A Diversity of Bacterial Spp. on Hand Surfaces in Public Buses Plying Kenyatta National Hospital 7c Route-Nairobi

ABSTRACT (ARIAL, BOLD, 11 FONT, LEFT ALIGNED, CAPS)

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> **Aims:** To determine the pathogenic bacteria and the antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of bacterial isolates obtained from transport service buses operating between Kencom station within Nairobi central business district (CBD) and Kenyatta National Hospital (KNH) stage. **Study design:** Purposeful sampling technique was applied targeting public buses plying Central Business District (CBD) and Kenyatta National Hospital (KNH) route in Nairobi. **Place and Duration of Study:** Hand and grab rails in public buses operating between Kencom stage in Nairobi's CBD and Kenyatta National Referral Hospital were sampled for bacterial contamination during May and July 2015.

<mark>2010</mark>.

Methodology: A total of <u>30</u> swab samples were collected from 30 hand-touch sites using sterile moist cotton swabs then cultured on three media including MacConkey agar, Mannitol salt agar and Eosin Methyl Blue agar (EMB). Characterization of isolates was by morphological and biochemical features. Antimicrobial susceptibility profile tests using eight antibiotics including tetracycline, sulphamethoxazole, chloramphenicol, kanamycin, gentamycin, ampicillin, co-trimoxazole and streptomycin were also undertaken.

Results: The frequency from a total of 45 isolates indicated the following prevalence: *Staphylococcus aureus 33%, Escherichia coli 24%, Staphylococcus epidermidis 18%, Klebsiella* species 11% and *Pseudomonas* species 13%. The antimicrobial resistance profiles of the isolates indicated *E. coli* isolates had the highest resistance to five antibiotics, *Klebsiella* spp. to four, *Staphylococcus aureus* to three, *Staphyloccus epidermidis* and *Pseudomonas* spp. to only one antibiotics. Isolates were predominantly resistant to ampicillin (100%) followed by co-trimoxazole and streptomycin but were instead sensitive to gentamycin followed by tetracycline, sulphamethoxazole and chloramphenicol.

Conclusion: These findings revealed the hand-touch sites in public buses are contaminated with potentially pathogenic and antibiotic resistant bacterial spp. Despite the small sample size in this study, the presence of antibiotic resistant isolates in this critical commuter route in Nairobi is an appropriate representation and illustration of the serious public health risks of community acquiring infections from the hospital environments through the buses. Therefore, this study creates awareness for the need of stringent sanitary measures in public bus and hygienic practices among commuters to forestall community acquired infections.

Keywords: Bacteria, pathogens, transmission, antimicrobial, resistance, hand-touch, surfaces, public, buses, Nairobi.

16 **1. INTRODUCTION**

17 The rural to urban migration, particularly to major cities notably the capital city of Nairobi still 18 pervades Kenya despite the new devolution system of government in 2013. It is estimated 19 that out of the 3 million people residing in Nairobi, among those using vehicles to reach work 20 stations, about 85% use public transport system. The design of Nairobi is such that the 21 southern region including upper hill and community area constitute a critical hub holding the 22 headquarters of numerous governmental ministries. Both the largest public referral and 23 private health facilities, Kenyatta National hospital (KNH) and Nairobi Hospital, respectively 24 are also located in the community hub. Two routes connect the CBD and the community 25 area therefore constitute the artery routes used daily by passenger vehicles ferrying 26 hundreds of workers to and from their stations as well patients and relatives visiting the 27 hospitals. The main route (7C) is frequently used by public buses on CBD-KNH route, and 28 compared to other Nairobi city routes, its uniqueness, for which it was purposely targeted in this study was owing to the possibility of transmission of pathogenic nosocomial bacteria to 29 30 the community by passenger patients and hospital visitors via the buses.

31 Previous similar studies in other capital cities including Lisbon, Portugal established 32 contamination of public buses and the transfer of the bacteria to the hands of passengers 33 represent a route through which hospital-acquired MRSA clones may spread to the 34 community [1]. In another study in United Kingdom, an increase in respiratory infections 35 including colds and flus was established among persons who travelled in public bus for five 36 days [2]. Similar findings have been documented from other major cities including Bangkok 37 [3] and London [4]. It has been recognized that overcrowding in small enclosed spaces, 38 inadequate ventilation, recirculation of contaminated air, increased duration of exposure and 39 susceptibility of exposed people increase the likelihood of airborne disease transmission [5]

40 In transport built environments, humans and environmental sources (mobile and fixed) are 41 the major reservoir of biological agents. Respiratory droplets produced by infected 42 individuals during different expiratory activities (talking, coughing, and sneezing) may contain 43 pathogens. These droplets either settle or remain suspended in the air as droplet nuclei 44 depending on their composition and size at the time of release. In addition to the airborne 45 route, the dispersion and transfer of infectious agents deposited on various surfaces/materials/matrix (e.g. skin or in respiratory secretions, to hands and/or to high-46 47 touch surfaces e.g. doorknobs, staircase railings, seats, escalator hand rails, chair arms, 48 grab rails, cash machines, phone, ticket machines) also offer a major transmission pathway 49 [6].

50 Crowding is a common feature in various urban transport modes and transport hubs. 51 Further, the growing emphasis on energy efficiency and the resultant changes in design, 52 construction and operation of various transport built environments particularly, airtight 53 structured and high space usage efficiency in public buses may lead to increased vulnerability of these environments to airborne disease transmission. For example, at 54 55 present, Nairobi is facing chronic overcrowding and traffic jams on public transport, 56 especially during peak rush hours. Therefore, travelling in jams with symptomatic individuals, especially during pandemics, in crowded and poorly ventilated public transport could 57 58 increase the risk of infection transmission via direct or indirect contact [7]. In a study in 59 Bangkok, Thailand, elevated levels of bacteria (>550cfu/m³) were established in public 60 buses [3].

The common public transport used by commuters in Nairobi includes small capacity vehicles locally known as *matatus*, minibuses and large buses. Their cheapness makes them 63 amenable to both the lower and middle class Nairobians. Those who may have private cars 64 among the middle class still prefer the public buses over the expensive cabs and also due 65 the persistent traffic jams in the city. However, it has been established that besides the 66 tropical warm tropical condition in Nairobi, the design and warm ambient conditions of these 67 public vehicles not only act as ideal reservoir of pathogenic microbes but also play a critical 68 role in their transmission. The various hand-touch sites within public service buses and the 69 accumulation of bacteria on in-built surfaces and objects such as hand and grab rails, seat 70 fabrics and doors is becoming a great public health concern [3]. Similarly, oils on the human 71 skin surface, dust particles in the vehicles air micro-habitats; grime, moisture and warmth 72 from heat accumulation during traffic jams in tropical cities provide an ideal environment for 73 these microbes to proliferate. Further, the habit of carrying beverages and eating food in 74 public vehicles leaves rich particulate substrates ideal for microbial growth on various bus 75 surfaces of buses [8]. This phenomena may result in infections owing to the successful 76 interaction between infectious agents, hosts (passengers) and transmission pathways 77 (buses contact surfaces).

78 Public transport buses may contain a variety of dangerous bacteria, including genus 79 Escherichia, Salmonella, cold virus and Staphylococcus including Methicillin-resistant 80 Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) and Streptococcus [9]. Hand-touch sites can become 81 contaminated with staphylococci and may be fomites for the transmission of bacteria between humans. Such sites could provide a reservoir for community-associated MRSA 82 83 (CA-MRSA) in high prevalence areas. MRSA and other pathogens are shed by infected 84 patients leading to contaminated bus surfaces. This can contribute to nosocomial to 85 community transmission of pathogens [10]. Findings from a study in London found 9 (8%) of 86 the 112 samples taken from hand-touch surfaces in the public transport system and in public 87 areas of a hospital were positive for S. aureus but no MRSA was isolated. However, these microbes may not only cause nosocomial infections but may cause opportunistic diseases 88 89 among the general public as well, particularly among the immunocompromised [4].

90 Additionally, re-emerging airborne infectious diseases, for instance, tuberculosis (TB), have 91 a worldwide public health impact. In 2013, there were 9 million incident cases worldwide and 92 multidrug-resistant TB (MDRTB), extensively drug-resistant TB (XDR-TB) and TB/HIV co-93 epidemics are serious global health concerns [11]. Coincidentally, the majority of TB 94 incidents were in Africa, Southeast Asia and Western Pacific regions. The public transport 95 built environments in such countries with a high burden of TB together with poor airborne disease control measures may become hubs for the airborne spread of disease [12]. At 96 97 present, we are living with a constant risk of an influenza pandemic, and this could have a significant effect on global public health. Studies from countries with high TB incidence has 98 99 shown that public transportation, often crowded and poorly ventilated, may play a critical role 100 in transmission and sustaining TB infection [13]. Therefore, it was of great interest in this 101 study to target isolating bacteria from public buses transiting between city center at Kencom 102 bus stage and Kenyatta National Hospital. No such studies have been undertaken or 103 documented before. Previously, a study in 2015 focused only on managerial problems facing 104 public transportation in Nairobi [14]. Therefore findings from this research will lay a critical 105 foundation for future studies on public buses hygiene and microbiological safety not only in 106 Nairobi but other major towns in Kenya including Mombasa, Nakuru, Eldoret and Kisumu. 107

108 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

109 2.1 Study site

110 The study was undertaken at Kenyatta National Hospital bus station whereby samples were 111 collected from the hand and grab rails surfaces within the buses. These buses operate 112 between Kencom and Kenyatta National Hospital bus stations with 7C as the designate 113 route number. The Kencom-KNH route is one of the main artery linking Central Business 114 District (CBD) and the Community area that is hub to many ministerial government offices. It 115 also links the CBD with the KNH, the largest public teaching and referral hospital in Nairobi. 116 The buses operating this route were chosen because they ferry people of diverse spectrum 117 ranging from government officers, the sick both from Nairobi and countryside going for 118 treatment at KNH and also those visiting the sick alongside those who have just been 119 discharged from hospital.

120 **2.2 Sample Size and Collection**

A total of thirty samples were obtained from hand and grab rails in selected 60 seater public buses operating between Kencom and KNH. Samples were obtained from 2 cm × 4 cm sections using sterile cotton swabs moistened with normal saline as described by [6]. The swabs then supposedly laden with microbes were put into clean sterile containers before being capped well to avoid contamination. They were then transported to the JKUAT Medical Microbiology laboratory for analysis.

127 **2.3 Laboratory culture of the isolates and Morphological Characterization**

The swabs were then enriched with buffered peptone water then incubated for 24hrs at 37°
C. The enriched swabs were then inoculated onto three differential culture media:
MacConkey agar, Mannitol salt agar and EMB agar plates. Incubation was undertaken for 24
hours at 37° C. The isolates were then sub cultured on nutrient agar to obtain pure colonies
for further identification.

Bacterial isolates were first differentiated by macroscopic examination of the colonies. The colonies were differentiated based on size, colour, pigmentation, elevation, surface texture, and margin, and lactose fermentation on MacConkey agar. Gram stain technique to distinguish between gram positive and negative isolates was undertaken acccording methods described by [15].

138 **2.4 Biochemical characterization of the isolates**

The isolates were subjected to an array of biochemical tests for confirmation of species identity according to methods described by [16]. A total of 45 isolates were characterized using the following tests:

142 **2.4.1 Indole production Test**

The bacterial isolates were tested for their ability to degrade amino acid tryptophan with the
 production of indole. The test organisms were inoculated into tryptone broth by means of
 stab inoculation. The tubes were then incubated at 37⁰C for 24hrs. After incubation, 3 drops
 of Kovac's reagent are added to all the cultures and observed for red coloration. Formation

147 of a red ring indicated a positive indole test.

148 **2.4.2 Methyl red test**

149The test was carried out on recovered organisms to determine their ability to oxidize glucose150with the production and stabilization of high concentration of acid end products. The isolated151organisms were inoculated into tubes with MR-VP broth by means of loop inoculation. The152tubes were then incubated at 37° C for 24hrs. Three drops of methyl red indicator were153added later to all the tube cultures and colour change observed. A red coloration signified a154positive reaction.

155 **2.4.3 Coagulase test**

This test was done to confirm the presence of *Staphylococcus aureus*. The isolates were
 inoculated in plasma and incubated at 37°C for 24hrs. After incubation, a clot formation is
 observed. Clot formation indicates production of coagulase enzyme which is an enzyme that
 clots blood plasma and is a virulence factor of *S. aureus*.

160 **2.4.4 Citrate utilization test**

The microorganisms were tested for the ability to utilize citrate as the sole source of carbon
 and energy for growth and ammonia salt as the sole source of nitrogen. The microorganisms
 were inoculated on the surface of Simmon's citrate agar slants by means of a stab-and streak inoculation medium and incubated at 37°C for 24hrs. Growth and colour change of
 the cultures were observed. A deep Prussian blue colour confirmed a positive reaction

3.4.5 Triple sugar iron agar test

167 The organisms were tested for their ability to utilize glucose and lactose or sucrose 168 fermentative and produce hydrogen sulphide. The test organisms were inoculated into agar 169 slants by means of stab-streak inoculation then incubated for 24hrs at 37⁰C and observed 170 for growth and colour changes. A yellow butt and slant signaled utilization of glucose / or 171 lactose.

3.4.6 Catalase test

173The microorganisms were tested for the ability to degrade hydrogen peroxide by producing174the enzyme catalase. The evolution of gas causes bubbles to form and this is an indicative175of a positive test. Each test isolate was placed on clean glass slides to which 3 drops of 3%176 H_2O_2 was added, observations were made for the effervescence.

177 3.4.7 SIM Test

178 This test is for hydrogen Sulphide, Indole and Motility of the organism. The isolates were 179 inoculated onto the medium by a swab and stab type methods then Incubated for about 24 180 hours. The Indole aspect of the test was performed by adding Kovac's reagent to the 181 inoculated medium. The Motility aspect of the test was done by checking the medium for 182 turbidity.

183 **3.5 Antimicrobial susceptibility tests**

184 Susceptibility of the test strains to conventional antibiotics was determined by the Kirby-185 Bauer disk-diffusion technique according to the recommendations of Clinical and Laboratory 186 Standards Institute guidelines [17]. A loopful of test organisms were inoculated into a prepared nutrient agar broth, incubated for 24 hours at 37⁰C. From the broth, 0.1ml of the 187 188 culture was flooded into a freshly prepared Mueller Hinton agar plate. Using sterile forceps, 189 the sensi-disks were placed on top of the agar plate to test for sensitivity of each isolate 190 against the following eight antibiotics; Ampicillin (25 mcg), Tetracycline (25 mcg), Co-191 Trimoxazole (25 mcg), Streptomycin (10 mcg), Kanamycin (30 mcg), Gentamycin(10 mcg), 192 Sulphamethxazole (200 mcg) and Chloramphenicol(30 mcg). The plates were then be 193 incubated at 37^oC for 24 hours. A total of 45 isolates were screened. Susceptibility test 194 results were interpreted using the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute guidelines [16], 195 where the isolates were considered to be susceptible or resistant.

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197 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

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199 **3.1 Results and Discussion on Prevalence of Bacterial spp.**

A total of 45 bacterial isolates belonging to five spp. were obtained from the 30 samples collected from bus-hand and grab rails. The gram negative bacteria isolated included *Klebsiella* species, *Pseudomonas* spp and *Escherichia coli* while *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis* were the isolated gram positive bacteria. The species identity as revealed from biochemical characterization results are indicated in Table 1.

205 The prevalence of the bacteria isolated demonstrated Staphylococcus spp. had the highest 206 frequency of contamination (33%), whereas Klebsiella spp. was the least isolated with 207 incidence of 11%. Prevalence for E.coli was 24%, S.epidermidis 18% and Pseudomonas 208 spp, 13% (Figure 1). The presence of high levels of S. aureus could be attributed to the fact 209 that is part of normal flora, found in the mucous membrane and skin of human. The findings 210 on diversity of organisms isolated in this study which indicated that Staphylococcus spp. 211 (33%) as the most prevalent isolate is in agreement with previous similar studies by [18, 19]. 212 Studies from Colombia on bacterial contamination of public buses also established that 213 S.aureus was the most prevalent contaminant [20]. Regarding contamination by enterics, 214 findings from this study established *E.coli* as the most predominant (24%). Similar findings 215 have been established from bacterial contamination on hand surfaces of public buses in 216 Chittang city, Bangladesh where its prevalence was 46.5 % [21]. The presence of high levels 217 of S. aureus could be attributed to the fact that is part of normal flora, found in the mucous 218 membrane and skin of human. In fact it is found in 25% of healthy individuals. Detection of 219 bacteria of faecal origin on hand and grab rails was high. Though the presence of such 220 bacteria is probably not a health hazard in itself, it is indicative of a failure of hygiene, and 221 more specifically a failure to wash hands after contact with faecal matter [22].

222 Several studies have indicated that various bacteria, including E. coli, S. aureus and 223 Pseudomonas species survive on hands, sponges/cloths door knobs etc for hours or days 224 after initial contact with the microorganism [2]. In a study conducted at Sokoine University, 225 Tanzania, the results on prevalence of bacterial loads from the different surfaces in student's 226 toilets were: Staphylococcus aureus 25%, Escherichia coli 36.7%, Pseudomonas aeruginosa 227 13.3%, Proteus mirabilis 6.7%, Klebsiella pneumoniae 11.6% and Streptococcus pyogenes 228 6.7% [23]. The predominant prevalence of S.aureus and E.coli in the toilets is similar to the 229 prevalence patterns as demonstrated in the current study, both being crowded public 230 settings.

Isolate	TSI Agar				SIM						Bacterial spp.
	Slant	Butt	Gas	H_2S	Motility	Indole	MR	Citrate	Urease	Cat	
B1	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	S. aureus
B2	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	S. aureus
B3	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	S. aureus
B4	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	S. epidermidis
B5	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	E.coli
B6	_	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	Pseudomonas spp
B7	_	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	Pseudomonas spp
B8	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	_	-	Klebsiella
B9	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	E. coli
B10	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	KlebsiellaSpp
B11	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	E .coli
B12	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	Pseudomonas spp
B13	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	E. coli
B14	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	KlebsiellaSpp
B15	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	E. coli

231 Table 1: Biochemical characterization result of the isolates

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233 **KEY**:

TSI-Triple sugar iron,

Cat-Catalase

235 SIM- Sulphur indole motility, MR- Methyl red

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239 Figure 1. Incidence of bacterial isolates obtained.

3.2 Results and Discussion on Antibiotic Sensitivity Profiles

All the 45 bacterial isolates were subjected to antibiotic sensitivity tests where 8
antibiotics including: ampicillin, streptomycin, tetracycline, chloramphenicol,
sulphamethoxazole, co-trimoxazole, kanamycin, and gentamycin were used.

248 The results for antimicrobial resistance was profiled according to the five species against 249 the eight antibiotics (Table 2). The most outstanding finding is that none of the 45 250 isolates recovered from the 30 hand-touch sites demonstrated resistance to all the 8 251 antibiotics. However, E. coli isolates indicated predominant resistance recording the highest resistance to five antibiotics including: ampicillin,co-trimoxazole,streptomycin, 252 chloramphenicol and sulphamethoxazole. 253 Klebsiella spp. was resistant to four 254 antibiotics including: ampicillin, streptomycin, chloramphenicol and tetracycline. 255 Staphylococcus aureus was resistant to three including: ampicillin, co-trimoxazole and streptomycin. Staphyloccus epidermidis and Pseudomonas spp. were each resistant to 256 257 only two antibiotics namely ampicillin and co-trimoxazole. 258

259 Isolates were predominantly resistant to ampicillin where all the five spp., representing 260 the 45 isolates indicated resistance. Similarly, all spp. except Klebsiella were resistant co-trimoxazole while three spp. including Staphylococcus aureus, Klebsiella and E.coli 261 262 were resistant to streptomycin. Two spp. namely Klebsiella and E.coli showed resistance to chloramphenicol while E.coli and Klebsiella were each resistant to one antibiotic, 263 264 namely sulphamethoxazole and Tetracyline, respectively. In contrast, all the five spp. 265 indicated sensitivity to gentamycin and Kanamycin while sulphamethoxazole and 266 Tetracyline indicated the lowest resistance (Table 2).

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Bacterial Antibiotic spp. Total: Sulphamethoxazole Resistance out of Chloramphenicol Co-trimoxazole 8 antibiotics Streptomycin Gentamycin Tetracycline Kanamycin Ampicillin N=8 R R R R R R R R R Pseudomonas _ -_ + + n=6 S. epidermidis ------+ + 2 n=8 S.aureus + + + 3 _ _ -_ n=15 Klebsiella _ _ + _ + + -+ 4 n=5 E.coli 5 + + + + + --n=11 3 Total spp 0 0 1 2 4 5 1 (n<mark>=5</mark>)

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Table 2. Resistance profiles of the five bacterial spp. against eight antibiotics.

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273 Key: + :Resistance

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The findings from this study indicating that E. coli isolates recorded the highest resistance to 276 277 five out of the eight antibiotics tested including: ampicillin,co-trimoxazole,streptomycin, chloramphenicol and sulphamethoxazole are in agreement with findings by [21] which also 278 revealed that more than 90% of E.coli isolates were resistant to both amplicin and 279 280 chloramphenicol. The resistance patterns of E.coli as revealed in this study indicates that the 281 isolates are difficult to control by administration of commonly prescribed drugs. Similarly, 282 findings from thus study that demonstrated that all the five spp. were sensitivity to 283 gentamycin and Kanamycin are agreement with studies in public buses in Chittagong city, 284 Bangladesh by [21] which also established that all isolates were susceptible to gentamycin 285 and ciprofloxacin.

-: Sensitivity

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287 An outstanding feature from this study was Isolates were predominantly resistant to 288 ampicillin where all the five spp., representing the 45 isolates (100%) indicated resistance. 289 This is consistent with findings by [7] which established that 45% of S. aureus isolates were 290 resistant to ampicillin. Another remarkable observation from this study is the isolates, 291 S.epidermidis and Pseudomonas spp. that had the lowest resistance was towards two 292 antibiotics. The alarmingly high multi-drug resistance of these isolates clearly illustrates the 293 grave dangers of nosocomial drug resistant isolates transfer to the community via the public 294 buses. Since the samples from this study were isolated from public buses ferrying 295 passengers exiting directly from hospital it strongly demonstrates that the original source of 296 these isolates were hospital wards, structures and appliances within the hospital buildings 297 with which people get into contact during their stay. Subsequently, transfer the bacteria to 298 the bus hand-touch sites occur by health workers, out-patients and visitors upon leaving the 299 hospital. This poses a great danger in the event of horizontal transfer of virulent resistance 300 genes from nosocomial to community Staphyloccus isolates.

301 Staphylococcus aureus is primarily transmitted through direct contact with a colonized or 302 infected individual, or through a fomite intermediate [24, 25]. Hands are the critical 303 disseminators, particularly the hands of healthcare workers. Healthcare workers are 304 important in transmission for several reasons. First, they care for multiple patients 305 throughout the day, going from room to room, patient to patient. In this process, there are 306 countless occasions to touch infected or colonized patients and contaminated fomites. It has 307 been estimated that an ICU healthcare worker has an average of 43.4 opportunities for hand 308 washing per hour, per patient [26]. This high demanding standard of hygiene is laboriously 309 unattainable among health workers in the general wards thereby enhancing dissemination of 310 multi-drug resistant isolates. The scenario is even more precarious among the general 311 community members exiting the hospital who board the buses yet not having washed their 312 hands. Eating or drinking during travel, hands laden with bacterial loads acerbates the health 313 condition with high possibility of contracting foodborne, respiratary and skin diseases.

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Among the isolates that indicated the lowest resistant to the eight antibiotics, *S.epidermidis* was resistant to only two antibiotics namely ampicillin and co-trimoxazole. Although *S. epidermidis* is exclusively opportunistic, lacking many of the toxins produced by *S. aureus,* it can present a serious threat in immununocompromised individuals. Further, has been found to easily form biofilms on such as catheters and intubation devices, subsequently causing infections that are difficult to treat within the patients [27].

323 4.0 Conclusion

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325 The findings from this study, though are from a small sample size is a great contribution 326 owing to its being a pioneer study in Nairobi. It will fundamentally create awareness among 327 stallholders in the public transport industry in enhancing hygienic safety measures including 328 adoption of environmental and engineering controls focusing on reducing the concentration 329 of infectious agents. For instance, instead of the common three rows on the right side of the 330 buses, it should be reduced to two to avoid overcrowding and possibility of spread of 331 pathogens. Similarly use small-holder capacity buses of 25 passengers should be 332 encouraged instead of the 60 capacity. Further, the use of antimicrobial coatings on different 333 high-touch surfaces in public buses could also be adopted in order to prevent inanimate 334 surfaces acting as reservoirs of pathogenic organisms. The Nairobi county government in 335 collaboration with the management of KNH should install water taps at exit points from the 336 hospital premises so at to enable washing off of any microbes contracted in the hospital from 337 contaminating touch surfaces in buses

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