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Persistent Norovirus Outbreaks in a Hospital Setting – the Role of Environmental Contamination

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Dear Editor,

A recent review highlighted the healthcare burden of norovirus infections in China, prior to 2017. Norovirus infections occurred all year round, with 22-29% detection rates in children (6-35 months old) and adults (including the elderly), predominantly of norovirus GII.4 (70.4%).¹ Similarly, in England and Wales in 2016 there were 7795 laboratory reported cases of norovirus and acute gastroenteritis, which was estimated to cost the National Health Service up to £86 million annually in bed closures and staff absences,^{2,3} making norovirus the second-largest contributor of gastrointestinal disease hospital burden in England.⁴

Norovirus is the world's leading cause of gastroenteritis. Three of its seven genogroups (GI, GII, GIV) cause human infections and GII.4/Sydney/2012 is the current, dominant lineage globally. Transmission is faeco-oral, resulting in nosocomial outbreaks of diarrhoea and vomiting, typically peaking during winter. Multiple norovirus cases and outbreaks have occurred at our hospital throughout the non-winter months over several years, suggesting possible environmental contamination and reinfection of patients.⁵ To investigate this, a retrospective analysis of recent norovirus cases and selected environmental sampling on an outbreak ward were performed.

All laboratory-confirmed (on real-time PCR testing) norovirus positive clinical and environmental samples (with sufficient sample volume) from Jan2017-Jun2018 were included, and sent to the national reference laboratory (Enteric Virus Unit, PHE) for genotyping by sequencing methods used for national surveillance.⁶ Partial norovirus capsid protein VP1 (ORF2) sequences from these samples were aligned and edited with similar GenBank sequences. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic trees were constructed to reveal any correlation between the patient and environmental samples.

A total of 216 samples (mostly from general medical wards) were laboratory-confirmed norovirus positives during 2017-2018, of which 133 (41/66 from 2017; 92/146 from 2018) were sequenced. Of these, 6/216 (2.78%) were GII.7 and 127/216 (58.80%) were GII.4 viruses. The remainder of the samples (83/216, 38.42%) could not be sequenced, either due to insufficient sample

remaining, the sample having already been discarded, or a sequencing failure at the reference laboratory. Sequences consisted of partial VP1 sequences of approximately 300 bp in length.

In addition, environmental swabs (see **Fig 1**) were taken for norovirus detection and sequencing from one of the worst affected wards (Ward X, a care of the elderly ward). This included pre- and post-clean samples (**Figs 1a, 1b**) taken from one shared 6-bedded bay, one shared patient bathroom and two single patient isolation rooms. Routine cleaning for norovirus was performed manually on all surfaces, using clean, single-use, cloths dipped in a commercial troclosene sodium (sodium dichloroisocyanurate, NaDCC)-based cleansing agent ('Chlor-Clean', Guest Medical Ltd., Kent, England) at a concentration of 1000 parts per million. Both patient and environmental samples were taken using a commercial swab made of polyurethane foam collected into proprietary virus transport medium (Sigma Virocult, MWE Ltd., Corsham, England).

Of the total number of environmental swabs taken (100: 47 pre- and 53 post-clean), 28/100 were positive for norovirus RNA and contained sufficient virus for sequencing, of which 21/28 (75%) were pre-clean (all taken on 7/3/2018), and 7/28 (25%) were post-clean (all taken on 22/3/2018). None of the Ward X patients that were on this ward during this study period were actually admitted with vomiting and diarrhoea. Therefore these norovirus infections were acquired from the ward, either sporadically or during a ward outbreak, after their admission for other reasons.

The top of the phylogenetic tree (**Fig S1**, purple font) shows that separate GII.7 virus outbreaks occurred on the adult haematology (Ward H, Sep2017) and paediatric respiratory (Ward P2, Feb/Mar2018) wards, not thought to be epidemiologically linked. The UHL sequences are distinct (SH support 0.75) from the closest similar sequence from GenBank (black). No environmental samples were taken from these wards. However, the majority of the UHL GII.4 patient (blue) and Ward X environmental viruses detected during Dec2017-May2018 are most closely related to a 2016 GII.4 virus from Thailand, detected in human stool. Only 15 pre-clean (red) and 5 post-clean (green) environmental, and 86 patient samples were of sufficient sequence quality for inclusion in this final phylogenetic tree. Note that all virus detection was performed by PCR testing, which does not give any indication of virus viability.

One subset of UHL GII.4 patient viruses detected during Dec2017-Feb2018 are most closely related to a 2016 GII.4 virus from Bangladesh (detected in sewage) or a 2015 GII.4 virus from Australia, detected in human stool. A second subset of UHL GII.4 patient viruses detected during Jul2017 and Feb2018 appear to be more closely related to 2015/2016 GII.P16 GII.4 viruses from the USA, detected in human stool.

A closer examination of **Fig S1** (i.e. within the red boxes) shows that very similar viruses were found across several hospital wards during Mar2017-May2018, suggesting the long-term persistence of these viruses during this 15-month period, in either the environment and/or hospitalised patient population. Such long-term viral persistence may potentially infect future patients being admitted to these wards and this hospital.⁷ Deeper analysis of genetic similarity was limited by the use of an existing partial sequencing approach that was designed for another purpose (national surveillance); partial sequencing of both polymerase and capsid genes, or whole genome sequencing, could provide greater resolution in investigating potential transmission chains in the future.⁸⁻¹⁰

Therefore, the main findings from this investigation are i): both GII.4 and GII.7 noroviruses have been detected in UHL patients during Jan2017-Jun2018; ii) some of the patients from the 2017 and 2018 outbreaks were infected with very similar viruses, suggesting persistence of these same viruses in the environment or patient population for over a year; iii) the ward environmental contamination with norovirus may persist after deep cleaning.

As a result of the last finding, since mid-2018, we have reviewed and enhanced our ward cleaning methods at our hospital. One component of this included updating our hospital 'norovirus toolkit' which includes team action cards that identify the type of clean required. These now also include items that might have been missed previously, e.g. replacing patient anti-slip socks and the cleaning of any hospital-related patient footwear (e.g. Repose Boots) when they are moved into a clean bed-space.

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Figure 1a. Ward map showing layout and contents of patient rooms with selected sites for environmental sampling – before cleaning.

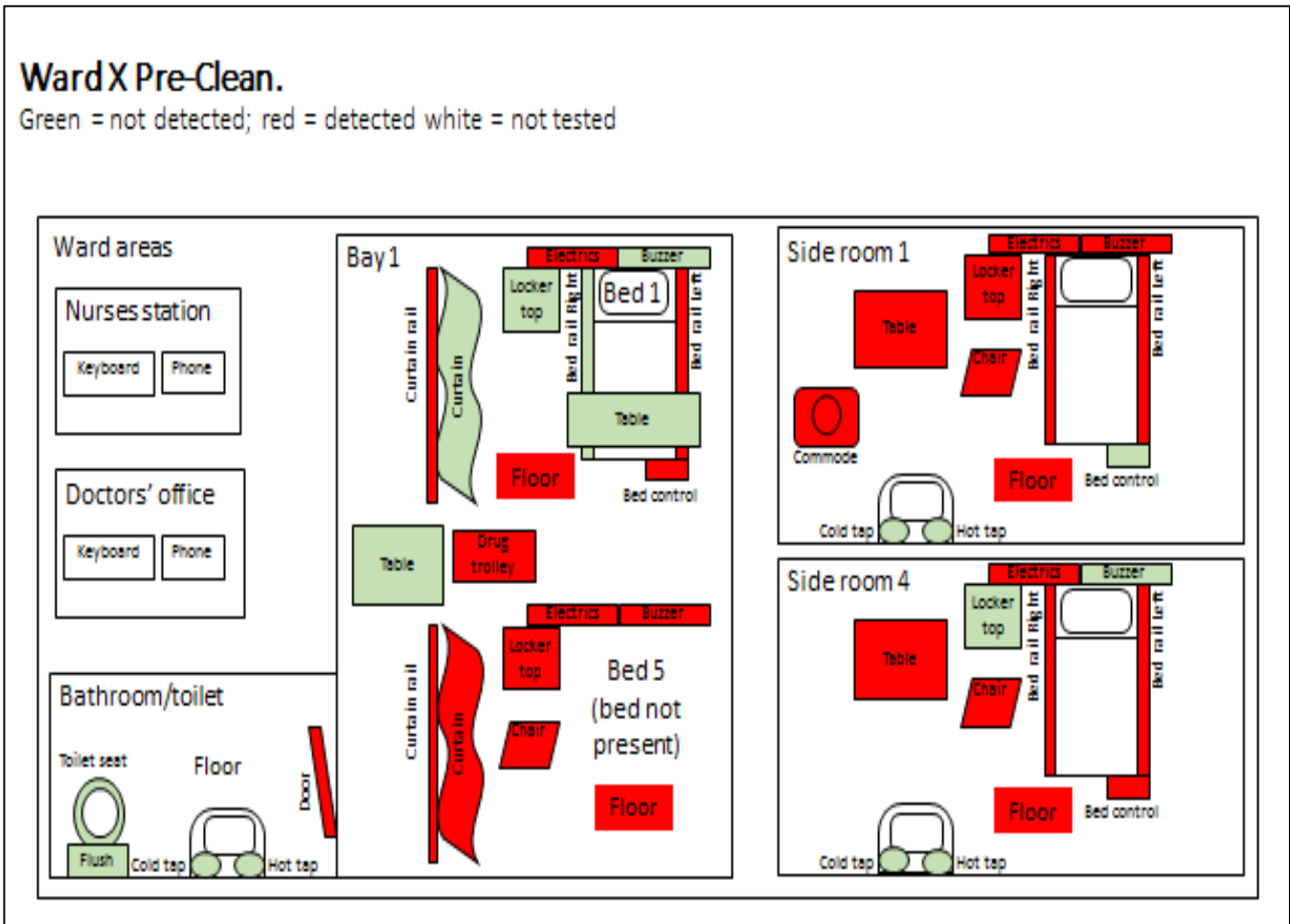


Figure 1b. Ward map showing layout and contents of same patient rooms with selected sites for environmental sampling – after cleaning.

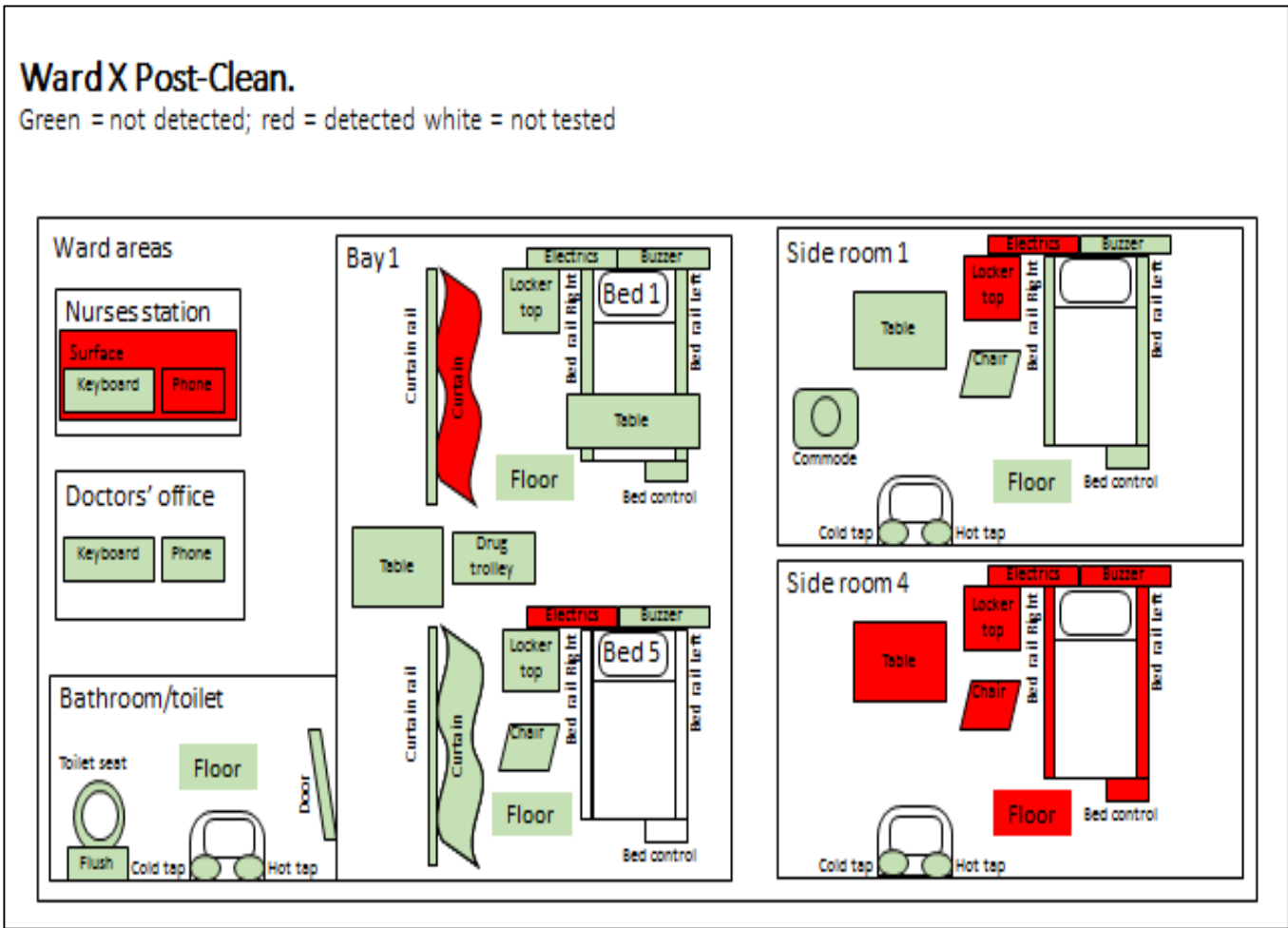


Figure S1. Leicester norovirus GII.7 Leeds/1990/UK patient viruses (purple font); GII.4 Sydney/2012/AUS viruses (patient viruses – blue font; environmental viruses: red font: pre-clean, green font: post-clean). Sequences in black font are the closest related sequences available from GenBank. Red boxes show the clusters containing both 2017 and 2018 viruses, suggesting possible persistence in the environment, and/or within the hospitalised patient population (ward names have been coded). This tree was reduced from a total of ~6800 similar VP1 sequences from GenBank, and further simplified from larger trees of about 150 GII.7 and 850 GII.4 sequences, respectively, including both partial and full genome VP1 sequences. Poor quality and/or overly short patient or environmental sequences (<200 bp) were manually removed from the final sequence alignment and phylogenetic tree construction (see annotations) using BioEdit v7.0.5: <http://www.mbio.ncsu.edu/BioEdit/bioedit.html>. Final sequence lengths after alignment and editing 289 bp. The tree was constructed under a GTR model of evolution using maximum likelihood within FastTree v2.1: <http://www.microbesonline.org/fasttree/>. Branch support: Shimodaira-Hasegawa-like support values.

