Published in final edited form as:

J Arthroplasty. 2016 August ; 31(8): 1746–1749. doi:10.1016/j.arth.2016.02.004.

Risk of Contamination in Assembled vs Disassembled Instruments in Hip Arthroplasty Surgery

Ryan R. Mayer, BS^a, S. Samuel Bederman, MD, PhD, FRCSC^b, Vincent M. Colin, MD^a, Martina M. Berger, PhD^c, Thomas C. Cesario, MD^c, and Ran Schwarzkopf, MD, MSc^{d,*}

^aDepartment of Orthopaedic Surgery, University of California, Irvine, Orange, California

^bScoliosis and Spine Tumor Center, Texas Back Institute, Plano, Texas

^cDepartment of Infectious Diseases, University of California, Irvine, Orange, California

^dDivision of Adult Reconstruction, Department of Orthopaedic Surgery, NYU Langone Medical Center, Hospital for Joint Diseases, New York, New York

Abstract

Background—Periprosthetic joint infection (PJI) is one of the most common causes of revision total hip arthroplasty (THA) and associated with higher costs, prolonged pain, and worse clinical outcomes. Many factors have been linked to increased infection rates, one being the operative equipment and instrumentation used during the surgical procedure. With few arthroplasty instruments designed for complete disassembly and increasingly complex instrument designs, this study seeks to understand the effect that instrument disassembly plays on infection using disassembled and assembled standard femoral broach handles (BHs).

Methods—Two BHs, not designed for disassembly, were modified and then contaminated in the disassembled state with *Geobacillus stearothermophilus* vegetative-form bacteria and spores. Using both flash and standard sterilization cycles, the BHs were steam sterilized in the disassembled or assembled state and then analyzed for remaining bacteria and spores.

Results—At all target locations after either a flash sterilization cycle or a standard sterilization cycle, complete eradication of both the vegetative-form and spore-form of *G stearothermophilus* was achieved.

Conclusion—This study demonstrates that adequate decontamination of the tested BHs can be achieved after steam sterilization in either the disassembled or assembled state, without an increased risk of infection transmission.

Keywords

instrumentation; contamination; sterility; periprosthetic joint infection; disassembled; total hip arthroplasty

*Reprint requests: Ran Schwarzkopf, MD, MSc, Division of Adult Reconstruction, Department of Orthopaedic Surgery, NYU Langone Medical Center, Hospital For Joint Diseases, 301 East 17th Street, New York, NY, 10003.

One or more of the authors of this paper have disclosed potential or pertinent conflicts of interest, which may include receipt of payment, either direct or indirect, institutional support, or association with an entity in the biomedical field which may be perceived to have potential conflict of interest with this work. For full disclosure statements refer to <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.arth.2016.02.004>.

The estimated rate of periprosthetic joint infection (PJI) after total hip arthroplasty (THA) is 0.88%-3.0% [1-3]. Postoperative infection is one of the most common causes of revision THA, which costs 3.6 times more than primary THA or approximately \$100,000 per patient [4-7]. Increased infection rates have been linked to patient characteristics, length of surgical procedure, length of hospital stay, and factors related to the operative environment [8-10]. These include the number of personnel in the operating room and contamination of equipment or instrumentation [11-18].

Reusable surgical instruments that are not properly cleaned, disinfected, and sterilized according to manufacturer and regulatory guidelines can become a potential source of contamination [19-21]. Manufacturers must provide detailed guidelines for reusable surgical instruments regarding decontamination, including cleaning and disinfection, and sterilization steps for each instrument, but these can vary significantly depending on variations in device construction, materials, and design [19]. Instruments made of multiple components or devices can complicate these processes, but mandates exist for instruments to be disassembled to allow uninterrupted contact to the sterilization methods used [19-21]. Also, devices with complex design features, such as sharp angles, occluded dead ends, complex jaw assemblies, articulations, furrows, and irregular surfaces, can affect the sterilization process by making them more likely to trap bioburden, a population of viable microorganisms, and debris including blood and bone [20-26].

With the increasing complexity of instrument design, and few arthroplasty instruments designed to be completely disassembled, this study seeks to evaluate the current sterilization practices by comparing the contamination level between disassembled and assembled standard femoral broach handles (BHs).

Materials and Methods

This study was approved by our institutional biosafety committee for research. Two standard femoral BHs (Smith & Nephew, Memphis, TN), not originally designed for disassembly, were modified to allow for component disassembly (Fig. 1). Two pins holding the instrument's internal components together were removed and replaced by threaded stainless steel screws and nuts (Fig. 1). Before the instrument being modified, the areas surrounding the internal components were not directly exposed to steam during the sterilization procedure.

Five test sites were studied on each BH, with one site serving as a control (Fig. 2). These sites were selected because they were considered the most difficult locations to clean and had the highest potential to retain organic matter. In the first experiment, the BHs were contaminated at these 5 sites with a vegetative-form bacterium, *Geobacillus stearothermophilus* (ATCC 12980; Manassas, VA). In the second experiment, the BHs were contaminated with *G. stearothermophilus* spores resistant to steam sterilization (NAMSUS-06, derived from ATCC 7953; Northwood, OH) in the same 5 locations. *G. stearothermophilus* was chosen for this experiment because it is a spore-forming bacterium that is resistant to steam sterilization, and it is commonly used as a biological indicator to evaluate the efficacy of sterile processing and infection control [27].

In the first experiment, a tryptic soy broth (TSB) suspension containing vegetative-form bacteria (4.0×10^6 *G stearothermophilus* organisms per milliliter) was inoculated onto the BHs using sterile cotton-tipped swabs. In the second experiment, 100 μ L of a water-and-ethanol suspension of spores (2.4×10^7 *G stearothermophilus* spores per milliliter) was inoculated onto the BHs using a pipette. To quantify the *G stearothermophilus* vegetative-form bacterial suspensions, dilutions in TSB were performed up to 1:10,000 and inoculated onto trypticase soy agar plates. These plates were then incubated for 48 hours at 55° C, the temperature at which *G stearothermophilus* undergoes optimal growth.

After inoculation of the instruments, one BH was reassembled before sterilization, whereas the other one was kept in the disassembled state. The BHs were then placed into sterilization pouches and sterilized using a prevacuum steam sterilizer; no further cleaning was conducted besides the sterilization process. Three trials of the experiment were performed using a flash sterilization cycle at 132° C for 4 minutes with a 1-minute dry time, and 3 trials of the experiment were performed using a standard sterilization cycle at 132° C for 4 minutes with a 20-minute dry time. These sterilization times complied with the sterilization practices used by our institution and also met the minimum sterilization cycle times recommended by the Association for the Advancement of Medical Instrumentation (AAMI) and Association of Perioperative Registered Nurses (AORN) [21,25,28].

After the sterilization process was complete, all BHs were disassembled and the test sites were cultured using a sterile cotton-tipped swab moistened with sterile TSB. The contaminated swabs were then placed into 2 mL of TSB and incubated for 7 days in a shaking water bath at 55° C. Growth was then checked by subculture on trypticase soy agar plates.

A total of 6 control trials were also performed during which the BHs were inoculated in the disassembled state but not sterilized. The BHs were inoculated with either vegetative-form bacteria (3 trials) or bacterial spores (3 trials) and placed into sterilization pouches in the disassembled state for the duration of a typical sterilization cycle. The test sites on each instrument were then cultured using the same methodology as described previously (Fig. 3).

Results

The control trials, during which disassembled BHs were contaminated without sterilization, yielded positive culture results in all 5 locations on the BHs with both *G stearothermophilus* bacteria and spores. Because 3 control trials were performed with vegetative-form bacteria and 3 trials were performed with bacterial spores, this resulted in 15 potential contamination sites per arm of the study. Bacteria were detected at each of the test sites, therefore resulting in a total of 15 of 15 positive cultures for both the vegetative-form and spore-form of the bacteria (Table 1).

For the trials that underwent steam sterilization, complete eradication of both the vegetative-form and spore-form of *G stearothermophilus* was achieved at all target locations after both the flash sterilization cycle (4 minutes at 132° C followed by 1-minute dry time) and the standard sterilization cycle (4 minutes at 132° C followed by 20-minute dry time). This

resulted in a total of 0 of 15 positive cultures in both the BHs in the assembled and disassembled states (Table 1). Both the flash and standard sterilization cycles were equally efficacious in sterilizing the studied instruments in both the assembled and disassembled states after contamination with vegetative-form bacteria or bacterial spores.

Discussion

PJI leads to decreased clinical outcomes and increased economic impact for both patients and society; it is imperative to decrease infection rates and minimize potential sources of contamination. One possible source of contamination is the surgical instrumentation. This study is the first to evaluate if an instrument designed for hip arthroplasty has different contamination rates after steam sterilization in either the disassembled or assembled state. This study demonstrates that adequate decontamination of the tested BHs can be achieved after steam sterilization in either the disassembled or assembled state, without an increased risk of infection transmission.

Cleaning and decontamination are the first steps in the sterilization process of arthroplasty instruments. These processes help make the microbicidal sterilization process more effective by removing particulate matter and microorganisms. Manufacturers must provide detailed guidelines for reusable surgical instruments regarding decontamination, including cleaning and disinfection, and sterilization steps for each instrument, but these can vary significantly depending on variations in device construction, materials, and design [19]. Guidelines established by the device manufacturers, AORN, and AAMI dictate that instruments with more than one part or piece should be disassembled for these sterilization processes [20]. If this step does not occur, or if instruments cannot be disassembled, bioburden and debris can accumulate within grooves, joints, hinges, or other difficult-to-clean locations [20]. Inadequate cleaning and the accumulation of bioburden and debris can make subsequent steps in the sterilization process less effective, resulting in significant risks of infectious agent transmission and health care—associated infections [20,21,25,26]. Visual inspection is currently the only standard verification step that is used after the instrument cleaning process, thus making it difficult to assess locations that are not easily visualized, such as lumens, crevices, and hinges [20].

The final step in the sterilization process is steam sterilization. This step uses saturated steam under pressure to transfer stored energy to the object in the form of latent heat, which causes thermocoagulation of microbial proteins and microorganism elimination [29]. For this process to be effective, direct steam contact is required with the surface of the object to be sterilized. Because several of the tested locations did not have direct contact with steam, we suspect that latent heat transferred from immediately adjacent areas was responsible for the microorganism and spore destruction.

Several studies in the laparoscopic surgical literature have studied assembled and disassembled instruments, as well as how a bioburden might affect the sterilization process. The first study, performed by Marshburn et al [30], used 4 different types of laparoscopic instruments that were contaminated with 3 types of vegetative-form bacteria (*Serratia marcescens*, *Bacillus subtilis*, and *Bacillus stearothermophilus*) and 2 types of bacterial

spores (*B subtilis* and *B stearothermophilus*). The instruments were then sterilized by either ethylene oxide or steam sterilization in either the assembled or disassembled state. In this study, all vegetative bacteria were eradicated after sterilization and similar results were obtained between the assembled and disassembled instruments after contamination with *B stearothermophilus* spores, with 1 of 24 and 1 of 30 positive cultures, respectively. The results observed in this study using assembled and disassembled laparoscopic instruments are similar to the results that we observed in our experiment using assembled and disassembled femoral BHs.

In the second study, Voyles et al [31] filled a 12-mm-diameter reusable trocar with hamburger meat infected by seven different bacteria before performing either a flash or standard sterilization cycle. They found no detectable microorganisms present in the hamburger meat after analysis. They also performed a second experiment in which hamburger meat with *B stearothermophilus* spores was placed in a trocar and steam sterilized until all spores were destroyed. It took 7 minutes to completely eradicate the spores in the trocar with hamburger meat compared to 3 minutes in the trocar without hamburger meat. The results observed in this study show that both flash and standard sterilization cycles effectively eliminated bacterial spores, which is consistent with the results that we observed in our present study using assembled and disassembled femoral BHs. Also, this study confirms that the accumulation of bioburden and debris negatively affects the sterilization process, requiring more than double the sterilization time to adequately sterilize the surgical instrument.

This present study has several limitations including the instrument selection and lack of a biologic challenge. Because only one instrument was studied and many possible design features exist, it may not be possible to generalize these results to all devices used during arthroplasty surgery. Also, no biologic challenge was used, such as bone or hamburger meat, as described by Voyles et al [31]. This study looks at the effectiveness of the final step in the sterilization process only, but to truly recreate the operative environment and the complete sterilization process, a biologic challenge followed by the cleaning and decontamination steps should be used. Further studies are needed using a similar protocol for instruments with different design features and an added biologic challenge.

In conclusion, we demonstrated that the manner in which the tested BH was assembled for steam sterilization did not affect contamination levels. Despite observing no difference after the steam sterilization process in this study, we recommend complying with AORN and AAMI guidelines to disassemble all surgical equipment during the sterilization process owing to the previously described benefit during the cleaning and decontamination steps of the sterilization process.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank the Institute of Clinical and Translational Science at the University of California, Irvine for technical advice and for granting us access to equipment. The project described was supported by the National Center for Research Resources and the National Center for Advancing Translational Sciences, National Institutes of Health, through grant ML1 TR000153. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the NIH.

References

1. Kurtz SM, Lau E, Schmier J, et al. Infection burden for hip and knee arthroplasty in the United States. *J Arthroplasty*. 2008; 23(7):984. [PubMed: 18534466]
2. Lopez-Contreras J, Limon E, Matas L, et al. Epidemiology of surgical site infections after total hip and knee joint replacement during 2007-2009: a report from the VINCat Program. *Enferm Infecc Microbiol Clin*. 2012; 30(Suppl 3):26.
3. Kurtz SM, Lau E, Watson H, et al. Economic burden of periprosthetic joint infection in the United States. *J Arthroplasty*. 2012; 27(8 Suppl):61. [PubMed: 22554729]
4. Bozic KJ, Ries MD. The impact of infection after total hip arthroplasty on hospital and surgeon resource utilization. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2005; 87(8):1746. [PubMed: 16085614]
5. Klouche S, Soriali E, Mamoudy P. Total hip arthroplasty revision due to infection: a cost analysis approach. *Orthop Traumatol Surg Res*. 2010; 96(2):124. [PubMed: 20417910]
6. Wang CJ, Hsieh MC, Huang TW, et al. Clinical outcome and patient satisfaction in aseptic and septic revision total knee arthroplasty. *Knee*. 2004; 11(1):45. [PubMed: 14967328]
7. Bozic KJ, Kurtz SM, Lau E, et al. The epidemiology of revision total hip arthroplasty in the United States. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2009; 91(1):128. [PubMed: 19122087]
8. Pulido L, Ghanem E, Joshi A, et al. Periprosthetic joint infection: the incidence, timing, and predisposing factors. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2008; 466(7):1710. [PubMed: 18421542]
9. Ridgeway S, Wilson J, Charlet A, et al. Infection of the surgical site after arthroplasty of the hip. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 2005; 87(6):844. [PubMed: 15911671]
10. Smabrekke A, Espehaug B, Havelin LI, et al. Operating time and survival of primary total hip replacements: an analysis of 31,745 primary cemented and uncemented total hip replacements from local hospitals reported to the Norwegian Arthroplasty Register 1987-2001. *Acta Orthop Scand*. 2004; 75(5):524. [PubMed: 15513482]
11. Andersson BM, Lidgren L, Schalen C, et al. Contamination of irrigation solutions in an operating theatre. *Infect Control*. 1984; 5(7):339. [PubMed: 6564086]
12. Baird RA, Nickel FR, Thrupp LD, et al. Splash basin contamination in orthopaedic surgery. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1984; 187:129.
13. Davis N, Curry A, Gambhir AK, et al. Intraoperative bacterial contamination in operations for joint replacement. *J Bone Joint Surg Br*. 1999; 81(5):886. [PubMed: 10530856]
14. Hussein JR, Villar RN, Gray AJ, et al. Use of light handles in the laminar flow operating theatre—is it a cause of bacterial concern? *Ann R Coll Surg Engl*. 2001; 83(5):353. [PubMed: 11806565]
15. Robinson AH, Drew S, Anderson J, et al. Suction tip contamination in the ultraclean-air operating theatre. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl*. 1993; 75(4):254. [PubMed: 8379628]
16. Sankar B, Ray P, Rai J. Suction drain tip culture in orthopaedic surgery: a prospective study of 214 clean operations. *Int Orthop*. 2004; 28(5):311. [PubMed: 15316674]
17. Ha'eri GB, Wiley AM. Total hip replacement in a laminar flow environment with special reference to deep infections. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 1980; 148:163.
18. Howorth FH. Prevention of airborne infection during surgery. *Lancet*. 1985; 1(8425):386. [PubMed: 2857432]
19. Instrumentation AftAoM. ANSI/AAMI ST81, Sterilization of medical devices Information to be provided by the manufacturer for the processing of re-sterilizable medical devices. Arlington, Virginia: AAMI; 2004. (R) 2010
20. Instrumentation AftAoM. ANSI/AAMI ST35, Safe handling and biological decontamination of reusable medical devices in health care. Arlington, Virginia: AAMI; 2003.
21. AORN. Recommended practices for sterilization in the perioperative practice setting. *AORN J*. 2006; 83(3):700. [PubMed: 16579126]
22. DesCoteaux JG, Poulin EC, Julien M, et al. Residual organic debris on processed surgical instruments. *AORN J*. 1995; 62(1):23. [PubMed: 7574561]
23. Dietze B, Kircheis U, Schwarz I, et al. Freely accessible endoscope channels improve efficacy of cleaning. *Endoscopy*. 2001; 33(6):523. [PubMed: 11437047]

24. AORN. Recommended practices for high-level disinfection. AORN J. 2005; 81(2):402. [PubMed: 15770758]
25. Instrumentation AftAoM. ANSI/AAMI ST46, Steam sterilization and sterility assurance in health care facilities. Arlington, Virginia: AAMI; 2002.
26. Alvarado CJ, Reichelderfer M. APIC guideline for infection prevention and control in flexible endoscopy. Am J Infect Control. 2000; 28(2):138. [PubMed: 10760223]
27. Guizelini BP, Vandenberghe LP, Sella SR, et al. Study of the influence of sporulation conditions on heat resistance of *Geobacillus stearothermophilus* used in the development of biological indicators for steam sterilization. Arch Microbiol. 2012; 194(12):991. [PubMed: 22872104]
28. Instrumentation AftAoM. ANSI: AAMI ST8, Hospital steam sterilizers. Arlington, Virginia: AAMI; 2013.
29. Perkins, J. Principles and methods of sterilization in health sciences. Springfield: Charles C Thomas; 1983.
30. Marshburn PB, Rutala WA, Wannamaker NS, et al. Gas and steam sterilization of assembled versus disassembled laparoscopic equipment. Microbiologic studies. J Reprod Med. 1991; 36(7):483. [PubMed: 1834836]
31. Voyles CR, Sanders DL, Simons JE, et al. Steam sterilization of laparoscopic instruments. Surg Laparosc Endosc. 1995; 5(2):139. [PubMed: 7773462]

Fig. 1.
Standard femoral broach handle in assembled state. Note the screws (asterisk), which replaced the original pins so that the instrument could be disassembled.

Fig. 2. Standard femoral broach handle in a disassembled state with the 5 tested locations labeled (red asterisk = test sites; black asterisk = control).

Fig. 3.
Protocol used for the inoculation and sterilization of the broach handles.

Table 1

Culture Results After Broach Handles Contamination With Vegetative-Form or Spore-Form *Geobacillus stearothermophilus*, and Undergoing Either No Sterilization Cycle, Flash Sterilization Cycle (4 Minutes at 132°C/1-Minute Dry Time), or Standard Sterilization Cycle (4 Minutes at 132°C/20-Minute Dry Time).

Contamination Type	Sterilization Type	Assembled (A)/ Disassembled (D)	Test Sites Yielding Positive Cultures (Maximum: 15)
Vegetative-form bacterial suspension	0 (Control)	D	15
		A	0
	Flash	D	0
		A	0
		D	0
Spore solution	Standard	A	0
		D	0
	0 (Control)	D	15
		A	0
		D	0
	Flash	A	0
	Standard	A	0
		D	0

With 5 test sites on each broach handle and 3 trials performed for each combination, this resulted in a total of fifteen test sites.