

1 **Title: Contamination of Clinical White Coats with Potential Pathogens and their Antibiotic Resistant**
2 **Phenotypes Among a Group of Sri Lankan Medical Students**

3
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9 **Discussion Points:** The work described here looks at the possibility of the clinical white coats of medical
 10 students being contaminated with potential pathogens and their resistant phenotypes, highlighting the
 11 importance of their role as potential sources of infections #AMR, #medical_students, #srilanka #lka,
 12 #whitecoats, #antibioticresistance.

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1 **ABSTRACT.** Up to 250 words (249 words)

2 Background: Clinical white coats worn by the medical students can be contaminated at hospitals and act as a
3 potential reservoir for pathogens including antibiotic-resistant bacteria. This study aimed to identify the
4 contamination rates of clinical white coats worn by medical students with selected potential pathogens and their
5 antibiotic resistant phenotypes.

6 Methods: A cross-sectional study was done among 151 4th year medical students of Faculty of Medicine,
7 University of Peradeniya, Sri Lanka in September 2020. The participants belonged to two batches undergoing
8 clinical training at two settings. Swabs from pockets and sleeves of the clinical white coats were taken. Potential
9 pathogens and their resistant phenotypes were identified with routine tests.

10 Results: Fifty-three participants (35.1%) had coats contaminated with *Staphylococcus aureus*; 15 (9.9%) had
11 coats contaminated with Methicillin-Resistant *S.aureus* (MRSA). One *Enterobacteriales* (0.7%) was an *AmpC*
12 producer. *Enterococcus* species were isolated from 19 (12.6%) coats and 2 (1.3%) had coats contaminated
13 with vancomycin resistant enterococci. Molecular testing on the MRSA isolates identified that 5(20%) of the
14 MRSA isolates were *PVL* positive while all were *mecA* positive. Sex, type of clinical appointment, and frequency
15 of washing white coats were not associated with contamination. The “batch” was significantly associated with
16 contamination with *S.aureus* and *Enterococcus* species.

17 Conclusions: We found that clinical white coats worn by medical students recruited for the study were
18 contaminated with *S.aureus*, MRSA and *Enterococcus* species. There was a notably high-rate of contamination
19 with *S. aureus*. All MRSA isolates were *mecA* positive while the rate of *PVL* positivity was low.

20

21 **Key Words:** *Drug Resistance, Microbial; Infection control; Microbiology; Students medical*

22

1 **INTRODUCTION.**

2

3 Clinical white coats are worn by health-care workers including clinicians and medical students in many countries.
4 While most developed countries have moved away from clinical white coats to scrubs, white coats remain part
5 of the hospital attire in many developing countries including Sri Lanka.

6 Clinical white coats, however, are considered to be possible vehicles for transmission of pathogens.¹
7 Microorganisms may live on the fabric of clinical coats for several days, even up to three months.² Therefore,
8 these can act as potential reservoirs for the transmission of antibiotic resistant bacteria. Medical students spend
9 long hours in different clinical settings as per their training requirements, being in different venues such as
10 wards, clinics, and in-hospital teaching areas in the same attire. Therefore, contamination of their white coats
11 can contribute to horizontal transmission of potential pathogens from patient to patient as well as the spread of
12 those to different physical areas within health-care institutes. This could also lead to an increase in the rates of
13 health-care associated infections, including those caused by antibiotic resistant bacteria. Further, this may also
14 contribute to the spread of antibiotic resistant bacteria to the community.

15 This study aimed to describe the patterns of contamination of white coats among medical students in a Sri
16 Lankan medical school, with selected potential pathogens and their antibiotic resistant phenotypes; namely,
17 *Staphylococcus aureus*, Methicillin Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), *Enterobacterales* species,
18 Extended Spectrum Beta lactamase (ESBL) producing *Enterobacterales* and *AmpC* producing
19 *Enterobacterales*, *Enterococcus* species and vancomycin resistant *Enterococcus* (VRE) species.

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1 METHODS

2
3 This cross-sectional study conducted was among 4th year medical students of Faculty of Medicine, University
4 of Peradeniya, Sri Lanka in September 2020, before the attire of medical students were changed to scrubs. The
5 study site had two 4th year batches (Batch A and B). Clinical training for the two batches were conducted
6 predominantly in two institutes at the time of the study, Teaching Hospital, Peradeniya, Sri Lanka and National
7 Hospital, Kandy, Sri Lanka. All except those who were wearing short or three-quarter sleeved white coats were
8 eligible to participate in the study. A self-administered data collection sheet was used to gather demographic
9 data, current clinical appointment, predominant method of wearing the sleeve of the coat (rolled up or not),
10 frequency of washing the coat, the date of last washing of the coat and wearer's perception on cleanliness of
11 their white-coat. A pre-test was done on 10 medical students of the 3rd year batch before implementing the study
12 proper. Ethics approval was obtained from the ethics review committee of Faculty of Medicine, University of
13 Peradeniya, Sri Lanka (2020/EC/SP/01). Informed, written consent was obtained from participants.

14 Two sterile swabs, moistened with sterile 0.9% saline were used to obtain samples from pockets and the cuffs
15 of sleeves of each lab-coat as these are the sites frequently handled by the wearers and come in to contact with
16 patients, respectively. Swabs were collected by the investigators adhering to a pre-planned protocol, with
17 measures to prevent cross-contamination, inserted to individual plastic sheaths, transported to the lab
18 immediately and inoculated in 10 ml of Brain Hearn Infusion (BHI) broth (Oxoid, UK). BHI broth was incubated
19 overnight at 37°C. The next day, 10 µl each was plated on a Mannitol Salt agar (MSA) (Oxoid, UK) plate and a
20 MacConkey agar (Oxoid, UK) plate supplemented with Cefotaxime at 1 µg/ml (HiMedia, India) concentration to
21 screen for potential *Enterobacterales* and a Chromogenic agar plate (BioMaxima, Poland) to identify potential
22 *Enterobacterales* and *Enterococcus* species. All plates were prepared according to manufacturer's instructions.
23 Potential isolates were picked, and identified using routine biochemical testing [3].

24 *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates were tested for sensitivity to cefoxitin to identify MRSA and Methicillin Sensitive
25 *Staphylococcus aureus* (MSSA) isolates. Sensitivity to cefotaxime and ceftazidime were checked in the
26 *Enterobacterales* species to screen for possible ESBL producers. *Enterobacterales* species fulfilling the criteria
27 for potential ESBL producers were subjected combined disc testing and were also tested for *AmpC* production
28 with disc diffusion method (Mast, UK). Sensitivity to other relevant antibiotics were tested according to the CLSI
29 guidelines.⁴⁻⁶ Enterococci was tested for sensitivity to ampicillin with disc diffusion method and minimum
30 inhibitory concentration (MIC) for vancomycin (Sigma-Aldrich, Singapore) was tested using macro-broth dilution
31 method.⁷

32 DNA was extracted from the 20 MRSA isolates by boil lysis and presence of *PVL* and *mecA* genes were
33 assessed by previously established conventional PCR.^{8,9}

34 For analysis, medicine, pediatrics, and psychiatry appointments were groups together as medical appointments
35 while surgery, gynaecology and obstetrics and other surgical sub-specialties were grouped together as surgical
36 appointments. Wearers' perception on the cleanliness of the coat was thematically analyzed. Two themes
37 emerged as clean and contaminated, thereafter, these two themes was used as a binary variable in further
38 analysis.

39 In data analysis, percentages were calculated for contamination of white coats in each site with the selected
40 potential pathogens and their antibiotic resistant phenotypes. The Chi-square's test or Fishers Exact test were
41 used to test for associations while the Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare the differences in continuous

1 variable. A p-value of less than 0.05 was considered as statistically significant. All analysis was done on SPSS
2 (IBM) version 21.

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1 RESULTS.

2
3 A total of 151 participants were recruited. Of this, 72 (47.7%) were from 4th year batch A and 79 (53.3%) were
4 from 4th year batch B.

5 The numbers of female and male students were 78(51.7%) and 73 (48.3%) respectively. The mean number of
6 days from last washing to sample collection was 6.2 (SD 5.8) while the median was 4.0 (IQR 3 – 7) days. Other
7 parameters stratified in relation to the two batches are given in Table 1..

8 Among the 151 participants, *Staphylococcus aureus* was isolated from one or both swabs in 53 (35.1%)
9 participants. Coats of 15 of the 151 (9.9 %) participants were contaminated with Methicillin Resistant
10 *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) isolates. Twelve (7.9%) of the coats were contaminated with bacteria of the
11 order *Enterobacterales* with the tests used. None of the isolates were found to be ESBL producers; however,
12 one (0.7%) coat was contaminated with an *AmpC* producing *Enterobacterales* species. Nineteen (12.6%)
13 participants had coats that were contaminated with *Enterococcus* species and two (1.3%) participants had coats
14 contaminated with VRE (Table 2). The differences in contamination rates between pockets and sleeves were
15 not statistically significant.

16 At least one potential pathogen of interest was found to contaminate 74 (49.0%) of the coats while 18 coats
17 (11.9%) were contaminated with at least one of the resistant phenotypes of interest (MRSA, VRE or *AmpC*
18 producers). Ten (6.6%) coats were contaminated with two types of potential pathogens while 64 (42.4%) were
19 contaminated with only one type.

20 Contamination rates with *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Enterococcus* species was significantly different between
21 the two 4th year batches. Other parameters analyzed in relation to contamination with the selected bacterial
22 contaminations did not differ significantly and are given in Table 3.

23 Association between the pattern of wearing the sleeve (rolled up vs left long) and contamination with resistant
24 bacteria at the coat sleeve was assessed. There was no significant association between rolling up the sleeves
25 and colonization with *S. aureus* (18.8% vs 34.8%), MRSA (7.0% vs 8.7%) or *Enterococcus* species (6.3% vs
26 8.7%) ($p > 0.05$, Fisher's Exact test).

27 Among the 53 white coats contaminated with *Staphylococcus aureus*, 19 were contaminated only at sleeves of
28 coats, 21 only at pockets of coats and 13 at both sites; leading to a total of 66 *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates.
29 Among the *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates, 20 (30.30%) were MRSA while 46 (69.67%) were Methicillin
30 Sensitive *Staphylococcus aureus* (MSSA). The susceptibility rates for different antibiotics were higher among
31 the MSSA isolates than the MRSA isolates except for ciprofloxacin; [gentamycin (95.7% vs 85%), ciprofloxacin
32 (50% vs 70%), clindamycin (91.3% vs 70.0%), erythromycin (58.7% vs 45%) and tetracycline (95.7% vs 90%)]
33 Molecular testing on the MRSA isolates identified that five of the 20 MRSA isolates were *PVL* positive while all
34 were *mecA* positive.

35 Of the 20 *Enterococcus* isolates four were ampicillin resistant, two isolates were identified as VRE.

1 DISCUSSION.

2 The current study aimed to describe the pattern of contamination of clinical white coats with selected antibiotic
3 resistant bacteria. *Staphylococcus aureus* was isolated from swabs taken from 53 participants (35.1%). Out of
4 these, 53 participants with *Staphylococcus aureus* contaminating white coats, 15 were contaminated with MRSA
5 (9.9%). All the MRSA isolates were positive for *mecA* gene while only 5 were positive for *PVL* gene.

6 A number of studies had previously assessed the rates of *Staphylococcus aureus* contamination in clinical
7 white coats. Despite varying in frequency of contamination, *Staphylococcus aureus* has been identified as the
8 commonest isolate contaminating clinical white coats in many studies.^{1,10,11,12} Similarly, MRSA isolation rates
9 from white coats ranged from 3.5%¹³ to up to 79% (during outbreaks of infections in units).¹⁴ These differences
10 in contamination rates could be due to differences in institutional environments, infection prevention and control
11 measures as well as wearer habits such as performing hand hygiene.

12
13 While contamination rates of clinical white coats are not available for Sri Lanka, Munasinghe *et al* has reported
14 a colonization rate of 22.0% and 4.3% for *Staphylococcus aureus* and MRSA from nasal swabs obtained from
15 a group of university students of the same study site.⁹ In addition in the same study, 21.4% of the identified
16 MRSA were found to be *PVL* positive. We did not assess to see if the wearers of the coats were colonized with
17 any of the pathogens tested for. However, using the *PVL* positivity rate, it is clear that most of the isolates
18 obtained from the white coats are of hospital origin as the *PVL* positivity rates were lower in the current study
19 when compared to the colonization study, as *PVL* which is a virulence factor in MRSA is more commonly found
20 in isolates of community origin. All isolates were found to contain *mecA*. *MecA* gene codes for an altered in the
21 penicillin binding protein leading to resistance in beta-lactam drugs.^{15,16}

22 Nineteen (12.6%) participants of the present study had coats that were contaminated with *Enterococcus* species
23 and two of them (1.3%) were vancomycin resistant. A study by C. Kannangara *et al.* has shown that vancomycin
24 resistant enterococci (VRE) rectal colonization rate of 5% among 218 patients in an intensive care unit of the
25 National Hospital of Colombo, Sri Lanka.¹⁷ It is obvious that VRE isolates are circulating in health-care settings
26 in Sri Lanka and that contaminated cloths may act as a vehicle of transmission. Given the possibility of horizontal
27 gene transfer for vancomycin resistance, this is a concerning situation.

28 Twelve (7.9%) of the coats of participants were contaminated with *Enterobacterales* and none of the isolates
29 were found to be ESBL producers. However, one (0.7%) coat was contaminated with an *AmpC* producing
30 *Enterobacterales* species. A study done at Kilimanjaro Christen Medical Center in Tanzania, found that 3 out of
31 180 coats were contaminated with *E. coli*.¹² This, and other studies indicate that contamination of clinical white
32 coats with Gram negative isolates is relatively uncommon than contamination with Gram positive isolates. While
33 our study did not identify any ESBL producers to contaminate clinical white coats, ESBL producers are common
34 in Sri Lankan hospitals and the community, both as causative agents for infections and as colonizers.^{9,18}
35 However, clinical white coats are usually dry environments and Gram negatives do not usually thrive in such
36 conditions unlike *Staphylococcus aureus* or *Enterococcus* spp.

37 In this study rate of contamination of clinical white coats with *S. aureus*, MRSA, *Enterobacterales* and
38 *Enterococcus* was assessed in relation to several variables such as sex, batch, current clinical appointment,
39 frequency of washing, and one's perception of cleanliness of his/her clinical white coats. Out of these variables,
40 only the batch was found to have a statistically significant association with the rate of contamination. Batch A
41 had a significantly higher contamination rate with *Enterococcus* species while batch B has a higher rate of

1 contamination with *Staphylococcus aureus*. At the time of the study, the two batches had their clinical training
2 at two hospitals, where the predominant environmental contaminants may be different and this may explain the
3 difference in contamination rates. Further, the frequency of washing coats significantly differed between the two
4 batches, however, the impact of this on the association with different potential pathogen remains to be explored
5 further. It is of interest to note that the frequency of washing and the duration since the last wash was not
6 significantly associated with contamination rates.

7 One major disadvantage of this study is that we did not look at the contamination with *Clostridium difficile*. This
8 was not possible as the study site lacked anaerobic culture facilities. Further, we selected these isolates to focus
9 on as funding limitations prevented us from focusing on all ESKAPE pathogens

10 In conclusion, we have identified a considerable high rate of contamination with potential pathogens, particularly
11 Gram positive isolates. This is a reason for concern. Further, association of *Staphylococcus aureus* and
12 *Enterococcus* species with the batches, where the main difference was the hospital where they were trained,
13 indicates that hospital environment may play a bigger role on this.

14 The current study highlights the importance of establishing a mechanism to ensure that attire worn in health-
15 care settings, are cleaned frequently. While our study population is from a single university, in the current times
16 of global travel, these findings are of global concern. With the escalation of the COVID-19 pandemic, Sri Lankan
17 universities transitioned from white coats to scrubs as the attire for medical students. We hope this would have
18 had a positive impact on the possible contamination with potential pathogens as scrubs are worn next to skin,
19 and therefore, unlike white coats are likely to be washed more frequently.

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1 **SUMMARY - ACCELERATING TRANSLATION**

2

3 Contamination of white coats with germs

4

5 Clinical white coats were going out of practice in many countries but in some countries like Sri Lanka it continued
6 to be a part of the attire of medical students till the emergence of COVID-19 pandemic. In this study we took
7 samples from 151 white coats worn by medical students attached to the Faculty of Medicine, University of
8 Peradeniya, Sri Lanka and tested to see if any germs causing infections are found in those. Regular laboratory
9 methods were used in the testing and samples were obtained from the cuffs and pockets of the white coats. We
10 identified three types of infection causing germs in the coats. We also found two types of germs that are
11 resistant to antibiotics, namely methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) in 15 (9.9%) coats and
12 vancomycin resistant enterococci (VRE) 2 (1.3%) in two. We emphasize the importance of having strict
13 guidelines to ensure that those who wear white coats including medical students clean them more frequently so
14 that their role as potential reservoirs of germs may be lessened.

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1 **FIGURES AND TABLES.**

2

3 Table 1: Description of the Study Population

Variables		All participants n (%)	Batch A	Batch B	Difference
Sex	Male	73 (48.3 %)	40 (55.6%)	33 (41.8%)	0.10
	Female	78 (51.7 %)	32 (44.4%)	46 (58.2%)	
Appointment ¹	Medical	86 (57 %)	47 (65.3%)	39 (49.4%)	0.07
	Surgical	65 (43 %)	25 (34.7%)	40 (50.6%)	
Frequency of washing ²	< 1 once a week	118 (78.1 %)	62 (86.1%)	56 (70.9%)	0.03*
	> Once a week	33 (21.8 %)	10 (13.9%)	23 (29.1%)	
Perception ²	Clean	30 (24 %)	12 (18.5%)	18 (30.0%)	0.147
	Contaminated	95 (76 %)	53 (81.5%)	42 (70.0%)	
Time since washing the coat	Median (IQR)	4.0 (3 – 7)	3 (3 – 5)	4 (3- 10)	0.003 [^]

4 1 – For analytical purposes medicine, pediatrics and psychiatry considered as medical appointments while
 5 surgery, gynaecology and obstetrics and other surgical sub-specialties were considered as Surgical
 6 appointments

7 2- Only 125 (83.8%) participants presented their perception on cleanliness of the coats

8 * Chi-square test, ^ Mann-Whitney U test

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10 Table 2- Summary of Colonization Rates

Organism	Sleeves only N (%)	Pockets only N(%)	Both N(%)	Either of the sites or both N(%)
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	19 (12.6%)	21 (13.9%)	13 (8.6%)	53 (35.1%)
MRSA	6 (4%)	4 (2.6%)	5 (3.3%)	15 (9.9%)
Enterobacterales species	5 (3.3%)	5 (3.3%)	2 (1.3%)	12 (7.9%)
ESBL producers	0	0	0	0
AmpC producers	0	1 (0.7%)	0	1 (0.7%)
<i>Enterococcus</i> species	9 (6.0%)	9 (6.0%)	1 (0.7%)	19 (12.6%)
VRE	0	2 (1.3%)	0	2 (1.3%)

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2 Table 3 - Association of Variables Studied with Contamination of Coats

Variable		Contamination with <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>			Contamination with MRSA			Contamination with <i>Enterococcus</i> spp		
		Contamination absent	Contamination present	Significance	Contamination absent	Contamination present	Significance	Contamination absent	Contamination present	Significance
Sex	Male (n=73)	52 (71.2 %)	21 (28.8 %)	0.11	64 (87.7 %)	9 (12.3 %)	0.34	62 (84.9%)	11 (15.1%)	0.37
	Female (n=78)	46 (59.0 %)	32 (41.0 %)		72 (92.3 %)	6 (7.7%)		70 (89.7%)	8 (10.3%)	
Batch	4 th year batch A (n=72)	53 (73.6 %)	19 (26.4 %)	0.03*	66 (91.7 %)	6 (8.3%)	0.53	56 (77.8%)	16 (22.2%)	0.001*
	4 th year batch B (n=79)	45 (57.0 %)	34 (43.0 %)		70 (88.6 %)	9 (11.4%)		76 (96.2%)	3 (3.8%)	
Appointment	Medical (n=86)	58 (67.4%)	28 (32.6%)	0.45	78 (90.7%)	8 (9.3%)	0.77	76 (88.4%)	10 (11.6%)	0.68
	Surgical (n=65)	40 (61.5 %)	25 (38.5 %)		58 (89.2 %)	7 (10.8 %)		56 (86.2%)	9(13.8%)	
Frequency of washing	<=1 once a week (n=118)	78 (66.1 %)	40 (33.9 %)	0.56	107 (90.7 %)	11 (9.3 %)	0.74	102 (86.4%)	16 (13.6%)	0.77
	> Once a week (n=33)	20 (60.6 %)	13 (39.4 %)		29 (87.9 %)	4 (12.1 %)		30 (90.9%)	3 (9.1%)	
Perception	Clean (n=30)	20 (66.7 %)	10 (33.3%)	0.86	26 (86.7 %)	4 (13.3%)	0.29	29 (96.7%)	1 (3.3%)	0.07
	Contaminated (n=95)	65 (68.4 %)	30 (31.6%)		88 (92.6 %)	7 (7.4%)		78 (82.1%)	17 (17.9%)	
Time since coats were cleaned	Mean (SD)	6.51 (6.6)	5.61 (3.9)	0.62	6.1 (5.9)	7.4 (4.5)	0.07	6.22 (6.0)	6.05 (4.4)	0.94
	Median (IQR)	3.5 (3 – 8)	4 (3 – 7)		4 (3 – 6)	5 (3 – 11)		4 (3 – 7)	3 (3 – 8.5)	

* Chi-square test

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