



Microbiology isolated from devices and tools used in anesthesia: A Review

Omayma Nawfal Ahmed ¹, Noor Thaer Salih ², Noor Ahmed Shehab ³, Ali M Saadi ^{4*}

¹⁻⁴Department of Anesthesia Techniques, Mosul Medical Technical Institute, Northern Technical University, Iraq

* Corresponding Author: Ali M Saadi

Article Info

ISSN (online): 2582-8940

Volume: 05

Issue: 03

July-September 2024

Received: 12-05-2024;

Accepted: 15-06-2024

Page No: 34-38

Abstract

Microorganisms are considered one of the most widespread neighborhoods on surfaces, devices and equipment, and among these devices are anesthesia devices that are used in surgeries, where these equipment are exposed to microbial contamination and thus cause great risks to humans, so these devices must be taken care of, cleaned and sterilized to eliminate microbes.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.54660/IJMBHR.2024.5.3.34-38>

Keywords: anesthesia, microbiology, infection

1. Introduction

Infection prevention and control is a top priority for healthcare providers in order to ensure the safety of medical services. The anesthesia machine and equipment can act as a source of infections for various reasons, which can lead to hospital-acquired infections among patients. Contaminated devices or circuits of the anesthesia machine can serve as additional sources of infections. The use of vaporizers has been associated with outbreaks of hospital infections in the past. Additionally, waste anesthetic gas poses a potential hazard to hospital personnel. Various microorganisms have been found to contaminate the anesthesia machine and associated equipment. Contamination of devices during handling, due to poor adherence to guidelines, is common. A contaminated anesthesia machine can contaminate the fresh gas flow meter (oxygen, nitrous oxide, or medical air) due to positive pressure in the pipeline in the presence of a defective check valve. Several methods of decontamination have been advocated in the past, including the use of soap and water, 70% alcohol, hydrogen peroxide gas, or UV light. This review focuses on the microbiology isolated from devices and tools used in anesthesia. (Sharma *et al.* 2020, Bowdle *et al.* 2020, Li *et al.* 2021) ^[25, 3, 16].

The handling of the mannequin respiratory tract has shown the presence of a wide variety of contaminated microorganisms. Tubing of the anesthetic machine has been shown to be contaminated with bacteria across a wide range, showing variability. Despite being used by a single patient, the mask can become contaminated from the previously used patient's intraoral gas, either through contamination of the cavity of the Y port or by using a non-disposable mask with clogs in the ports of the silicone mask circuit, which can harbor pathogens. Hydrophobic filters in the hospital can also harbor pathogens, as healthcare professionals handling the device can accidentally contaminate the surface of the devices or the vent may not function correctly, causing the bioaerosol produced during the cancellation surgery to agglomerate with the sputum entering the filter. (Schmidt *et al.* 2020, Dexter & Loftus, 2024) ^[24, 10].

2. Microbial contamination in anesthesia devices and tools

The literature reports 15-65.3% of anesthesia equipment is contaminated. The sources of the microbial load in anesthesia equipment are patients during operation, exposure to air and the environment.

Body fluids, mistakes made during cleaning and disinfection, and biofilm microorganisms. The aim of this review is to provide a comprehensive and practical account of the various microorganisms isolated from anesthesia devices and tools. The most commonly isolated microorganisms from devices and tools in operating theaters are ordinary bacteria, especially *Bacillus* sp. and *Staphylococcus coagulase negative*. (Gouda *et al.* 2020, Stefani *et al.*, 2022) ^[12, 30].

Microbiological contamination of any general surgery site can occur from several sources: patients operated on, exposure to air and room atmosphere, hospitals, healthcare personnel, number of days stayed in the recovery room, and errors in cleaning and sterilization of the room. All the types required for general anesthesia always come into contact with the patient, drugs, airways, and air. Besides functioning, issues of contamination on Friday are a matter of note because it is one of the days in which the greatest number of operations are carried out. It is necessary to consider carefully and sterilize several times because of coexisting and integrated contact between the operating layers. The liquid used in operating rooms paraphernalia that has been contaminated will lead to patient death. Liquid in the respiratory system can allow the growth of microorganisms, especially in the presence of mucus, so it will provide a good habitat for microorganisms. A tracheal intubation tube is a device that is in direct contact with the lungs, which are usually exposed to saliva and sedation, so microbiological contamination occurs in anesthesia. (Macedo *et al.* 2024, Sharma *et al.* 2020, Dexter & Loftus, 2024) ^[17, 25, 10].

2.1. Sources of contamination

Contamination of anesthesia devices and tools, such as the anesthesia workstation, anesthesia ventilator, high- or low-pressure gas and breathing circuit, breathing bag, tracheal tube, heat and humidifier, laryngeal mask, airway filter, manual resuscitator, oral air, flow meter, and regulator pressure, is a significant concern in medical settings. Proper cleaning and disinfection of these equipment is crucial as they have been associated with the transmission of pathogenic microorganisms, leading to pulmonary infections, neonatal nosocomial infections, and contaminated endoscopes and bronchoscopes. (Sharma *et al.* 2020) ^[25].

There are three possible pathways through which microorganisms can enter. Firstly, patients who are susceptible to contamination can be affected during treatment. Secondly, the equipment and its accessories can become contaminated. Lastly, the inanimate environment can also be a source of contamination. To prevent contamination between patients, it is important to ensure sterile processing of the equipment. The goal of maintaining a clean work environment is to reduce the level of bioburden. While achieving absolute aseptic conditions is challenging, it is essential in preventing nosocomial diseases. Contamination is a significant problem in hospital services, and contaminated tools may be responsible for up to 4% of nosocomial disease transmission. (Ssekitoleko *et al.* 2020, Du *et al.* 2021) ^[29, 8].

The results of this study will help identify potential sources of contamination within anesthesia devices. Breathing systems, endotracheal tubes, flowmeter regulators, and heat and humidifiers can become contaminated through direct patient contact. One of the key objectives in anesthesia is to minimize complications related to equipment use. Contaminated anesthesia tools and devices can potentially

affect patients and contribute to hospital-related infections. This review aims to explain the possible sources of contamination in frequently used anesthesia devices and tools, which are commonly employed in various anesthesia procedures. By addressing these factors, we can reduce patient complications, particularly nosocomial infections, and decrease overall morbidity, mortality, and perioperative risks. (Reynier *et al.* 2021, Sharma *et al.* 2020) ^[20, 25].

2.2. Common microorganisms isolated

The most common, or frequent, specifically microbial species that have been isolated are: *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Acinetobacter* spp., *Staphylococcus* spp., *Bacillus* spp., *Klebsiella* spp., *Escherichiae* spp., *Coagulase negative staphylococcus* spp., *Enterococcus* spp., *Citrobacter* spp., *Moraxella* spp., *Proteus* spp. and most others, including: *Enterobacter*, *Neisseria*; diphtheroids, *Ralstonia*, *Epidermophyton*, *Coryneform* bacteria, *Haemophilus*, *Propionibacterium*, other *staphylococci*, *Pneumocystis carinii*, *Acrophilia*, *Chryseomonas*, *Hemophilus influenzae*; *Proteus mirabilis*, *Serratia*, *Micrococcus* species, other *coagulase negative staphylococci*, *Achromobacter* species, *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *Neisseria* and *Pneumococcus*; *Candida*; non-tuberculous mycobacteria, *Penicillium*, *Aspergillus*, *Cladosporium*, *Dermatophytes*, non-pathogenic *Neisseria* and *Alcaligenes*. Among these studies, there is some variation in the species isolated. (Nazarchuk *et al.* 2022, Soonthornsit *et al.* 2023) ^[19, 28].

Examination of the environment around the operating table and its surfaces, machines, and tools, allows some indication of the air quality of the operating room. The anesthetist, operating room staff, and others can monitor the likely extent of inhalation with report of general operating room environmental microbe levels. Administering anesthetics safely and sterilely can protect against many of these infections. Knowledge of the potential pathogens in the vicinity, such as intimate indwelling items, such as ophthalmic kits, blood glucose monitoring tools, monitoring lines, transesophageal echocardiogram, urethral catheters, etc., could help an anesthetist prevent instrumentation-related infections. In this systematic review, we give a detailed overview of the microorganisms isolated from anesthesia and its relevant equipment in operating theaters. The microorganisms isolated include bacteria, such as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, viruses, and infections such as *Herpes hepatitis virus*, and coronaviruses, as well as many others. This information can inspire operating room staff to take greater care to prevent microbial contamination and infection. (Fernandez *et al.* 2024, Labovská 2021, Dexter & Loftus, 2024) ^[10, 15, 7].

3. Impact of microbial contamination in anesthesia practice

Anesthesia, although less invasive than some other branches of medicine, also carries some risks. One of the risks arising from the practice of anesthesia is related to microbial or environmental contamination of devices and tools. Some devices contain water and drugs contaminated with a wide variety of microorganisms. Inadequate cleaning of respiratory equipment may result in the patient's continuous exposure to a wide variety of anesthetic and surgical contaminants. Contaminated laryngoscope handles represent a risk of cross-transmission by healthcare workers during manipulation of this equipment. In anesthetic equipment,

favorable conditions for biofilm formation, such as the presence of water, organic matter, and vapor, as well as the potential for selection of microorganisms that are more resistant to antimicrobial agents used for cleaning procedures, have been demonstrated. (Macedo *et al.* 2024, Sanchez, 2022, Branch & Amiri, 2020) [17, 23, 4].

In addition to permanent microbial contamination of the equipment, over time it has been reported that the use of water from storage tanks somewhere outside or in the operating room is a risk factor for the bacterial contamination of injectable local anesthetics, as well as the possibility of contamination of drugs at various compounding stages as additives in the insufflated system. The possibility of reducing the infection risk in anesthesia practice is great. The degree of compliance with infection prevention and control measures is one of the priorities of European and US health policy. It provides guidance, prescriptive standards, evidence-based practices and tools, and surveillance to improve infection prevention and control and patient safety overall. In recent years, there has been increasing research in the field of microbial contamination in anesthesia and devices, including in relation to COVID-19, with a focus on SARS-CoV-2 nasal contamination. (Manga *et al.* 2021, Slavik *et al.* 2020, Hu *et al.* 2021) [18, 27, 13].

3.1. Infection prevention and control measures

Preventing the transmission of microorganisms that can cause infections through anesthesia devices and other tools prevents the loss of patients' health and income, and also protects the reliability of the healthcare system. Thus, in parallel with technological developments, the attention given to the microbial content of devices and the adaptation of control measures in literature and similar protocols have increased. (Reynier *et al.* 2021, Sharma *et al.* 2020) [20, 25].

Reducing risks by creating protective strategies specific to every stage that may cause infection has received great attention in today's understanding of health management. Studies on this subject are vitally significant to policymakers. Infections caused by opportunistic microbes that can occur when immune and tissue resistance conditions weaken, highlight the importance of equipment formation and sterilization. (Josephs-Spaulling & Singh, 2021, Rowan *et al.*, 2023) [14, 21].

Robust infection prevention and control are the keys to providing and creating safe environments for healthcare facilities and services by removing pathogenic microorganisms, eliminating the spread of these microorganisms, and using protocols effectively. Infection control aims to prevent the invasion of infectious microbes, reduce the development of opportunistic infections, or shorten the infectious process. This can happen in several ways, including cleaning the areas and materials directly contaminated with infectious microorganisms and reducing the chances of transmitting or transporting them to infectious agents. (Sharma *et al.* 2023, Ahmad & Alfouzan, 2021) [26, 1]. The purpose of disinfection and sterilization is to reduce the population of microorganisms to at-risk levels, or to remove unwanted microorganisms from a surface or piece of medical equipment in the hospital environment. In particular, biofilms are the main factor in the failure of the disinfection-sterilization process and the survival of microorganisms. (Carrascosa *et al.* 2021, Josephs-Spaulling & Singh, 2021) [5, 14].

3.2. Patient safety risks

Microbial species are isolated from different areas in the operating theater, and they include various surfaces in the anesthetic work environment, air, and ampoules operatively used on patients. However, the presence of bacteria implies several issues related to patient safety. When bacteria are spread from area to area, or from patient to patient, then infections might be transmitted. However, contaminations induced on a more internal level, non-sterility after cleaning, could contribute to pus, irritation, and increased risk of not yet evidence-based diseases. Patient safety, and staff safety as well, is the two variables hospitals try to address carefully. There are vaccinopathy risks when developing infections, and trauma is a risk for the patient, the staff member, as well as the hospital. (Vanlalruati *et al.* 2023, Sadrizadeh *et al.* 2021) [31, 22].

It is important to understand and subsequently deal with these risks. Longitudinal examination of the incident reports (2000-2019) in Sweden, related to incidents occurring in the operating theater, were focused on when either operations or monitoring, including anesthesia, had commenced. This period of time was defined as T0. Furthermore, according to the WHO guidelines TU5, different types of incidents were categorized and distributed into different elements; some were more sterility-related (E1, E2), while others were not. During this period, it was concluded that case-specific issues were likely the cause of the sterility issues and were not general matters. Hence, patient safety was not significant as the incidents were statistically insurmountable compared to the number of completed anesthetic work schedules. Careful cleaning with disinfection and, when applicable, sterilization is therefore crucial. (Connolly, 2022, Wahlsten *et al.*, 2021, Dyreborg *et al.* 2022) [6, 32, 9].

4. Methods for microbial detection and monitoring in anesthesia equipment

Anesthesia treatment is executed in a contaminated environment, and the instruments and equipment used officially for this can act as potential vectors of microbial contamination. It is estimated that the cost of microbial contamination in healthcare settings and hospitals is a problem that must be solved. The great contribution of this review is in the analysis of the correct or better methodology for microbial sampling of anesthesia equipment – avoiding contamination and the microbial sampling and cleaning and disinfection methodology involved. Thus, it is proposed to proceed with the territorial categorization and medical devices, and devices used by the anesthesia staff and the selection of potentially pathogenic microorganisms transmitted during anesthesia. (Sharma *et al.* 2020, Beers, 2021) [25, 2].

Each method has its advantages and disadvantages. A modern and safer method of microbial detection is actually the system based on ATP monitoring with a trademark BIOLUM-ATP Hy-Lite II meter. Decontamination of these devices is necessary for anesthesia with specific protocols using products with a broad spectrum of action, as recommended by the CDC or manufacturers, because the control of contamination can trigger the appearance of nosocomial infections. In conclusion, there are a variety of methods for directly detecting the presence of microorganisms in anesthesia equipment, such as Petri dishes, filtration, swabbing, sonicating, and implant swabbing. It is important for a professional to be familiar with and understand the

limitations of the various methodologies used in distinct clinical research settings (Fung, 2007) ^[11].

5. Conclusion and future perspectives

Our review provides a current overview concerning the principal microorganisms that could be isolated from key devices and tools used in anesthesia, with direct and indirect impact on the patient's safety. It revealed the compromised quality audits or regular controls of infrastructure, avoiding the contamination of medical gases and final cleaning and disinfection of important devices. In this context, a specific resolution from the NIHS exists, highlighting the importance of medical gas quality within a medical facility. The review gives a comprehensive insight into possible sources of contamination in anesthesia, from connection ports up to anesthesia medicaments and water for injections. We strongly recommend that for better infection control of patients, the cornerstone of all action plans might be the personal and perioperative hand hygiene.

From an actual state of the art, anesthesia medicament contamination might be reduced by using specific cartridges proposed by the manufacturer that impede needle access from the external environment. A trend on technical feasibility is also a needle-less connector of a syringe of medication, which opens when a spike is plugging into, thereby preventing the accidental drawing of air into an intravenous medication line. We can also suggest a re-engineering of anesthesia breathing circuits for expiratory valves. Although infection cases transmitted by drugs are rare, the contaminated medications can likely cause BSI or sepsis, which are important for general infection control. In parallel, policies may need to be put in place during formulation and renaming of drugs for anesthesia, in the same way as it was already established for drinking water and water for injection. This study also suggests the need for closer collaboration between European societies of Anesthesiology (ESA) and microbiology (ECM, ECCMID) to raise awareness and protect patients from this outbreak of anesthesia-related infections. Retrospective and/or forward-looking surveys in electronic format would also be useful to develop policies and practices that concern all countries around the world.

6. References

- Ahmad S, Alfouzan W. *Candida auris*: epidemiology, diagnosis, pathogenesis, antifungal susceptibility, and infection control measures to combat the spread of infections in healthcare facilities. *Microorganisms*; 2021. [mdpi.com](https://doi.org/10.3390/micro11010011)
- Beers RA. Preventing Transmission of Infectious Diseases. *Anesthesia Equipment*; 2021. [HTML]
- Bowdle A, Jelacic S, Shishido S, Munoz-Price LS. Infection prevention precautions for routine anesthesia care during the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic. *Anesthesia & Analgesia*. 2020;131(5):1342-1354. [HTML]
- Branch R, Amiri A. Environmental surface hygiene in the OR: Strategies for reducing the transmission of health care-associated infections. *AORN Journal*; 2020. [HTML]
- Carrascosa C, Raheem D, Ramos F, Saraiva A, Raposo A. Microbial biofilms in the food industry-A comprehensive review. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*. 2021;18(04):2014. [mdpi.com](https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18042014)
- Connolly W. The Irish National Adverse Events Study 2 (INAES-2): Longitudinal Profiling of Adverse Events in Irish Hospitals and Provision of a Standardised Assessment Tool. *RCSI*; 2022. [rcsi.com](https://www.rcsi.com)
- Dexter F, Loftus RW. Transmission from bacterial contamination of patient nose, patient groin and axilla, anesthesia practitioners' hands, anesthesia machine, and intravenous lumen. *Journal of Clinical Anesthesia*; 2024. [HTML]
- Du Q, Zhang D, Hu W, Li X, Xia Q, Wen T, Jia H. Nosocomial infection of COVID-19: A new challenge for healthcare professionals. *International Journal of Molecular Medicine*. 2021;47(4):1-1. [spandidos-publications.com](https://www.spandidos-publications.com)
- Dyreborg J, Lipscomb HJ, Nielsen K, Törner M, Rasmussen K, Frydendall KB, Kines P. Safety interventions for the prevention of accidents at work: A systematic review. *Campbell Systematic Reviews*; 2022;18(2). [wiley.com](https://www.wiley.com)
- Fernandez PG, Dexter F, Brown J, Whitney G, Koff MD, Cao S, Loftus RW. Epidemiology of Enterococcus, Staphylococcus aureus, Klebsiella, Acinetobacter, Pseudomonas, and Enterobacter Species Transmission in the Pediatric Anesthesia Work Area Environment With and Without Practitioner Use of a Personalized Body-Worn Alcohol Dispenser. *Anesthesia & Analgesia*. 2024;138(1):152-160. [HTML]
- Fung DY. Rapid methods for detecting microbial contaminants in foods: past, present, and future. In: *Microbial Food Contamination*. CRC Press; 2007:171-208.
- Gouda S, Mattoo J, Kotian S, Kukanur FS, Naveen G. Comparison of effectiveness of 70%-isopropanol, 65%-ethanol and 1%-chlorhexidine for stethoscope decontamination. *Journal of Pure and Applied Microbiology*. 2020;14(3):2053-2062. [semanticscholar.org](https://www.semanticscholar.org)
- Hu D, Hong H, Rong B, Wei Y, Zeng J, Zhu J, Yu X. A comprehensive investigation of the microbial risk of secondary water supply systems in residential neighborhoods in a large city. *Water Research*. 2021;205:117690. [iue.ac.cn](https://www.elsevier.com/locate/watres)
- Josephs-Spaulding J, Singh OV. Medical device sterilization and reprocessing in the era of Multidrug-Resistant (MDR) bacteria: issues and regulatory concepts. *Frontiers in Medical Technology*; 2021. [frontiersin.org](https://www.frontiersin.org)
- Labovská S. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* as a Cause of Nosocomial Infections. In: *Pseudomonas aeruginosa-Biofilm Formation, Infections and Treatments*. Intech Open; 2021. [Intechopen.com](https://www.intechopen.com)
- Li W, Huang J, Guo X, Zhao J, Mandell MS. Anesthesia management and perioperative infection control in patients with the novel coronavirus. *Journal of Cardiothoracic and Vascular Anesthesia*. 2021;35(5):1503-1508. [sciencedirect.com](https://www.science.org)
- Macedo CE, Ferreira AM, Barcelos LDS, Alvim ALS, Carneiro LM, Martins SR, Sousa AFLD. Contamination of equipment and surfaces in the operating room anesthesia workspace: a cross-sectional study. *Sao Paulo Medical Journal*. 2024;142(4). [scielo.br](https://www.scielo.br)
- Manga M, Ngobi TG, Okeny L, Acheng P, Namakula H, Kyaterekerera E, Kibwami N. The effect of household storage tanks/vessels and user practices on the quality of water: a systematic review of literature. *Environmental*

- Systems Research. 2021;10:1-26. [springer.com](https://www.springer.com)
19. Nazarchuk O, Dmyrtriiiev D, Babina Y, Faustova M, Burkot V. Research of the activity of local anesthetics and antiseptics regarding clinical isolates of *Acinetobacter baumannii* as pathogens of postoperative infectious complications. *Acta Bio Medica: Atenei Parmensis*; 2022;93(1). [nih.gov](https://www.nih.gov)
 20. Reynier T, Berahou M, Albaladejo P, Beloeil H. Moving towards green anaesthesia: Are patient safety and environmentally friendly practices compatible? A focus on single-use devices. *Anaesthesia Critical Care & Pain Medicine*. 2021;40(4):100907. [sciencedirect.com](https://www.sciencedirect.com)
 21. Rowan NJ, Kremer T, McDonnell G. A review of Spaulding's classification system for effective cleaning, disinfection and sterilization of reusable medical devices: Viewed through a modern-day lens. *Science of the Total Environment*; 2023. [sciencedirect.com](https://www.sciencedirect.com)
 22. Sadrizadeh S, Aganovic A, Bogdan A, Wang C, Afshari A, Hartmann A, Cao G. A systematic review of operating room ventilation. *Journal of Building Engineering*. 2021;40:102693. [sciencedirect.com](https://www.sciencedirect.com)
 23. Sanchez KL. Decreasing Anesthesia Workstation Contamination: An Educational Module. Florida International University; 2022. [fiu.edu](https://www.fiu.edu)
 24. Schmidt E, Dexter F, Herrmann J, Godding JD, Hadder B, Loftus RW. Assessment of anesthesia machine redesign on cleaning of the anesthesia machine using surface disinfection wipes. *American Journal of Infection Control*. 2020;48(6):675-681. [HTML]
 25. Sharma A, Fernandez PG, Rowlands JP, Koff MD, Loftus RW. Perioperative infection transmission: the role of the anesthesia provider in infection control and healthcare-associated infections. *Current Anesthesiology Reports*. 2020;10:233-241. [springer.com](https://www.springer.com)
 26. Sharma S, Mohler J, Mahajan SD, Schwartz SA, Bruggemann L, Aalinkeel R. Microbial biofilm: a review on formation, infection, antibiotic resistance, control measures, and innovative treatment. *Microorganisms*. 2023;11(6):1614. [mdpi.com](https://www.mdpi.com)
 27. Slavik I, Oliveira KR, Cheung PB, Uhl W. Water quality aspects related to domestic drinking water storage tanks and consideration in current standards and guidelines throughout the world—a review. *Journal of Water and Health*. 2020;18(4):439-463. [ntnu.no](https://www.ntnu.no)
 28. Soonthornsit J, Pimwaraluck K, Kongmuang N, Praty P, Phumthanakorn N. Molecular epidemiology of antimicrobial-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in a veterinary teaching hospital environment. *Veterinary Research Communications*. 2023;47(1):73-86. [HTML]
 29. Ssekitoleko RT, Oshabahebwa S, Munabi IG, Tusabe MS, Namayega C, Ngabirano BA, Joloba ML. The role of medical equipment in the spread of nosocomial infections: a cross-sectional study in four tertiary public health facilities in Uganda. *BMC Public Health*. 2020;20:1-11. [springer.com](https://www.springer.com)
 30. Stefani L, de Oliveira Borges PK, da Rocha MD. Surgical site infections: surgical reoperation and infection in clean and potentially contaminated surgeries. *Revista Brasileira de Saúde Ocupacional*; 2022. [bvsalud.org](https://www.bvsalud.org)
 31. Vanlalruati RSC, Kiangte L, Hmar V, Vanlalchhanhimi L, Chongthu JL, Hmar L, Sailo L. Microbiological surveillance of operation theatres of a tertiary care hospital in Mizoram, north eastern part of India: 4 years retrospective analysis. *IP International Journal of Medical Microbiology and Tropical Diseases*. 2023;8(1):19-23. [researchgate.net](https://www.researchgate.net)
 32. Wahlsten LR, Palm H, Gislason GH, Brorson S. Sex differences in incidence rate, and temporal changes in surgical management and adverse events after hip fracture surgery in Denmark 1997–2017: a register-based study. *Acta Orthopaedica*; 2021. [tandfonline.com](https://www.tandfonline.com)