

Surgical Waste Disposal: A Review

Uzma Riaz*

Government Sadiq College Women University, Pakistan

Mini Review Volume 3 Issue 4

Received Date: November 11, 2019

Published Date: December 02. 2019

DOI: 10.23880/oajpr-16000191

***Corresponding author:** Uzma Riaz, Government Sadiq College Women University, Bahawalpur, Punjab, Pakistan, Tel: 03029364514; Email: uzmariaz514@gmail.com

Abstract

In recent years there has been more difficulty in the processing of medical waste by using disposable nadel, furnaces, and other similar items in most of the developing countries. HCF (health care facility) waste is a special kind of waste generated in small quantities with high infection and injury potential. Knowledge in the fields of waste collection, sorting, stockpiling, transportation and disposal is 2 lacks in developing countries regarding healthcare facilities. Studies in Pakistan have shown that approximately 0.8-2.0 kg / day of waste are produced and 0.1-0.5 kg of it can be classified as a risk 3 waste. Wastes in HCFs are dangerous or toxic waste and waste not harmful. The following categories of risk wastes are: dangerous, contagious, sharp waste, medical waste, genotoxic waste, chemical waste and radioactive waste. Dependent on hospital policies and practices and the type of care given, the amount of biomedical waste generated is different. According to a report by the WHO, approximately 85% of hospital waste was not in danger and 10% was infectious and the remaining 5% was non-infectious due to improper segregation practices waste was mixed, thereby resulting in the presence of wastes as a whole.

Keywords: Hospital waste; Disposal; Patient

Abbreviations: WHO: World Health Organization; HCF: Health Care Facility; BMW: Bio Medicinal Waste; HBC: Hepatitis B Virus; HCV: Hepatitis C Virus.

Introduction

Anything provided by processes, disasters and infrastructure, with a focus on human services and social insurance administrations is to be used as an administrative waste or cautious waste or surgical waste [1]. Any waste generated by hospital research for the diagnosis, treatment, or vaccination of humans or animals is clinical emergency residue [2]. "Hospital waste is one of the most polluting and harmful types of waste in small amounts" [3]. In the largest hospital in the study, this study was carried out as a 1 ton of recycled borderline scheme, including waste transfer and disposal through deposits, incineration, composting and product recycling. This investigation was done in a sample in the largest hospital. Develop an integrated hospital waste management plan [4]. Challenges to infrastructure for healthcare waste management in these countries. In one major piece of Information on hospital waste generation, waste generation in the hospitals surveyed was discovered to be 1,53 kg / patient / day of which 75.15% consisted of total waste and the remaining was biomedical waste [5].

For many countries worldwide with resource limitations, sound healthcare is a challenge. Pakistan has a 22.30% of poverty head ratio and social health insurance

Open Access Journal of Pharmaceutical Research

accounts for only 5% of the population [6,7].

Citizens should therefore rely on private healthcare providers. Some of these institutions offer charitable funding to make public programs available. But in this region too Pakistan's population growth and urbanization rates are highest [8]. Hospital waste has several pathogens, which can be very dangerous waste with adverse health effects. The research is conducted in the Faisalabad state hospitals. Quantitative trials show that 55% of these clinics are non-infective, 15% contain infectious waste, 25% contain organic waste, 2% contain sharp waste and 30% contain chemical waste. Few major hospitals have their own incinerators, but these are still not effective and waste management is inadequate [9].

This paper is still about developing a small incinerator in hospitals. A main (500-7000c), secondary (700-900c) rooms and a tertiary (900-12000c) are all three parking spaces of the proposed incinerator. The situation analysis confirmed the need for intensive training at all levels in this hospital, a project to manage and efficiently address hospital waste [9].

Recently, expanded use of operating devices has enhanced cost control and infection control in a regular hospital environment. Environmental effects have increased during the life cycle of plastic and stainless steel structures. In contrast to traditional products recycled, different features and quantities of reusable shear should be considered. An eco-efficiency analysis can demonstrate the potential contribution of these products to sustainable development [10].

Medical waste is also a source of soil and water pollution unless it becomes harmless before it is deposited on the surface and disposed of in water. In addition, when treated in open burning or burning in incinerators, medical waste emits harmful gases that lead to atmospheric pollution. If precautionary measures are followed, such pollutants may cause respiratory or skin diseases or cancer [11].

Hospital waste contains both hazardous and nonhazardous waste. Hospital waste generally includes infectious waste, medical, pharmaceutical, sharp, chemicals, radioactive and genotoxic waste. Nonhazardous waste includes food waste left over and its packaging and daily waste generally [2].

Hospital waste refers to all waste disposed of and not intended for further use, whether biological or nonbiological. Medical waste is a form of hospital waste; refers to the material produced as a result of patient treatment, care or immunization and related clinical research [12].

The treatment of Biomedicinal waste (BMW) is carried out in hospitals, research establishments, community clinics, laboratories, blood banks, animal houses and instigations [13].

Last year, the public became increasingly concerned about healthcare providers ' waste management. It is estimated that 5.2 million men die of a waste-related disease, four million of whom have been killed. Any well managed, efficient and committed hospital can plan a successful management of waste [14].

Infectious waste constitutes around 10 per cent of the total health waste as a dangerous element. In several developed countries, the average healthcare was 0-3 kg/2 and roughly 2 kg / y for Pakistan. In Pakistan 44 hospitals, 500 hospitals and 1, 2480 total waste sleeping quantities, weighing 1, 0 kg or 0, 5 kg were produced in Punjab. Shaking, particularly useful syringes, scalpels, scalpels, cutlery and broken glasses are the most contaminator, hazardous waste in the hospital. The patient's food, boots, gloves, catheters and liquids are handled with infertile waste. As a result of its \$5.2 billion annual sales, Pakistan is constantly consuming chemical, health, radiological and environmental contaminants. The highest and lowest level of injection in the world is Pakistan 6. 10 people per 30 million are used each year [14].

The growth and use of medically-manufactured disposable products worldwide has created a large number of medical wastes during the decade [15]. The abuse can also cause dust, toxic fumes, insecticides, rats and worms and can contribute through heavy blood contamination to conditions like typhoid, hepatitis, and cholera [16,17].

The treatment of hospital waste in most countries is an important issue. Far more serious issues with the handling of medical waste with discarded needles, syringes and similar articles have arisen in recent years [18].

For example, in human and body parts, animal carcasses, spruces, needles, saphirs, drugs, blood, urine, chemical products and laboratory flows, specific types of contaminating waste may be found. HIV / AIDS, Hepatitis B and C Virus Infection are the main causes of health care waste. Natural injuries are caused by needles, blood-contaminated objects or blunt objects. Nevertheless, contact with waste medication can transmit many of the other illnesses. These include infections of the urinary

tract, infections of the respiratory tract, burn, bacteremia and skin infections [19]. Studies in Pakistan shows that about 2 kg of waste / bed / day generated in which 0.1-0.5 is hazardous waste. Different health centers produce about 4 to 2000 kg of waste every day, 75% of which is non-hazardous, housing and administrative, whereas only 10 to 25% are contaminated and need more careful disposal. In addition, the risk of disease transmission increases because of failure to clean the syringes, needles, etc., [19].

In Pakistan usually two methods are being used to dispose- off the hospital waste i. e. landfills and incineration [18]. Recently, it was classified into eight types [20]. Infectious waste is generated in hospitals and distributed in the area of diagnosis, immunization, operations and health care to healthcare professionals, assistants and people. 10-25% of all waste not available from hospitals for domestic and infectious waste. Blood, fluids, etc., for beginners [21]. Dangerous and blunt waste like scalpel, etc. Such conditions as human organs, part of the body, fetuses, etc. Chemical waste: for example reactants, solvents and so on. Genotoxic waste: cytotoxic and genotoxic medicines, for example. Wide waste material: pump, heat gage, etc. Pressurized containers such as gas cylinder, spray, etc. Unloading: obsolete drugs, newcomers, etc., [22-24].

Healthcare activities can produce different waste types. Failure to deal with such waste could create environmental and health risks at work. It is reported by the WHO that around 70-80% of public health waste is similar to municipal waste; another 20-30% is hazardous infectious waste [7]. The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that 40-65% of hepatitis B (HBV) and virus C (HCV) infections between health workers result in severe workplace injuries compared to 8% - 27% and < 10% of the world's developed areas [25]. Blood borne disease in the developing world has been compounded by bad health policies on the security of staff, the shortage of protective equipment (such as automatic syringes, safety needles) and personal safe equipment (such as hand boots, gloves, masks, gowns), and a failure to comply with standard precautions (such as hand washing and no needles recovered), as well as a lack of proper compliance with safety requirements [26,27].

The most common sources of medical waste are clinics, hospitals or other medical facilities (dispensaries, ambulatory departments, offices, dialyzes, emergency teams, and autopsy facility) [28]. More attention is focused on the question of infectious medical waste and its disposal in the proliferation of blood-borne illnesses [29]. Certain classes of medical waste are now commonly recognized as one of the most hazardous waste in all communities [30,31]. Relatively large amount of medical waste can be produced from various kinds of therapeutic processes including infectious waste, sharp objects, and dangerous chemicals in a wide range of components and characteristics. The World Health Organization (WHO) has called for the treatment of hospital waste as special waste [32].

Medical waste has also been listed as dangerous by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency [33]. Health care stocks for diseasing microorganisms, possible pollutant sources, and disease should be considered [34,35]. Increase the risk of disease transmission through inadequate treatment and disposal as medical waste volume and complexity increase. Inefficient waste disposal will more frequently because problems as bloodborne diseases are transferred to vulnerable groups, such as health workers, skidders and municipal workers. According to the WHO Medical Waste Management Survey in 22 developing countries, inappropriate methods accounted for between 18 and 64 percent of waste disposal processes [36]. A study showed the great potential for transmitted to facility workers with such hazardous wastes, such as AIDS, hepatitis B, hepatitis C, and tuberculosis [37-39].

Hospital waste management means "the management of waste produced by hospitals. Two forms, namely general and bio-medical waste, have been sorted for hospital waste. Biomedical waste comprised all waste separated into a commercial incinerator and disposal company for subsequent submission. The average weighted waste generation was 1, 53 kg / patient / day, 24.54% of which were generated in a public hospital and the remainder in private hospitals. Furthermore, 75.15% of the total waste consisted of general waste, and the rest was biomedical waste [4].

Both types of medical waste are not harmful and nonhazardous, with about 75% to 90% of medical waste not being harmful. It consists of foodstuffs, cartons, skins of fruit, packing, etc. This is true of waste. The remaining 10-25% of medicinal waste is harmless and can injure humans or animals. The hazardous and toxic waste of health [40]. If both are combined, any waste will be harmful.

Around 5.2 million people die from a waste-related disease every year worldwide (including four million children) [41]. Medical waste also contains potentially harmful microorganisms capable of killing patients in hospitals, in medical personnel and in the general public. Other potential infectious risks may occur if drugresistant micro-organisms spread through public health institutions. The contamination caused by release from pharmaceuticals in particular antibiotics and cytotoxins, emissions and pollution by waste water, and toxic compounds like mercury and dioxins released by burning that, for instance, lead to lesions [28].

Risks Associated with Surgical Waste Disposal

While treatment and disposal of health waste reduces risk, the treatment or disposal of toxic contaminants in the environment may cause indirect danger to health. Unless properly constructed, deposits can contaminate drinking water. There are workplace hazards in disposal systems which are not well planned, installed or controlled. The burning of waste was thoroughly conducted and the incineration and incineration of inadequate materials was insufficient. Burned chlorinecontaining products may be used to manufacture dioxins and furans that are human carcinogenic and related to a range of adverse health effects. Heavy metals or metal materials (especially plum, mercury and cadmium) are combustible and can spread toxic metals in the environment. The environment is persistent and organic with dioxins, furans and metals. There should therefore not be combustion of chlorine or products containing iron. Laundry and housekeepers, nurses, medical emergency workers and employees who refuse them are experiencing occupational health problems. Heavy injuries and exposure to toxic chemical and radioactive waste also present health risks to workers at organizations that manufacture biomedical waste. Proper disposal can easily solve occupational hazards [28].

The health of the broader public can also be impacted by bio-medical waste. Misappropriated practices such as municipal waste dumping, open areas, water systems, etc. are causing the spread of diseases. Combustion of incinerators and open burning often help to expose to toxic gasses leading to cancer and air pollution [42,43]. Free watering animals may be frightened of plastic waste. Rough wounds are common characteristics of the species. Harmful substances like dioxins and furans can severely affect birds ' and animals ' health. Some heavy metals can affect animals ' reproductive health [44].

Disposal Methods

Various methods of bio-medical waste disposal are used and discussed below. This combustion is controlled and oxidizes waste entirely and destroys microorganisms which cause harm at high temperatures. Autoclave is a low-hot thermal system, with direct contact of steam and waste disinfection for a controlled duration. The system shall be horizontally designed exclusively for medical processing for simple and safe operations. The pre-vacuum model is preferred for optimal results over the gravitational system. For critical parameters like time, temperature, pressure, date and loads, etc., it must be an active display and logging table [45,46].

Inactivation of the Microbial System is caused by the thermal effect of the electromagnetic radiation spectrum between frequencies 300 and 350000 MHz. When water is present, the waste material is heated [47].

This is similar to autoclaving, but the waste is cooled by steam in the internal shell indirectly. The waste is constantly being disposed of in the tank during the process.

Shredding is a system by twisting or cutting waste into smaller sections to prevent the recognition of waste. It helps to prevent the reuse of bio-medical waste and also disinfects and disposes of waste safely. Medical waste shreds must be used for shredding with minimum [48,3].

The three 'Rs' are often used in a system for the elimination, reuse and waste disposal of green waste. The guidelines for interventions are clear. "We are common and the waste hierarchy of the ministry is also called" [49].

Conclusion

Safe and effective waste management is not only a legal obligation, but a social responsibility as well. Apathy for waste management is a major problem for waste disposal practice. Given the low awareness of bio-medical waste management among the various categories of health workers, an effective communication strategy is imperative. Reduced biomedical waste can reduce waste disposal activities, save costs and increase performance of the waste disposal process.

Suggestion

Infectious waste management has always been a neglected public health problem in developing countries, which has caused the masses of people a high pollution Health workers are the key personnel to manage infectious waste in every hospital but the proper training and education must be performed in the best possible way

Open Access Journal of Pharmaceutical Research

IHWM learning could be an important tool in the field of infectious waste management in order to improve the skills, behaviors and activities of health workers. These learning should be a regular feature of all hospitals to reduce the risk of infectious waste.

Reduces the risk of injury, reduce spread of infection to staff, patients, visitors and the public. This reduces the likelihood of microorganisms and contaminants pollution of soil or groundwater. This attracts less cattle and less bugs. To create an esthetic pleasure atmosphere.

References

- 1. WHO (2005) Management of solid health-care waste at primary health-care centres: A decision-making guide. World Health Organization, pp: 1-57.
- Amin R, Gul R, Mehrab A (2013) Hospital waste management: practices in different hospitals of Distt. Peshawar. Professional Med J 20(6): 988-994.
- 3. Rasheed S, Iqbal S, Baig LA, Mufti K (2005) Hospital Waste Management in the Teaching Hospitals of Karachi. JPMA 55(5): 1-4.
- Ali M, Wang W, Chaudhry N (2016) Application of life cycle assessment for hospital solid waste management: A case study. J Air Waste Manag Assoc 66(10): 1012-1018.
- Ali M, Wang W, Chaudhry N, Geng Y, Ashraf U (2017) Assessing knowledge, performance, and efficiency for hospital waste management-a comparison of government and private hospitals in Pakistan. Environ Monit Assess 189(4): 181.
- 6. Ahmed J, Shaikh BT (2008) An all time low budget for healthcare in Pakistan. Journal of the College of Physicians and Surgeons Pakistan 18(6): 388-391.
- Ali M, Chaudhry N, Wang W (2017) Assessment of hospital waste management in a major city of Pakistan. International Journal of Environment and Waste Management 19(2): 97-104.
- Haider M, Hussain N, Tahir A, Iqbal A, Kugelman M, et al. (2014) Pakistan's Runaway Urbanization: What Can Be Done? Asia Program: Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars Washington, DC, pp: 1-154.
- 9. Ali SS, Ijaz N, Aman N, Nasir A, Anjum L, et al. (2017) Clinical waste management practices in District Faisalabad. Earth Sciences Pakistan 1(2): 4-6.

- 10. Ibbotson S, Dettmer T, Kara S, Herrmann C (2013) Eco-efficiency of disposable and reusable surgical instruments-a scissors case. The International Journal of Life Cycle Assessment 18(5): 1137-1148.
- 11. Manyele SV, Tanzania V (2004) Effects of improper hospital-waste management on occupational health and safety. African Newsletter on Occupational Health and Safety 14(2): 30-33.
- 12. Mandell D (2005) Bennett's Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases: New York, NY, USA, Elsevier.
- 13. Sharma M (2002) Hospital waste management and its monitoring: Jaypee Brothers Publishers.
- 14. Fatima SZ, Asad M (2018) Disposal of hospital wastage in Pakistan: A qualitative research. Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal 5(3): 37-42.
- Fadipe O, Oladepo K, Jeje J, Ogedengbe M (2011) Characterization and analysis of medical solid waste in Osun State, Nigeria. African Journal of Environmental Science and Technology 5(12): 1027-1038.
- 16. Coker A, Sridhar MK (2010) Increase in healthcare facilities and rapid environmental degradation: A technological paradox in Nigeria's urban centres. African Journal of Environmental Science and Technology 4(9): 577-585.
- 17. Shiferaw Y, Abebe T, Mihret A (2012) Sharps injuries and exposure to blood and bloodstained body fluids involving medical waste handlers. Waste Manag Res 30(12): 1299-1305.
- Arshad N, Nayyar S, Amin F, Mahmood KT (2011) Hospital waste disposal: A review article. J Pharm Sci Res 3(8): 1412-1419.
- Prasad LL, Reddy PVK (2017) A Study on Waste Management Practices in Private Hospitals in Khammam District. Clear International Journal of Research in Commerce & Management 8(11): 53-57.
- 20. Asante B, Yanful E, Yaokumah B (2014) Healthcare Waste Management; Its Impact: A Case Study of the Greater Accra Region, Ghana. International Journal of Scientific & Technology Research 3(3): 106-112.
- 21. Askarian M, Heidarpoor P, Assadian O (2010) A total quality management approach to healthcare waste management in Namazi Hospital, Iran. Waste manag 30(11): 2321-2326.

- 22. Visvanathan C (1996) Hazardous waste disposal. Resources conservation & recycling 16(1-4): 201-212.
- 23. Prüss-Üstün A, Townend W, Stringer R, Wilburn S, Zghondi R (1999) Safe management of wastes from health-care activities. World Health Organization, pp: 1-242.
- 24. WHO (2005) Management of Solid Health-Care Waste at Primary Health-Care Centres. World Health Organization.
- 25. Allegranzi B, Storr J, Dziekan G, Leotsakos A, Donaldson L, Pittet D (2007) The First Global Patient Safety Challenge "Clean Care is Safer Care": from launch to current progress and achievements. J Hosp Infect 65(2): 115-123.
- Lee R (2009) Occupational transmission of bloodborne diseases to healthcare workers in developing countries: meeting the challenges. J Hosp Infect 72(4): 285-291.
- 27. Yousafzai M, Nisar N, Kakakhel M, Qadri M, Khalil R, et al. (2013) Injection practices among practitioners in private medical clinics of Karachi, Pakistan. East Mediterr Health J 19(6): 570-575.
- 28. Babanyara Y, Ibrahim D, Garba T, Bogoro A, Abubakar M (2013) Poor Medical Waste Management (MWM) practices and its risks to human health and the environment: a literature review. Int J Environ Ealth Sci Eng 11(7): 1-8.
- 29. Toyobo A, Baba A, Oyeniyi A (2012) Appraisal of university teaching hospital medical waste management in Nigeria: Case Studies of University College Hospital (UCH) Ibadan and Obafemi Awolowo University Teaching Hospital (OAUTH) Ile-Ife. Univers J Edu Gen Stud 1(9): 290-297.
- 30. Treasury HM (2005) Department for Environment Food and Rural Affairs (Defra). Accounting for the effects of climate change: Supplementary green book guidance.
- 31. Karademir A (2004) Health risk assessment of PCDD/F emissions from a hazardous and medical waste incinerator in Turkey. Environ Int 30(8): 1027-1038.
- 32. Alam MM, Sujauddin M, Iqbal GMA, Huda SMS (2008) Report: Healthcare waste characterization in

Chittagong Medical College Hospital, Bangladesh. Waste Management & Research 26(3): 291-296.

- 33. Landrum V, Barton R (1991) Medical waste management and disposal. Pollution technology review, EPA.
- 34. Sadeghi A (2001) Assessment of collection and disposal management of hospital waste in Mashhad city. MS Thesis of environmental health engineering of Tehran University of Medical Sciences.
- 35. Hassan MM, Ahmed SA, Rahman KA, Biswas TK (2008) Pattern of medical waste management: existing scenario in Dhaka City, Bangladesh. BMC Public Health 8(1): 36.
- 36. Ali M, Kuroiwa C (2009) Status and challenges of hospital solid waste management: case studies from Thailand, Pakistan, and Mongolia. Journal of Material Cycles and Waste Management 11(3): 251-257.
- 37. Almuneef M, Memish ZA (2003) Effective medical waste management: it can be done. Am J Infect Control 31(3): 188-192.
- Johnson KR, Braden CR, Cairns KL, Field KW, Colombel AC, et al. (2000) Transmission of Mycobacterium tuberculosis from medical waste. JAMA 284(13): 1683-1688.
- 39. Braden CR, Morlock GP, Woodley CL, Johnson KR, Colombel AC, et al. (2001) Simultaneous infection with multiple strains of Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Clin Infect Dis 33(6): e42-e47.
- 40. Shinee E, Gombojav E, Nishimura A, Hamajima N, Ito K (2008) Healthcare waste management in the capital city of Mongolia. Waste manag 28(2): 435-441.
- 41. Akter N (2000) Medical Waste management: A review. Asian institute of Technology: Thailand.
- 42. Manohar D, Rameshreddy P, Kotaiah B (1998) Characterization of solid waste of a super speciality hospital: A case study. Indian Journal of Environmental Health 40(4): 319-326.
- 43. Da Silva C, Hoppe A, Ravanello M, Mello N (2005) Medical wastes management in the south of Brazil. Waste manag 25(6): 600-605.
- 44. Coad A, Christen J (1999) How are we managing our health care wastes by SKAT. Swiss Centre for

Development Cooperation in Technology and Management, Vadianstrasse.

- 45. Babu BR, Parande A, Rajalakshmi R, Suriyakala P, Volga M (2009) Management of biomedical waste in India and other countries: a review. J Int Environmental Application & Science 4(1): 65-78.
- Baccini P, Brunner PH (1991) The Anthroposphere Metabolism of the Anthroposphere. Springer, pp: 10-46.
- 47. Pruthvish S, Gopinath D, Jayachandra R, Girish N, Bineesha P, et al. (1998) Health-Care Waste

Management Cell, Department of Community Medicine, MS Ramaiah Medical College. Bangalore, India Information Learning Units for Health-Care Waste.

- 48. Singh I, Sarma R (1996) Hospital waste disposal system & technology. Academy of Hospital Administration 8(2-1): 33.
- 49. Downer SR, Meara JG, Da Costa AC, Sethuraman K (2006) SMS text messaging improves outpatient attendance. Aust Health Rev 30(3): 389-396.

