lancet Infectious Diseases*. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099\(18\)30101-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(18)30101-4)
11. Biccard, B. M., Madiba, T. E., Kluyts, H. L., Munlemvo, D. M., Madzimbamuto, F. D., Basenero, A., Gordon, C. S., Youssouf, C., Rakotoarison, S. R., Gobin, V., Samateh, A. L., Sani, C. M., Omigbodun, A. O., Amanor-Boadu, S. D., Tumukunde, J. T., Esterhuizen, T. M., Le Manach, Y., Forget, P., Elkhogla, A. M., ... Ray, S. (2018). Perioperative patient outcomes in the African Surgical Outcomes Study: a 7-day prospective observational cohort study. *The Lancet*. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(18\)30001-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(18)30001-1)
  12. Bowley, D., Gokani, V., Henry, J. A., Kong, C., Lavy, C., Lim, J., Luque, L., Maruthappu, M., Mogan, P., Nepogodiev, D., Sayyed, R., Shalhoub, J., Vohra, R., Drake, T. M., Camilleri-Brennan, J., Tabiri, S., Fergusson, S. J., Spence, R., Fitzgerald, J. E. F., ... Escobar, E. G. (2018). Laparoscopy in management of appendicitis in high-, middle-, and low-income countries: a multicenter, prospective, cohort study. *Surgical Endoscopy*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00464-018-6064-9>
  13. Braswell, M. L., & Spruce, L. (2012). Implementing AORN Recommended Practices for Surgical Attire. *AORN Journal*, 95(1), 122–140. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.AORN.2011.10.017>
  14. Bukhari, S. R., Gul, M., Asad, U., & Yusuf, L. (2022). Risk Factors for Surgical Site Infection Following Cesarean Delivery. *Pakistan Journal of Medical and Health Sciences*, 16(12), 887–890. <https://doi.org/10.53350/pjmhs20221611887>
  15. Çınar, M., Timur, H., Güzel, A. İ., Tokmak, A., Ersak, B., Saygan, S., & Uygur, D. (2016). The Association Between Preterm Premature Rupture of Membranes and Surgical Site Infection Following Cesarean Section. *Gynecology Obstetrics & Reproductive Medicine*. <https://doi.org/10.21613/gorm.2016.439>
  16. Costa, M. L., Achten, J., Knight, R., Bruce, J., Dutton, S. J., Madan, J., Dritsaki, M., Parsons, N., Fernandez, M., Grant, R., Nanchahal, J., & WHIST Trial Collaborators. (2020). Effect of Incisional Negative Pressure Wound Therapy vs Standard Wound Dressing on Deep Surgical Site Infection After Surgery for Lower Limb Fractures Associated With Major Trauma: The WHIST Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA*, 323(6), 519–526. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.0059>
  17. Cowperthwaite, L., & Holm, R. L. (2015). Guideline Implementation: Surgical Attire. *AORN Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aorn.2014.12.003>
  18. De Nardo, P., Gentilotti, E., Nguhuni, B., Vairo, F., Chaula, Z., Nicastri, E., Nassoro, M. M., Bevilacqua, N., Ismail, A., Savoldi, A., Zumla, A., & Ippolito, G. (2016). Post-caesarean section surgical site infections at a Tanzanian tertiary hospital: a prospective observational study. *Journal of Hospital Infection*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhin.2016.02.021>
  19. Dörfel, D., Maiwald, M., Daeschlein, G., Müller, G., Hudek, R., Assadian, O., Kampf, G., Kohlmann, T., Harnoss, J. C., & Kramer, A. (2021). Comparison of the antimicrobial efficacy of povidone-iodine-alcohol versus chlorhexidine-alcohol for surgical skin preparation on the shoulder region's aerobic and anaerobic skin flora. *Antimicrobial Resistance and Infection Control*, 10(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/S13756-020-00874-8>
  20. Emil, A., Lital, K. B., Eithan, A., Tamar, M., Alia, R., & Faris, N. (2015). Surgical site infections after abdominal surgery: Incidence and risk factors. A prospective cohort study. *Infectious Diseases*. <https://doi.org/10.3109/23744235.2015.1055587>
  21. Farach, S. M., Kelly, K. N., Farkas, R. L., Ruan, D. T., Matroniano, A., Linehan, D. C., & Moalem, J. (2018). Have Recent Modifications of Operating Room Attire Policies Decreased Surgical Site Infections? An American College of Surgeons NSQIP Review of 6,517 Patients. *Journal of the American College of Surgeons*, 226(5), 804–813. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JAMCOLLSURG.2018.01.005>
  22. Fayyaz, M., Fayyaz, M., Akram, F., Muneer, B., Naem, U., Islam, B., Shahzadi, M., & Words, K. (2023). Implementation of Peri-Operative Strategies for Prevention of Surgical Site Infection. 14–20.
  23. Groenen, H., Jalalzadeh, H., Buis, D. R., Dreissen, Y. E. M., Goosen, J. H. M., Griekspoor, M., Harmsen, W. J., IJpma, F. F. A., van der Laan, M. J., Schaad, R. R., Segers, P., van der Zwet, W. C., de Jonge, S. W., Orsini, R. G., Eskes, A. M., Wolfhagen, N., & Boermeester, M. A. (2023). Incisional negative pressure wound therapy for the prevention of surgical site infection: an up-to-date meta-analysis and trial sequential analysis. *EClinicalMedicine*, 62, 102105. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eclinm.2023.102105>
  24. Isaacson, G., Doyle, W., & Summer, D. (2020). Reducing Surgical Site Infections During Otolaryngology Surgical Missions. In *Laryngoscope*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/lary.28418>
  25. Jabbar, S., Perveen, S., & Naseer, Q. (2016). Surgical site infection (SSI): frequency and risk factors in post caesarean section cases in a tertiary care hospital. *Ash Kmcd*.
  26. Khan, F. U., Fang, Y., Khan, Z., Khan, F. U., Malik, Z. I., Ahmed, N., Khan, A. H., & Rehman, A. ur. (2020). Occurrence, associated risk factors, and treatment of surgical site infections in Pakistan. *European Journal of Inflammation*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2058739220960547>
  27. Khan, F. U., Khan, Z., Ahmed, N., & Rehman, A. ur. (2020). A General Overview of Incidence, Associated Risk Factors, and Treatment Outcomes of Surgical Site Infections. In *Indian Journal of Surgery*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12262-020-02071-8>
  28. Kim, K. M., Kim, M. J., Chung, J. S., Ko, J. W., Choi, Y. U., Shim, H., Jang, J. Y., Bae, K. S., & Kim, K. (2022). Determination of risk factors associated with surgical site infection in patients undergoing preperitoneal pelvic packing for unstable pelvic fracture. *Acute and Critical Care*, 37(2), 247–255. <https://doi.org/10.4266/acc.2021.01396>
  29. Kunkle, C. M., Marchan, J., Safadi, S., Whitman, S., & Chmait, R. H. (2015). Chlorhexidine gluconate versus povidone-iodine at cesarean delivery: A randomised controlled trial. *Journal of Maternal-Fetal and Neonatal Medicine*. <https://doi.org/10.3109/14767058.2014.926884>
  30. Lin, J., Peng, Y., Guo, L., Tao, S., Li, S., Huang, W., Yang, X., Qiao, F., & Zong, Z. (2024). The incidence of surgical site infections in China. *Journal of Hospital Infection*, 146, 206–223. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhin.2023.06.004>
  31. Manley, K., & McNamara, I. (2011). Theatre etiquette, sterile technique and surgical site preparation. *Surgery*, 29(2), 55–58. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mpsur.2010.11.005>
  32. McHugh, S. M., Corrigan, M. A., Hill, A. D. K., & Humphreys, H. (2014). Surgical attire, practices and their perception in preventing surgical site infection. In *Surgeon*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.surge.2013.10.006>
  33. Mengistu, D. A., Alemu, A., Abdukadir, A. A., Mohammed Husen, A., Ahmed, F., Mohammed, B., & Musa, I. (2023). Global Incidence of Surgical Site Infection Among Patients: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Inquiry (United States)*, 60. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00469580231162549>
  34. Mills, A. (2014). Health Care Systems in Low- and Middle-Income Countries. *New England Journal of Medicine*. <https://doi.org/10.1056/nejmra1110897>
  35. Monahan, M., Jowett, S., Pinkney, T., Brocklehurst, P., Morton, D. G., Abdali, Z., & Roberts, T. E. (2020). Surgical site infection and costs in low- And middle-income countries: A systematic review of the economic burden. *PLoS ONE*, 15(6), 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0232960>
  36. Mpogoro, F. J., Mshana, S. E., Mirambo, M. M., Kidenya, B. R., Gumodoka, B., & Imirzalioglu, C. (2014). Incidence and predictors of surgical site infections following caesarean sections at Bugando Medical Centre, Mwanza, Tanzania. *Antimicrobial Resistance and Infection Control*. <https://doi.org/10.1186/2047-2994-3-25>
  37. Mukagendabaza, M. J., Munyaneza, E., Muhawenayo, E., Nyirasebura, D., Abahuje, E., Nyirigiro, J., Harelimana, J. D. D., Muvunyi, T. Z., Masaisa, F., Byiringiro, J. C., Hategekimana, T., & Muvunyi, C. M. (2019). Incidence, root causes, and outcomes of surgical site infections in a tertiary care hospital in Rwanda: A prospective



- observational cohort study. Patient Safety in Surgery. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13037-019-0190-8>
38. Nabata, K. J., Rai, S., Zhao, D., MacNeill, A. J., & Hamilton, T. D. (2024). Negative Pressure Wound Therapy to Reduce Surgical Site Infections after CRS/HIPEC. *Annals of Surgical Oncology*, 31(7), 4735–4740. <https://doi.org/10.1245/S10434-024-15283-Z>
39. Nasir UB, Jawaid SN, Khari RAK, Riaz N, Ullah MK, A. I. (2024). INCIDENCE OF SURGICAL SITE INFECTIONS FOLLOWING SURGERY AT A TERTIARY CARE HOSPITAL IN PUNJAB, PAKISTAN. *Journal of Peoples University of Medical & Health Sciences Nawabshah*, 14(1), 27–32. <https://doi.org/10.46536/jpumhs/2024/14.01.490>
40. Nepogodiev, D., Martin, J., Biccard, B., Makupe, A., Bhangu, A., & National Institute for Health Research Global Health Research Unit on Global Surgery. (2019). Global burden of postoperative death. *Lancet (London, England)*, 393(10170), 401. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(18\)33139-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(18)33139-8)
41. PakSurg Collaborative. (2023). PakSurg 1: Determining the epidemiology and risk factors of surgical site infections in Pakistan—a multicentre, prospective cohort study. *BMJ Open*, 13(7), e070831. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2022-070831>
42. Rezk, F., Åstrand, H., Svensson-Björk, R., Hasselmann, J., Nyman, J., Butt, T., Bilos, L., Pirouzram, A., & Acosta, S. (2024). A multicenter parallel randomised trial evaluating incisional negative pressure wound therapy to prevent surgical site infection after lower extremity bypass. *Journal of Vascular Surgery*, 79(4), 931-940.e4. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvs.2023.11.043>
43. Ronghe, V., Modak, A., Gomase, K., & Mahakalkar, M. G. (2023). From Prevention to Management: Understanding Postoperative Infections in Gynaecology. *Cureus*. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.46319>
44. Saeed, S., Amin, S. M., Ahmed, I., Nisa, Z. U., Bashir, J., & Anwar, M. (2022). Incidence of Surgical Site Infections and its Associated Factors: A Cross-Sectional Study. *Pakistan Journal of Medical and Health Sciences*, 16(2), 1028–1030. <https://doi.org/10.53350/pjmhs221621028>
45. Salim, R., Braverman, M., Teitler, N., Berkovic, I., Suliman, A., & Shalev, E. (2012). Risk factors for infection following cesarean delivery: An interventional study. *Journal of Maternal-Fetal and Neonatal Medicine*. <https://doi.org/10.3109/14767058.2012.705394>
46. Sattar, F., Sattar, Z., Zaman, M., & Akbar, S. (2019). Frequency of Post-operative Surgical Site Infections in a Tertiary Care Hospital in Abbottabad, Pakistan. *Cureus*, 11(3), e4243. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.4243>
47. Scallan, R. M., Gerathy, S., Price, J., Lazarus, A. M., Metter, E. J., & Talbot, L. A. (2020). Preoperative Chlorhexidine Gluconate Bathing on a Military Medical-Surgical Unit. *Military Medicine*, 185, 15–20. <https://doi.org/10.1093/milmed/usz186>
48. Shrestha, S., Shrestha, R., Shrestha, B., & Dongol, A. (2014). Incidence and risk factors of surgical site infection following cesarean section at Dhulikhel Hospital. *Kathmandu University Medical Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.3126/kumj.v12i2.13656>
49. Spagnolo, A. M., Ottria, G., Amicizia, D., Perdelli, F., & Cristina, M. L. (2013). Operating theatre quality and prevention of surgical site infections. In *Journal of Preventive Medicine and Hygiene*.
50. Springel, E. H., Wang, X. Y., Sarfoh, V. M., Stetzer, B. P., Weight, S. A., & Mercer, B. M. (2017). A randomised open-label controlled trial of chlorhexidine-alcohol vs povidone-iodine for cesarean antisepsis: the CAPICA trial. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 217(4), 463.e1-463.e8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajog.2017.05.060>
51. Tao, Y., Zhang, Y., Liu, Y., & Tang, S. (2024). Effects of negative pressure wound therapy on surgical site wound infections after cardiac surgery: A meta-analysis. *International Wound Journal*, 21(2), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1111/iwj.14398>
52. Tateiwa, T., Masaoka, T., Ishida, T., Shishido, T., Takahashi, Y., & Yamamoto, K. (2020). Surgical clothing and footwear impact operating room contamination during standstill and intraoperative stepping motion. *Journal of Orthopaedic Surgery (Hong Kong)*, 28(3). <https://doi.org/10.1177/2309499020976232>
53. Viet Hung, N., Anh Thu, T., Rosenthal, V. D., Tat Thanh, D., Quoc Anh, N., Le Bao Tien, N., & Ngo Quang, N. (2016). Surgical site infection rates in seven cities in Vietnam: Findings of the international nosocomial infection control consortium. *Surgical Infections*. <https://doi.org/10.1089/sur.2015.073>
54. Wang, Z., Zheng, J., Zhao, Y., Xiang, Y., Chen, X., Zhao, F., & Jin, Y. (2017). Preoperative bathing with chlorhexidine reduces the incidence of surgical site infections after total knee arthroplasty. *Medicine*, 96(47), e8321. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MD.0000000000008321>
55. Wodajo, S., Belayneh, M., & Gebremedhin, S. (2017). Magnitude and Factors Associated With Post-Cesarean Surgical Site Infection at Hawassa University Teaching and Referral Hospital, Southern Ethiopia: A Cross-sectional Study. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Sciences*. <https://doi.org/10.4314/ejhs.v27i3.10>
56. World Health Organization, (Who). (2011). Report on the Burden of Endemic Health Care-Associated Infection Worldwide - A systematic literature review. WHO Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data.
57. Zaver, V., & Kankanalu, P. (2023). Negative Pressure Wound Therapy. *StatPearls*.



**Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>. © The Author(s) 2025