



## Original Research

# Evaluation of microbial contamination of extraction forceps prior to dental extractions

Shali J Kokila<sup>1</sup>

Chief Dental Surgeon<sup>1</sup>, Consultant Periodontist and Oral Implantologist, Blossom dental care, Chennai

**How to cite:** Shali JK, Evaluation of microbial contamination of extraction forceps prior to dental extractions, *Int J Perio Rehab.* Volume 2022; Article ID 22154005, 6 pages

Received: 03.04.2022

Accepted: 12.04.2022

Web published: 20.04.2022

**ABSTRACT:**

**Aim:** To evaluate the microbial contamination on extraction forceps prior to dental extraction. Introduction: Nosocomial infections or hospital acquired infections are most commonly affecting the patients. Transmission of diseases from one patient to another can occur as a result of reusing instruments without proper disinfection or sterilisation. Using an infected instrument does not only affect patients but also dentist and dental staff by producing cross infection like Hepatitis B<sup>1</sup> and C<sup>2</sup>, tuberculosis<sup>3</sup>, HIV, infective endocarditis etc. Especially when instrument involves blood contact like extraction forceps, elevators, endodontic files, burs etc. It is important to sterilize instruments properly to avoid cross contamination and infection spread.

**Materials and method:** A sample size of 20 extraction forceps is included. Swabs are collected immediately prior to extraction and cultured in nutrient agar. Data was collected and statistically analysed.

**Results:** The average colony count of 6.1 CFU is seen in total 20 samples taken. The colony count is quite low suggestive of good sterilization protocol followed by the institution.

**Conclusion:** Although there was minimal number of colony forming unit in the extraction forceps. There is high chance that the organism can be pathogenic and can create many postoperative complications like infective endocarditis, abscess, dry socket etc. As said prevention is better than cure. It is better to maintain a good sterilization protocol which will reduce the risk of cross contamination and maintain good asepsis.

**Keywords:** Autoclave, Extraction forceps, infection control, microbial growth, swabs.

---

**Address for Correspondence:**

Dr. Shali J Kokila, Private practitioner,

Flat#S2, A Block, Kurinji Flats, Neela Nagar-Babu Nagar link road, Medavakkam, Chennai - 600100

E-mail – shali6192@gmail.com

**INTRODUCTION**

Nosocomial infections or hospital acquired infections are most commonly affecting the patients. According to the Harvard Medical Practice Study II found that a single type of nosocomial infection is surgical-wound infection which constituted the second-largest category of all. Many sterilization techniques have been developed within years to free the instruments from pathogenic organisms after every use. Diseases may be transmitted by indirect contact when dental instruments contaminated by one patient are reused for another patient without adequate disinfection or sterilization between uses. Using an infected instrument does not only affect patients but also dentist and dental staff by producing cross infection like hepatitis B<sup>1</sup> and C<sup>2</sup>, tuberculosis<sup>3</sup>, HIV, infective endocarditis etc. Especially when the instrument involves blood contact like extraction forceps, elevators, endodontic files, burs etc. It is important to sterilize instruments properly to avoid cross contamination and infection spread.

Depending on the possible risk for infection in link with their use, dental instruments, devices, and equipment are categorized by the Centers for Disease Control as critical, semi critical, or noncritical:

**CRITICAL INSTRUMENTS:** Surgical instruments that are involved in direct soft tissue or bone penetration are considered as critical items. It includes scalpels, periodontal probes, ultrasonic scaler tips, and other surgical instruments. Since they come in direct contact with surgical site, they have high risk of transmission of infection, and it is mandatory to adequately sterilise these instruments.

**SEMI CRITICAL INSTRUMENTS:** Instruments that come in contact with the oral mucosa, having low risk of infection transmission, including mouth mirror, restorative instruments, dental airtor handpiece, impression trays etc. are considered as Semi critical instruments. These instruments should be subjected to high level disinfection.

**NON CRITICAL INSTRUMENTS:** Items that contact only the intact skin, having least risk of infection transmission, are considered as Non critical items. They include blood pressure cuff, pulse oximeter, radiograph cone etc. It is sufficient to clean the area first, then disinfect it with an EPA-registered hospital disinfectant. An EPA-registered hospital disinfectant with a tuberculocidal claim, typically an intermediate-level disinfectant, should be used when the item is clearly contaminated with blood or OPIM. Certain non-critical patient care items can be difficult to clean or disinfect without damaging the surfaces; as a result, using disposable barrier protection on these surfaces may be a better option.

**Sterilization:** Sterilization is a process where in the surface is made free of pathogens, including the spores and vegetative forms. Many types of sterilization techniques are available. They are classified into physical and chemical agents. Some are incineration, hot air oven, steam under pressure, radiations, ultrasonic and sonic vibrations, sunlight etc. Most commonly used method of sterilization for steam under pressure or autoclave.

**Autoclave:** The principle of the autoclave is that the water boils in an autoclave or steam steriliser when its vapour pressure reaches the same level as the atmosphere outside. The temperature at which water boils also raises when the pressure inside a closed vessel increases. Saturated steam has a piercing quality. Steam condenses into water and releases latent heat when it comes into contact with a cooler surface, killing any germs that may be present. Most frequently used at 121 degree Celsius at 15 minutes of holding time.

Infection control and maintaining high standard sterilization protocol is highly stressed in current practice of dentistry.<sup>4</sup> Improper sterilization practice can lead to transmission of various fatal diseases. It may lead to cross contamination.<sup>5</sup> Transmission of infection can occur in possible ways:

1. Patient to dental worker.
2. Dental worker to patient
3. Patient/ dental workers to community
4. Patient/dental workers to family members.

Infections spread through many things including aerosol, droplets, saliva, blood, plasma etc. Aerosol can cause acute respiratory syndrome or SARS<sup>6</sup>, Pneumonia<sup>7</sup> and pulmonary diseases<sup>8</sup>. Blood can cause Hepatitis B<sup>9,10</sup>, HIV<sup>11</sup>, Hepatitis C etc.

Disinfection: Destruction of pathogenic microorganisms or their toxins or vectors by direct exposure to chemical or physical agents. Commonly used disinfectants in dentistry are hydrogen peroxide, glutaraldehyde, ethyl or isopropyl alcohol alcohols etc. The aim of the study is to evaluate the microbial count on extraction forceps prior to dental extraction.

## MATERIALS AND METHOD

Sample collection: 20 sample size were collected from a private dental college. Swab sample is taken immediately prior to extraction from the autoclaved extraction forceps. Sampling is selected near the beaks of the forceps. Break the seal round the tube containing the swab. Remove the swab from the tube and rub and roll it firmly several times across the sampling area. Return the swab into the tube and label the sample. Send the sample to the laboratory for analysis.

Microbiological analysis: The samples obtained were inoculated in culture plates of nutrient agar. The plates were incubation for 24 hours followed by analyzing the colonies count.

Data analysis: The data is collected and statistically analysed. Data is collected in form of colony forming unit. The total sample collected was taken average of the colony formed.

## RESULTS

The average colony count of 6.1 CFU is seen in total 20 samples taken. The colony count is quite low suggestive of good sterilization protocol followed by the institution.

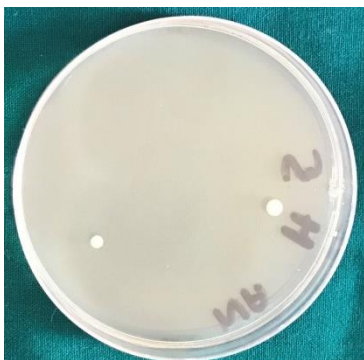


FIGURE-1 Colonies formation after 24 hours incubation

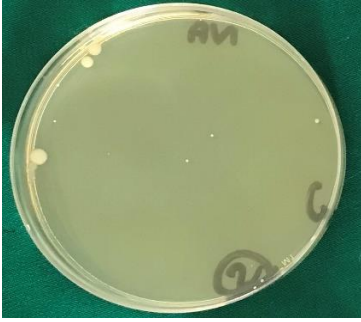


FIGURE -2 Colonies formation after 24 hours incubation

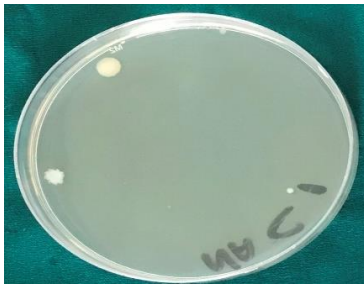


FIGURE-3 Colonies formation after 24 hours incubation

## DISCUSSION

Many researchers have proved that dental environment is prone to microbial contamination can be either pathological or nonpathological. If they are pathological, can lead to many infection and disease. Williams et al, 1998<sup>12</sup> conducted a study comparing bacterial contamination of same dental institution from 1976 to 1998. They found slight difference in bacterial count in 1998 with lesser colonization from head lights, light handle covers and clinic jacket cuffs. Hence proved that even after years of having advanced sterilization protocol there was still bacterial contamination seen even if it showed statistical difference. A epidemiology study done in 1989, in this study they proved the presence of bacteria in multiple dose vial of local anaesthesia and heparin. They concluded that the bacterial contamination was due to the when the vacuum in the vial removed cells and bacteria from the syringe that had entered the tip because of a back pressure in the syringe during use.<sup>13</sup> Swaminathan et al in 2013<sup>14</sup> concluded in their review that aerosol plays an important role in contaminating environment which can produce hazardous effect on patient and the dentist. Amad et al in 2017<sup>15</sup> collected swab from headscarves during performing restorative dentistry with or without rubberdam. They found bacterial colony forming unit from the headscarves. This in turn prove the contamination level in dental office by contaminating the headscarves. Nejatidanesh et al in 2013<sup>16</sup> in their study showed different levels of bacterial colony forming units in different part of face like nose, eyes, zygoma etc. Dental practice presents opportunities for cross-contamination. The dentist's face is at high-risk of infection transmission. Which can in turn cause cross infection from dentist to patient and vice versa. Many researches have been done to bring out various methods and technology in field of sterilization and improve maintaining asepsis environment. Molinari et al. 2000<sup>17</sup> suggested application of precautions such as multiple aseptic procedures, latex gloves<sup>18,19</sup>, masks<sup>20</sup>, protective eyewear, clinic coats, automated instrument decontamination devices, time-efficient heat sterilization modalities, chemical disinfectants, waste management procedures and single-use disposable items have created a safer environment for dental workers and patients.

**CONCLUSION**

Although there was minimal number of colony forming unit in the extraction forceps. There is high chance that the organism can be pathogenic and can create many postoperative complications like infective endocarditis, abscess, dry socket etc. As said prevention is better than cure. It is better to maintain a good sterilization protocol which will reduce the risk of cross contamination and maintain good asepsis.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENT: NIL**

**CONFLICT OF INTERESTS: NIL**

**SOURCE OF FUNDING: NIL**

**REFERENCES**

1. Michael L. Levin, Willis C. Maddrey, Jack R. Wands, Albert I. Mendeloff. Hepatitis B Transmission by Dentists. *JAMA*. 1974;228(9):1139–1140.
2. Klein RS, Freeman K, Taylor PE, Stevens CE. Occupational risk for hepatitis C virus infection among New York City dentists. *The Lancet*. 1991 Dec 28;338(8782-8783):1539-42.
3. Cadmus SI, Okoje VN, Taiwo BO, van Soolingen D. Exposure of dentists to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, Ibadan, Nigeria. *Emerging infectious diseases*. 2010 Sep;16(9):1479.
4. Umar D, Basheer B, Husain A, Baroudi K, Ahamed F, Kumar A. Evaluation of Bacterial Contamination in a Clinical Environment. *Journal of International Oral Health : JIOH*. 2015;7(1):53-55.
5. Abichandani S, Nadiger R. Cross contamination in dentistry: A comprehensive overview. *Journal of Education and Ethics in Dentistry*. 2012 Jan 1;2(1):3.
6. Harrel SK, Molinari J. Aerosols and splatter in dentistry: a brief review of the literature and infection control implications. *The Journal of the American Dental Association*. 2004 Apr 1;135(4):429-37.
7. Azarpazhooh A, Leake JL. Systematic review of the association between respiratory diseases and oral health. *Journal of periodontology*. 2006 Sep;77(9):1465-82.
8. RekshmyD'dharan S, Arjunkumar R. Decreasing Aerosol Contamination and Prevention of Cross Infection due to Ultrasonic Scaling. *International Journal*. 2014;2(1):903-7.
9. Mahboobi N, Agha-Hosseini F, Safari S, Lavanchy D, Alavian SM. Hepatitis B virus infection in dentistry: a forgotten topic. *Journal of viral hepatitis*. 2010 May 1;17(5):307-16.
10. Rimland D, Parkin WE, Miller Jr GB, Schrack WD. Hepatitis B outbreak traced to an oral surgeon. *New England journal of medicine*. 1977 Apr 28;296(17):953-8.
11. Scully C, Greenspan JS. Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) transmission in dentistry. *Journal of dental research*. 2006 Sep;85(9):794-800.
12. Williams HN, Singh R, Romberg E. Surface contamination in the dental operatory: A comparison over two decades. *The Journal of the American Dental Association*. 2003 Mar 1;134(3):325-30.
13. Donald B, Contamination of multiple-dose vials due to repeat use of syringes. *Pudmed Central Canada*. 1989 *CMAJ*, Vol. 140,529-531.
14. Swaminathan Y, Thomas JT. Aerosol-a prospective contaminant of dental environment. *IOSR Journal of Dental and Medical Sciences*. 2013;11(2):45-50.
15. Al-Amad SH, Awad MA, Edher FM, Shahramian K, Omran TA. The effect of rubber dam on atmospheric bacterial aerosols during restorative dentistry. *Journal of infection and public health*. 2017 Mar 1;10(2):195-200.

16. Nejatidanesh F, Khosravi Z, Goroohi H, Badrian H, Savabi O. Risk of contamination of different areas of dentist's face during dental practices. *International journal of preventive medicine*. 2013 May;4(5):611.
17. Molinari JA. Dental infection control at the year 2000: accomplishment recognized. *Journal of the American Dental Association (1939)*. 1999 Sep;130(9):1291-8.
18. Wrangsjö K, Wallenhammar LM, Örtengren U, Barregård L, Andreasson H, Björkner B, Karlsson S, Meding B. Protective gloves in Swedish dentistry: use and side-effects. *British Journal of Dermatology*. 2001 Jul 1;145(1):32-7.
19. Kanjirath PP, Coplen AE, Chapman JC, Peters MC, Inglehart MR. Effectiveness of gloves and infection control in dentistry: student and provider perspectives. *Journal of dental education*. 2009 May 1;73(5):571-80.
20. Gordon BL, Burke FJ, Bagg J, Marlborough HS, McHugh ES. Systematic review of adherence to infection control guidelines in dentistry. *Journal of dentistry*. 2001 Nov 1;29(8):509-16.



Published by MM Publishers  
<https://www.mmpubl.com/ijepior>

This is an open access journal, and articles are distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License, which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as appropriate credit is given and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.  
To view a copy of this license, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/> or send a letter to Creative Commons, PO Box 1866, Mountain View, CA 94042, USA.

Copyright © 2022 Shali J Kokila