

Prevalence and Risk Factors for Surgical Site Infections among Patients in Referral Hospitals in Rwanda

Aloys Niyomugabo^{1*}, Madeleine Mukeshimana¹, Anita Collins¹, Felix Bongomin², Geldine Chironda^{1, 3}

¹*School of Nursing and Midwifery, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, University of Rwanda, Kigali, Rwanda*

²*Department of Medical Microbiology & Immunology, Gulu University, Gulu, Uganda*

³*Nursing Departments, Faculty of Health Sciences, St John of God University and Seed Global Health, Mzuzu, Malawi*

***Corresponding author:** Aloys Niyomugabo. School of Nursing and Midwifery, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, University of Rwanda, Kigali, Rwanda. Email: alonzi247@gmail.com, aloysoyomugabo@yahoo.com. ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0009-0000-5672-599X>

Cite as: Niyomugabo A, Mukeshimana M, Collins A, Bongomin F, Chironda G. Prevalence and Risk Factors for Surgical Site Infections among Patients in Referral Hospitals in Rwanda. *Rwanda J Med Health Sci.* 2024;7(2): 260-272. <https://dx.doi.org/10.4314/rjmhs.v7i2.14>

Abstract

Background

Post-operative surgical site infections (SSIs) are a global public health problem, disproportionately affecting developing countries. The purpose of this study was to identify the prevalence and risk factors for SSIs among patients admitted to tertiary hospitals in Rwanda.

Methods

A retrospective cross-sectional involving 396 medical files for surgical patients discharged between July 2020, and December 2021 to assess the prevalence and risk factors associated with surgical site infections. Univariate and multivariable logistic regression analyses were performed using SPSS version 25.

Results

Of 396 participants, 121 (30.6%) developed SSIs. SSIs were significantly associated with spending more than 120 minutes (COR = 2.87, 95% CI: 1.58-5.23) in operation and undergoing emergency admission (COR = 1.66, 95% CI: 1.08-2.57) were associated with higher odds of developing surgical site infections. In multivariable analysis, after controlling for covariates, spending more than 120 minutes in operation (AOR = 2.52, 95% CI: 1.29-4.93) and undergoing emergency admission (AOR = 1.68, 95% CI: 1.03-2.73) remained significantly associated with surgical site infections.

Conclusion

The 30.6% of surgical patients developed post-operative SSIs despite receiving prophylactic antibiotic. Therefore, regular infection surveillance and adherence to preoperative, intraoperative, and postoperative infection prevention measures are crucial to reduce the burden of SSIs.

Rwanda J Med Health Sci 2024;7(2):260-272

Keywords: Design, population, postoperative infection, retrospective study, study area, surgical patient, surgical wound

Background

Surgical site infections (SSIs) are defined as infections occurring up to 30 days after surgery or up to one year after surgery in patients receiving implants and affecting either the incision or deep tissue at the operation site.[1,2] SSIs remain a major cause of morbidity and mortality across the world for patients undergoing surgical operations.[3] SSIs range between 2% and 20% of patients post-surgery in the world. [4] Globally, it has been reported that more than one-third of postoperative deaths are related to SSIs.[5] The effects of SSIs on the patients include discomfort, delayed wound healing, readmission, longer hospital stay, increasing costs, gas gangrene, and tetanus. [1,6,7] In addition, Complications associated with SSIs may include wound dehiscence, bacteraemia, sepsis and abscess[8]

In the United States, SSIs are found to be a serious complication with an incidence ranging from 2 to 5% in patients undergoing surgery complicating approximately 300,000 to 500,000 surgeries per year and imposing a financial burden on the healthcare system that exceeds \$1.6 billion.[9] The prevalence survey conducted by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) revealed that in 2011, there were approximately 157,500 surgical site infections linked to inpatient surgical procedures.[10] In European countries, epidemiological surveillance conducted in 2017 revealed that among 648,512 surgical procedures, 10,149 SSIs were reported.[11]

The World Health Organization (WHO) identifies surgical site infection (SSI) as the most commonly monitored and prevalent healthcare-associated infection in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), with the potential to impact as many as one-third of individuals undergoing surgical procedures. [12] SSIs in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) affect 8 to 30% of surgical operation.[13] SSIs are associated with 38% of deaths in patients with such infections in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs). [14]

In African nations, SSIs is the most common complication following surgical procedures with approximately 20% of women undergoing caesarean section experiencing postoperative wound infections.[15] A study conducted in Nigeria in 2019 revealed that the overall incidence of surgical site infections (SSIs) among patients who underwent surgery was 27.6%.[16] Another study done in Cameroon in 2022 indicated that the incidence of surgical site infections (SSIs) among patients who underwent surgery was 12.2%, accompanied by a mortality rate of 2%.[17] The prevalence of SSIs post-major surgery in Uganda was 28.6%,[18] which is comparable with the infection rate in Tanzania, where the prevalence of SSIs was 26% ,[19] and the prevalence of SSIs in Ethiopia was 24.6%.[20]

In Rwanda, the prevalence of SSIs identified at Kirehe district hospital was 10.9% [21] for pregnant women who delivered by C/section, at Kabgayi hospital was 8.2%, [7] at University Teaching Hospital of Butare for pregnant women who underwent caesarean delivery was 4.9%.[22]

SSIs are influenced by many factors like specific setting in which surgery takes place, resources availability and external contamination risk, including use of improper surgical attire, improper techniques, and inadequate hand hygiene. [2,6] Patient-related factors include pre-existing infections, malnutrition, obesity, low serum albumin levels, being elderly, smoking, and immunosuppression, age, American Society of Anaesthesiologists (ASA) classification, Body Mass Index(BMI), wound classifications while surgery related factors include contaminated procedures, emergency surgery, inadequate sterilization, improper instrument handling, and antiseptic of surgical site, skills and experience of a surgeon, longer duration of surgery greater than 2 hours, duration of hospital stay, blood transfusion during surgery.[4,24]

SSIs can be reduced by up to 60% by implementing evidence-based practices such as antibiotic prophylaxis, care bundles, perioperative glucose management, and healthcare professional education.[23] According to National Institute For Health And Care Excellence (NICE) guideline for the management of postoperative wound, the post-operative SSI prevention and management can be done using proper cleaning and dressing of the wound, treatment with antibiotics and debridement of the wound.[24]

The dearth of updated data on the prevalence and risk factors associated with SSIs hampers further thoughts regarding shaping further interventions necessary to prevent SSIs. Therefore, there is a great need to deeply analyse the magnitude of SSIs in selected referral hospitals, which provides updated data to be the basis of shaping further interventions to prevent SSIs among surgical patients in Rwanda. The purpose of this study was to assess the prevalence and risk factors associated with SSIs among surgical patients in selected tertiary hospitals.

Methods and Materials

Study design

A quantitative approach was used in this study, which utilized a retrospective cross-sectional design. Patients' medical files considered during chart review were those closed from July 2020 to December 2021. The data collection was conducted in a period of four months from September to December 2022. It is noticed that similar studies in the literature have also utilized this particular design indicating its relevance and applicability in this study.[25,26]

Study settings

The data were collected in the surgical, gynaecology and obstetrics units of University Teaching hospital of Kigali and Butare located in Rwanda. The two public study settings were purposefully chosen because of their universal access to

healthcare services regardless of financial means. Patients covered by community-based health insurance were able to easily utilize referral hospital services for their healthcare needs. The access to data from these public tertiary hospitals given the profile of surgical patients was fully facilitated.

Study population

The population of this study was made of medical files for discharged surgical patients who underwent major surgeries. The total number of medical files was 39,232. Selected medical files of operated patients included files of both elective and emergency surgeries who were 18 years and above. Patients who were having another operation within one month before study period were excluded.

Sample size determination and sampling strategies

The sample size (n) of 396 was determined by the following formula $n = N / (1 + Ne^2)$ and the calculation was performed as follows: $n = 39232 / [1 + 39232 * (0.05 * 0.05)] = 396$ for a given population (N=396), in which error (e) margin was 0.05 and a 95% confidence level and a power of 80%.[30] The 95% confidence level meant that the sample result fell within a certain range of the true population level. A systematic sampling strategy was used to select medical files fulfilling the inclusion criteria. The team of researchers arranged all medical files (39232) of surgical patients, each file was numbered, sample size was calculated, then, sampling interval was also calculated and fixed (population size divided by sample size which approximately equal to 99), researchers chose randomly starting point between 1 and 99, we repeated adding sampling interval to choose subsequent elements and so forth.[27]

Data collection tool

A checklist was used as the data collection tool,[7,9] the tool was made of three sections. The first section was about socioeconomic characteristics of participants. The variables measured in this section included

age, sex, education, experience, occupation, weight, height, BMI, type of admission, smoking, alcohol consumption, recreational drug, patient diagnosis, underlying comorbidity, preoperative hemoglobin level, preoperative liver transaminases and postoperative kidney function test.

The second section targeted perioperative data. The variable measured included type of anaesthesia, ASA score, category of surgical procedure, wound classification, patient skin bath preoperatively, shaving of the site to be operated, shaving method, shaving time, anti-septic used by surgeon for hand scrubbing, anti-septic used for skin preparation, prophylactic antibiotic administration, time for prophylactic antibiotic administration, name of prophylactic antibiotics, grade of surgeon, duration of operation, major intraoperative events that occurred during the procedure, number of participants in the operation, intraoperative blood loss, blood transfusion, and drain insertion.

The third section focused on postoperative data. The variables tackled included type of dressing, frequency of wound dressing, and duration of hospital stay postoperatively. The data collection tool indicated SSIs following surgical procedures as the outcome variable. The wound infection was suspected referring to Centre for Diseases Control(CDC) wound infection classification such as superficial infection, deep infection and organ or space of infection.[28,29]

Data collection process

Following the approval of this research project by the College of Medicine and Health Sciences (CMHS) Institutional Review Board (IRB) and authorization to commence data collection from the two study settings, the investigators and two trained research assistants, proceeded to review all selected medical files of surgical patients. Those medical files for discharged surgical patients who were admitted in surgical and maternity units. These specific units were chosen due to the fact that surgical patients are typically admitted to

the surgical and maternity units. Data collection was collected from September to December 2022.

Data analysis

The data analysis was done using IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows version 25.0 (IBM Corp, Armonk, NY, USA). It involved a quantitative approach, utilizing frequencies and percentages to outline the characteristics of the participants as well as the prevalence SSI among patients. For bivariate analysis, a chi-square test was used to compare the prevalence of surgical site infections among patients with different characteristics. Additionally, univariate and multivariable analysis were used to identify factors associated with surgical site infections. Independent variables were selected based on the results of Wald tests, with those having p-values below 0.25 being retained for further analysis.

Ethical considerations

This study was approved by the CMHS Institutional Review Board with approval notice N0384/CMHS/2022. Prior to gathering data, researchers obtained approval from the designated tertiary hospitals. Every data collection checklist was assigned a unique identification number to safeguard the anonymity of participants. The information obtained was kept confidentially. The gathered information was intended merely for the research study's purposes.

Results

Sociodemographic characteristics of participants

Out of 396 participants involved in this study, 192(48.5%) were aged between 18 and 29 years, 215(54.3%) were female, 221(55.8%) had completed primary education, and 231(58.3%) were farmers. Underlying co-morbidities were anemia 52(13.2%), HIV/AIDS 22(5.6%) and obesity 31(7.8%). Smoking was detected in 22(5.6%), and alcohol consumption was identified in 79(19.9%). Regarding wound classification before operation, 185(46.7%)

of the wounds were classified as cleanly contaminated (Table 1). For prophylactic antibiotic administration, 217 (78.9%) received prophylactic antibiotic between 30 minutes and one hour before surgery. In regards to duration of hospital stay, 234 (59.1%) exceeded 10 days of

hospitalization. The majority 243 (61.4%) of surgical patients were admitted for elective surgery, whereas 153 (38.6%) were admitted for emergency surgery. General anaesthesia was administered to 241 (61.1%) of the surgical patients (Table 1).

Table 1. Sociodemographic characteristics of participants (N=396)

Variables	N (%)	Has surgical site infection			P-value
		No N (%)	Yes N (%)		
Age group	18-29	192(48.5)	134(69.8)	58(30.2)	0.322
	30-39	109(27.5)	76(69.7)	33(30.3)	
	40-49	48(12.1)	37(77.1)	11(22.9)	
	50 years and above	47(11.9)	28(59.6)	19(40.4)	
Gender	Male	181(45.7)	125(69.1)	56(30.9)	0.879
	Female	215(54.3)	150(69.8)	65(30.2)	
Level of education	No formal schooling	41(10.5)	32(78.0)	9(22.0)	0.267
	Primary	221(56.4)	146(66.1)	75(33.9)	
	Secondary	114(29.1)	84(73.7)	30(26.3)	
	University education	16(4.1)	10(62.5)	6(37.5)	
Diabetes	Yes	11(2.8)	6(54.5)	5(45.5)	0.277
	No	385(97.2)	269(69.9)	116(30.1)	
Liver disease	Yes	6(1.5)	5(83.3)	1(16.7)	0.457
	No	390(98.5)	270(69.2)	120(30.8)	
Anemia	Yes	52(13.2)	32(61.5)	20(38.5)	0.174
	No	343(86.8)	243(70.8)	100(29.2)	
HIV/AIDS	Yes	22(5.6)	12(54.5)	10(45.5)	0.119
	No	374(94.4)	263(70.3)	111(29.7)	
Chronic renal disease	Yes	5(1.3)	3(60.0)	2(40.0)	0.645
	No	391(98.7)	272(69.6)	119(30.4)	
Cardiac disease	Yes	11(2.8)	10(90.9)	1(9.1)	0.117
	No	385(97.2)	265(68.8)	120(31.2)	
Obesity	Yes	31(7.8)	19(61.3)	12(38.7)	0.305
Patient's occupation	Famer	231(58.3)	156(67.5)	75(32.5)	0.174
	Housewife	36(9.1)	24(66.7)	12(33.3)	
	Student	56(14.1)	46(82.1)	10(17.9)	
	Other	73(18.4)	49(67.1)	24(32.9)	
Type of admission	Emergency	153(38.6)	96(62.7)	57(37.3)	0.022
	Elective	243(61.4)	179(73.7)	64(26.3)	
Type of anesthesia administered	General	242(61.1)	166(68.6)	76(31.4)	0.646
	Regional	154(38.9)	109(70.8)	45(29.2)	
ASA Score	Normal healthy patient	190(48.0)	141(74.2)	49(25.8)	0.069
	Patient with mild systemic disease	153(38.6)	103(67.3)	50(32.7)	
	Patient with severe systemic disease	53(13.4)	31(58.5)	22(41.5)	
Has smoking history	Yes	22(5.6)	11(50.0)	11(50.0)	0.042
	No	374(94.4)	264(70.6)	110(29.4)	

Table 1. Continued

Variables	N (%)	Has surgical site infection			P-value
		No N (%)	Yes N (%)		
Alcohol consumption	Yes	79(19.9)	50(63.3)	29(36.7)	0.185
	No	317(80.1)	225(71.0)	92(29.0)	
Recreational drug use history	Yes	9(2.3)	3(33.3)	6(66.7)	0.017
	No	387(97.7)	272(70.3)	115(29.7)	
prophylactic antibiotic administered before surgery	Yes	270(68.2)	196(72.6)	74(27.4)	0.046
	No	126(31.8)	79(62.7)	47(37.3)	
Wound class before operation	Clean	88(22.2)	61(69.3)	27(30.7)	0.666
	Clean contaminated	185(46.7)	133(71.9)	52(28.1)	
	Contaminated	50(12.6)	33(66.0)	17(34.0)	
	Dirty or infected	63(15.9)	40(63.5)	23(36.5)	
	None	10(2.5)	8(80.0)	2(20.0)	
when was the prophylactic antibiotic administered	Less than 15 minutes before operation	13(4.7)	10(76.9)	3(23.1)	0.194
	15-30 minutes before the operation	23(8.4)	14(60.9)	9(39.1)	
	Between 30 minutes and 1 hour before operation	217(78.9)	164(75.6)	53(24.4)	
	Above one 1 hour before operation	22(8.0)	13(59.1)	9(40.9)	
Operation time	1-60minutes	156(39.4)	122(78.2)	34(21.8)	0.002
	61-120 minutes	168(42.4)	113(67.3)	55(32.7)	
	>120minutes	72(18.2)	40(55.6)	32(44.4)	
Major intraoperative event that occurred during the procedure	Hemorrhage	17(4.7)	7(41.2)	10(58.8)	0.003
	Major contamination	11(3.0)	4(36.4)	7(63.6)	
	Other/none	336(92.3)	236(70.2)	100(29.8)	
Duration of hospital stay post-surgery	1-5 days	76(19.2)	68(89.5)	8(10.5)	<0.001
	6-10 days	86(21.7)	76(88.4)	10(11.6)	
	above 10days	234(59.1)	131(56.0)	103(44.0)	

Prevalence of surgical site infections

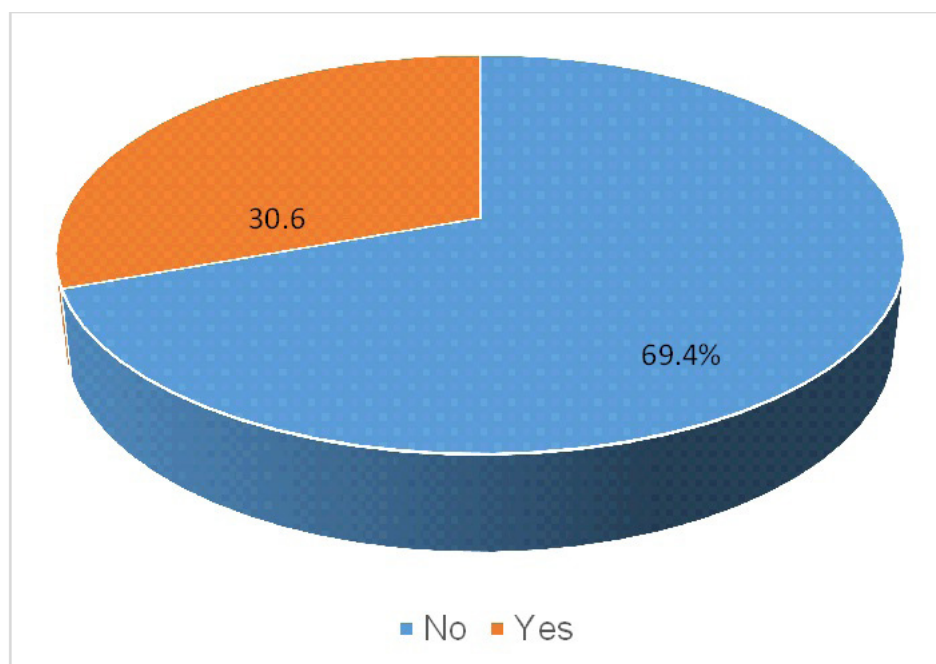


Figure1. Prevalence of surgical site infections (N=396)

Figure 1 presents information regarding the prevalence of site infections among patients in referral hospitals in Rwanda. Out of 396 patients included in this study, 121(30.6%) were found to have surgical site infections.

Bivariate analysis to identify association between patient characteristics and surgical site infection

During the bivariate analysis, a chi-square test was used to compare the prevalence of surgical site infections among patients with different characteristics. The results show that having a smoking history (50%), a recreational drug use history (66.7%), staying in the hospital for more than 10 days before the operation (44.4%), having an operation time greater than 120 minutes (44.4%), experiencing major contamination during the procedure (63.7%) and undergoing into emergency admission (37.3%) were all significantly associated with surgical site infections (p<0.05). (Table1)

Factors associated with surgical site infection

According to the univariate logistic regression model, it was shown that having a severe systemic disease (COR = 2.04, 95% CI: 1.08-3.86), experiencing haemorrhage (COR = 3.37, 95% CI: 1.25-9.11) or major contamination (COR = 4.13, 95% CI: 1.83-14.42) during the procedure, spending between 61 and 120 minutes (COR = 1.75, 95% CI: 1.06-2.88) or more than 120 minutes (COR = 2.87, 95% CI: 1.58-5.23) in operation, having a recreational drug use history (COR = 4.73, 95% CI: 1.16-19.24) or smoking history (COR = 2.4, 95% CI: 1.01-5.70), and undergoing emergency admission (COR = 1.66, 95% CI: 1.08-2.57) were associated with higher odds of developing surgical site infections. (Table2)

Table 2. Logistic regression analysis of factors associated with surgical site infections among surgical patients

Variables	P-value	COR (95%CI)	P-value	AOR (95%CI)
ASA Score				
Normal		Ref		Ref
Mild systemic disease	0.162	1.40(0.87-2.23)	0.420	1.24(0.73-2.10)
Severe systemic disease	0.028	2.04(1.08-3.86)	0.325	1.45(0.69-3.02)
Major intraoperative event that occurred during the procedure				
Hemorrhage	0.017	3.37(1.25-9.11)	0.336	1.70(0.58-5.05)
Major contamination	0.026	4.13(1.18-14.42)	0.040	4.60(1.07-19.69)
Other/none		Ref		Ref
Operation time				
1-60minutes		Ref		Ref
61-120 minutes	0.028	1.75(1.06-2.88)	0.226	1.40(0.81-2.41)
>120minutes	<.001	2.87(1.58-5.23)	0.007	2.52(1.29-4.93)
Has a recreational drug use history				
No		Ref		Ref
Yes	0.03	4.73(1.16-19.24)	0.069	4.66(0.89-24.48)
HIV/AIDS				
No		Ref		Ref
Yes	0.125	1.97(0.83-4.70)	0.588	1.33(0.47-3.74)
Anemia				
No		Ref		Ref
Yes	0.176	1.52(0.83-2.78)	0.802	1.09(0.55-2.18)
Cardiac disease				
No		Ref		Ref
Yes	0.152	0.22(0.03-1.75)	0.067	0.12(0.01-1.16)
Type of admission				
Emergency	0.022	1.66(1.08-2.57)	0.036	1.68(1.03-2.73)
Elective		Ref		Ref
Smoking history				
No		Ref		Ref
Yes	0.047	2.40(1.01-5.70)	0.186	1.94(0.73-5.15)

Ref: Reference category, **Bold:** Statistically significant with p<0.05

In multivariable analysis, after controlling for covariates, spending more than 120 minutes in operation (AOR = 2.52, 95% CI: 1.29-4.93), experiencing major contamination during the procedure (AOR = 4.60, 95% CI: 1.07-19.69), and undergoing emergency admission (AOR = 1.68, 95% CI: 1.03-2.73) remained significantly associated with surgical site infections. (Table 2)

Discussion

This study found that the prevalence of SSIs was 30.6%. The prevalence of SSIs described in this study was higher compared to the prevalence reported in the study conducted in Shirati KMT Hospital in Tanzania and the University Clinic of Traumatology and Urology of the National University Hospital Center Hubert Cotonou, where the prevalence of SSIs was 10.9% and 7.81%, respectively.[30,31] This difference could be explained by the fact that the above hospitals complied with infection prevention and control precautions, surveillance of SSIs which contributed to the prevention of SSIs.[13]

In addition, such observed difference in the prevalence of SSIs between the findings the other studies could be attributed to the small sample size of those studies and the short time period for retrospective data coverage. The prevalence of SSIs was high compared to the findings of studies conducted in high-income countries, such as the USA, where patients who underwent peripheral vascular bypass developed 3.1% SSIs, those who underwent colon surgery developed 2.4% SSIs, those who underwent laparotomy developed 1.4% SSIs, India developed 5% SSIs, and China developed 4% SSIs.[32–34] Such difference between SSI prevalence in this study and those of high-income countries may be related to strong infection prevention and control measures, improved surgical techniques, well-developed hospital settings, sufficiently trained healthcare professionals on infection prevention and control, a high level of understanding of surgical patients, and high adherence to the

use SSI prevention guidelines, which are more advanced in high-income countries than in LMICs, such as Rwanda. These results are slightly similar to the findings of the studies completed in Dilla University Hospital, Abuja Nigeria, at St Francis Hospital Uganda, Academic Trauma and Burn Center in Ethiopia, Bugando Medical Center in Tanzania, and Hawassa University Comprehensive Specialized Hospital Southern Ethiopia, which revealed that the SSIs rates were 19.3%, 27.6%, 28.6%, 24.6%, 26.0% and 24.6%, respectively. [16,18–20,29] SSIs are still high in Sub-Saharan countries. Therefore, concerted efforts are needed to be implemented to improve postoperative outcome and safe surgery among surgical patients.

Several factors could account for the variation in SSIs infection rates between developed and developing nations, including Rwanda. These factors include poor hospital design (lack of supplies and equipment needed to maintain strict asepsis guidelines), poor patient hygiene that promotes bacterial flora colonization of the skin, late patient presentation to the healthcare system that results in contaminated wounds, and overburdened emergency services due to population burden.[9] Risk factors such as age, American Society of Anaesthesiologists classes, wound classification, surgeon skills and experience, duration of surgery, blood transfusion and emergency surgery were found to be associated with SSIs. Contaminated and dirty wounds were also identified as contributing to SSIs.[9,35]

The health of patients and their families is adversely affected by SSIs, which also leads to longer hospital stays and higher healthcare expenses. The family spends a lot of time and money, which has an impact on the patient's and the family members' mental and emotional health. A study found that perioperative care, safety, and infection control in the operating room, adequate surgical site preparation, timely administration of antibiotic prophylaxis, and monitoring of patient physiology during and immediately following the procedure

by a perioperative nurse who should be familiar with SSI prevention measures as well as the fundamental pathophysiology of postoperative wound infection.[36]

This study identified factors associated with SSIs, including emergency surgery, smoking, use of recreational drugs, intraoperative haemorrhage, major contamination, duration of surgical operation (61-120 minutes, >120 minutes). These findings corroborate the findings of previous studies.[9,37–39] The findings of this study identified emergency surgeries as risk factors associated with SSI due to inadequate preparation of surgical patients preoperatively and lack of sufficient time to control underlying comorbidities such as diabetes and breach in sterilization protocol.[40] Smoking was also found to be a risk factor associated with SSI explained by the fact that smoking endothelial dysfunction, inflammation, progression of atherothrombotic disease, impaired systemic immune response, suppress immunoglobulin level which contribute to altered wound healing process and may induce more wound infections complications.[41] Recreational drugs were identified as a contributing factor to SSI justified by the fact that recreational drugs contribute to vasoconstriction which can lead to ischemia, alter the immune response, poor wound healing, increase infections and other post-surgery complications.[42]

Intra-operative complications such as haemorrhage and major contamination were identified to be risk factors associated with SSI. For intraoperative haemorrhage may lead to reduced haemoglobin and cause hypoxia with impairment in tissue oxygenation and healing to favour wound infections. Major contamination of the surgical wound intraoperatively was identified to be a risk factor associated to SSI which is therefore linked to numerous bacteria growth and colonization and in turn become source of infection of the incision site.[9] Duration of surgical operation has also been identified to be associated with SSI because of prolonged exposure of tissues to surrounding environment,

increase the surgical team fatigue and room for more technical errors, prolonged hypothermia and declining level of antibiotics administered prophylactically, hospital stay, which can be explained by prolonged stay providing further opportunity for bacterial colonization.[43] Observational study should be conducted to identify factors associated with surgical site infections and identify cause and effect relationship.

Limitations of this study

The researchers did not perform culture and sensitivity due to the retrospective nature of the study, and the research team considered results from culture and sensitivity performed by study settings. In addition, the study did not follow up surgical patients after discharge.

Conclusion

The prevalence rate of SSI was 30.6% in this study. Emergency surgery, smoking, use of recreational drugs, antibiotic prophylaxis administration, intraoperative hemorrhage, experiencing major contamination, and duration of hospital stay were statistically associated with SSIs. Most risk factors are hospital-acquired, which may be related to the non-availability of evidence-based SSI prevention guidelines in the study settings and inadequate implementation of infection prevention and control measures. There is a need to conduct a large study covering all hospitals in Rwanda practicing surgery to determine the real prevalence of SSIs in Rwanda and explore factors associated with SSIs to improve the generalizability of the study results. Further research is also needed to adapt and implement SSI prevention guidelines in Rwanda, which might contribute to the reduction of SSI rate in the study settings.

Acknowledgement

The authors express their gratitude to the clinical staff from the surgical and maternity department of the University Teaching Hospital of Kigali and Butare for their contribution to the data collection.

Funding

This study obtained a small loan for data collection from Development Bank of Rwanda.

Availability of datasets and materials

The datasets of analysed data can be obtained from the corresponding author upon request.

Authors contribution

All authors (AN, MM, GC, AC, FB) contributed to the design, preparation of the study proposal, data analysis and manuscript preparation.

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Conflict of interest

The authors confirm that they have no conflicts of interest related to this study.

This article is published open access under the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial NoDerivatives (CC BYNC-ND4.0). People can copy and redistribute the article only for noncommercial purposes and as long as they give appropriate credit to the authors. They cannot distribute any modified material obtained by remixing, transforming or building upon this article. See <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

References

1. Totty JP, Moss JWE, Barker E, Mealing SJ, Posnett JW, Chetter IC, et al. The impact of surgical site infection on hospitalisation, treatment costs, and health-related quality of life after vascular surgery. *Int Wound J*. 2021;18:261–8. DOI: 10.1111/iwj.13526
2. Spagnolo AM, Ottria G, Amicizia D, Perdelli F, Cristina ML. Operating theatre quality and prevention of surgical site infections. *J Prev Med Hyg*. 2013;54:131–7.
3. Mengistu DA, Alemu A, Abdulkadir AA, Mohammed Husen A, Ahmed F, Mohammed B, et al. Global Incidence of Surgical Site Infection Among Patients: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *The Journal of Health Care Organization, Provision, and Financing*. 2023;60. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F00469580231162549>
4. Rickard J, Beilman G, Forrester J, Sawyer R, Stephen A, Weiser TG, et al. Surgical Infections in Low- And Middle-Income Countries: A Global Assessment of the Burden and Management Needs. *Surg Infect (Larchmt)*. 2020;21:478–94. <https://doi.org/10.1089/sur.2019.142>
5. Shiferaw WS, Aynalem YA, Akalu TY, Petrucka PM. Surgical site infection and its associated factors in Ethiopia: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Surg*. 2020;20:1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12893-020-00764-1>
6. Getaneh T, Negesse A, Dessie G. Prevalence of surgical site infection and its associated factors after cesarean section in Ethiopia: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2020;20. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12884-020-03005-8>
7. Mukamuhirwa D, Lilian O, Baziga V, Ingabire C, Ntakirutimana C, Mukantwari J, et al. Prevalence of Surgical site Infection among Adult Patients at a Rural District Hospital in Southern Province, Rwanda. *Rwanda J Med Heal Sci*. 2022;5:34–45. <https://doi.org/10.4314/rjmhs.v5i1.5>
8. Alemayehu MA, Azene AG, Mihretie KM. Time to development of surgical site infection and its predictors among general surgery patients admitted at specialized hospitals in Amhara region, northwest Ethiopia: a prospective follow-up study. *BMC Infect Dis*. 2023;23:334. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12879-023-08301-0>
9. Mukagendaneza MJ, Munyaneza E, Muhawenayo E, Nyirasebura D, Abahuje E, Nyirigira J, et al. Incidence, root causes, and outcomes of surgical site infections in a tertiary care hospital in Rwanda: A prospective observational cohort study. *Patient Saf Surg*. 2019;13:4–11. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13037-019-0190-8>
10. Calcagno C, Lobatto ME, Robson PM, Millon A. Procedure-specific surgical site infection incidence varies widely within certain National Healthcare Safety Network surgery groups. *Am J Infect Control*. 2015;43:617–23. doi:10.1016/j.ajic.2015.02.012.

11. European Center for Disease Prevention and Control. Healthcare-associated infections: surgical site infections. Annual epidemiological report for 2017. *Ecdc website*. 2019; https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/AER_for_2017-SSI.pdf. Accessed 13 August 2024
12. Allegranzi B, Aiken AM, Zeynep Kubilay N, Nthumba P, Barasa J, Okumu G, et al. A multimodal infection control and patient safety intervention to reduce surgical site infections in Africa: a multicentre, before–after, cohort study. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2018;18:507–15. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1473-3099\(18\)30107-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1473-3099(18)30107-5)
13. Mehtar S, Wanyoro A, Ogunisola F, Ameh EA, Nthumba P, Kilpatrick C, et al. Implementation of surgical site infection surveillance in low- and middle-income countries a position statement for the international society for infectious diseases: a position statement for the international society for infectious diseases. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2020;100:123–31. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2020.07.021>
14. Id MM, Id SJ, Id TP, Brocklehurst P, Morton G, Abdali Z, et al. Surgical site infection and costs in low- and middle-income countries : A systematic review of the economic burden. *PlosOne*. 2020;1–21. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0232960>
15. World Health Organization, Allegranzi B, Kilpatrick C, Edmonson L, Berry WR, Weiser T, et al. Preventing Surgical Site Infections: Implementation Approaches for Evidence-Based Recommendations. *who website*. 2018. <https://iris.who.int/bitstream/handle/10665/273154/9789241514385-eng.pdf?sequence=1>. Accessed 13 August 2024
16. Olowo-Okere A, Ibrahim YKE, Sani AS, Olayinka BO. Occurrence of Surgical Site Infections at a Tertiary Healthcare Facility in Abuja, Nigeria: A Prospective Observational Study. *Med Sci (Basel, Switzerland)*. 2018;6:1–10. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medsci6030060>
17. Ebogo Titus N, Nzinga J, Nchufor N, Njuma T, Ntuh L, Sena G, et al. Epidemiology of surgical site infection following abdominal surgeries at a reference hospital in North-West Cameroon. *J West African Coll Surg*. 2021;11:1. https://doi.org/10.4103/jwas.jwas_51_22
18. Moses M. Prevalence of Surgical Site Infections in Non-Diabetic Patients Undergoing Major Surgery at St . Francis Hospital Nsambya. *J Med Implant Surg*. 2016;1:1–8. <https://www.omicsonline.org/open-access/prevalence-of-surgical-site-infections-in-nondiabetic-patients-undergoingmajor-surgery-at-st-francis-hospital-nsambya-.php?aid=82001>. Accessed 14 August 2024
19. Mawalla B, Mshana SE, Chalya PL, Imirzalioglu C, Mahalu W. Predictors of surgical site infections among patients undergoing major surgery at Bugando Medical Centre in Northwestern Tanzania. *BMC Surg*. 2011;11. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2482-11-21>
20. Mezemir R, Seid A, Gishu T, Demas T, Gize A. Prevalence and root causes of surgical site infections at an academic trauma and burn center in Ethiopia: A cross-sectional study. *Patient Saf Surg*. 2020;14:1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13037-019-0229-x>
21. Nkurunziza T, Kateera F, Sonderman K, Gruendl M, Nihiwacu E, Ramadhan B, et al. Prevalence and predictors of surgical-site infection after caesarean section at a rural district hospital in Rwanda. *Br J Surg*. 2019;106:e121–8. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bjs.11060>
22. Bizimana JK, Ndoli J, Bayingana C, Baluhe I, Gilson GJ, Habimana E. Prevalence and Risk Factors for Post Cesarean Delivery Surgical Site Infection in a Teaching Hospital Setting in Rural Rwanda : A Prospective Cross Sectional Study. *Int.J.Curr.Microbiol.App.Sci* 2016;5:631–41. <http://dx.doi.org/10.20546/ijcmas.2016.506.069>

23. Horgan S, Saab MM, Drennan J, Keane D, Hegarty J. Healthcare professionals' knowledge and attitudes of surgical site infection and surveillance: A narrative systematic review. *Nurse Educ Pract*. 2023;69. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nepr.2023.103637>
24. National Institute for Healthcare Care Excellence. Surgical site infections: prevention and treatment CG74. *Clin Guidel Institute Heal care Excell*. 2020;1–29. www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ng125. Accessed on 15 July 2024
25. Yang J, Zhang X, Liang W. A retrospective analysis of factors affecting surgical site infection in orthopaedic patients. *J Int Med Res*. 2020;48. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0300060520907776>
26. Guest JF, Fuller GW, Griffiths B. Cohort study to characterise surgical site infections after open surgery in the UK's National Health Service. *BMJ Open*. 2023;13:1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2023-076735>
27. Makwana D, Engineer P, Dabhi A, Chudasama H. Sampling methods in research: A review. *Int J Trend Sci Res Dev*. 2023;7:762–8.
28. Onyekwelu I, Yakkanti R, Protzer L, Pinkston CM, Tucker C, Seligson D. Surgical Wound Classification and Surgical Site Infections in the Orthopaedic Patient. *J Am Acad Orthop Surg Glob Res Rev*. 2017;1. <https://doi.org/10.5435/jaaosglobal-d-17-00022>
29. Birhanu A, Amare HH, G/Mariam M, Girma T, Tadesse M, Assefa DG. Magnitude of surgical site infection and determinant factors among postoperative patients, A cross sectional study. *Ann Med Surg*. 2022;83:104324. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amsu.2022.104324>
30. Dégbey C, Kpozehouen A, Coulibaly D, Chigblo P, Avakoudjo J, Ouendo EM, et al. Prevalence and Factors Associated With Surgical Site Infections in the University Clinics of Traumatology and Urology of the National University Hospital Centre Hubert Koutoukou Maga in Cotonou. *Front Public Heal*. 2021;9:1–7. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2021.629351>
31. Bayardorj D, Promsatit P, Chirangi BM, Mahmoud E. Surgical Site Infections at Shirati KMT Hospital in Northeastern Tanzania. *Cureus*. 2023;15:1–8. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.34573>
32. Pathak A, Saliba EA, Sharma S, Mahadik VK, Shah H, Lundborg CS. Incidence and factors associated with surgical site infections in a teaching hospital in Ujjain, India. *Am J Infect Control*. 2014;42:e11–5. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajic.2013.06.013>
33. Curcio D, Cane A, Fernández F, Correa J. Surgical site infection in elective clean and clean-contaminated surgeries in developing countries. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2019;80:34–45. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2018.12.013>
34. Baker AW, Dicks K V., Durkin MJ, Weber DJ, Lewis SS, Moehring RW, et al. Epidemiology of surgical site infection in a community hospital network. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol*. 2016;37:519–26. <https://doi.org/10.1017/ice.2016.13>
35. Simone D, Chad G, Cesare F, Ernest E, Fikri M, Broek T, et al. Intraoperative surgical site infection control and prevention : a position paper and future addendum Intraoperative surgical site infection control and prevention : a position paper and future addendum to WSES intra-abdominal infections guidelines. *World Journal of Emergency Surgery*. 2023; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13017-020-0288-4>
36. Famakinwa TT, Bello, Oyeniran YA, Okhiah O, Nwadike R N. Knowledge and practice of post-operative wound infection prevention among nurses in the surgical unit of a teaching hospital in nigeria. *Int. J. Basic, Appl. Innov. Res. IJBAIR*. 2014.
37. Birhanu A, Amare HH, G/Mariam M, Girma T, Tadesse M, Assefa DG. Magnitude of surgical site infection and determinant factors among postoperative patients, A cross sectional study. *Ann Med Surg*. 2022;83:104324. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amsu.2022.104324>

38. Legesse Laloto T, Hiko Gameda D, Abdella SH. Incidence and predictors of surgical site infection in Ethiopia: Prospective cohort. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2017;17:1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12879-016-2167-x>
39. Ansari S, Hassan M, Barry HD, Bhatti TA, Hussain SZM, Jabeen S, et al. Risk Factors Associated with Surgical Site Infections: A Retrospective Report from a Developing Country. *Cureus.* 2019;11. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.4801>
40. Malik ZI, Nawaz T, Abdullah MT, Waqar SH, Zahid MA. Surgical Site Infections in General Surgical Wards at a Tertiary Care Hospital. *Pak J Med Res.* 2013;5:5–5.
41. Durand F, Berthelot P, Cazorla C, Farizon F, Lucht F. Smoking is a risk factor of organ/space surgical site infection in orthopaedic surgery with implant materials. *Int Orthop.* 2013;37:723–7. <https://doi.org/10.1007%2Fs00264-013-1814-8>
42. Weaver JL, Berndtson AE, Lee J, Kobayashi L, Doucet J, Godat L, et al. Methamphetamine Use is Associated with Increased Surgical Site Infections after Trauma Laparotomy. *J Surg Res.* 2021;267:563–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jss.2021.06.034>
43. Cheng H, Chen BPH, Soleas IM, Ferko NC, Cameron CG, Hinoul P. Prolonged Operative Duration Increases Risk of Surgical Site Infections: A Systematic Review. *Surg Infect (Larchmt).* 2017;18:722–35. <https://doi.org/10.1089/sur.2017.089>