

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

5.7 ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

5.7.1 Chemical Agents and Dusts

5.7.1.1 Asbestos

NIOSH (1977). Criteria for a recommended standard: occupational exposure to asbestos (revised). Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Center for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 77-169.

NIOSH (1980). Test for screening asbestos. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Center for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 80-110.

NIOSH (1981). Workplace exposure to asbestos. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Center for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 81-103.

5.7.1.2 Chemical Disinfectants

Benson WG (1984). Case report--exposure to glutaraldehyde. *Journal of the Society for Occupational Medicine* 34(2):63-64.

NIOSH (1976). Criteria for a recommended standard: occupational exposure to chlorine. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Center for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 76-170.

5.7.1.3 Drugs (Pharmaceuticals)

Anderson RW, Puckett WH Jr, et al. (1982). Risk of handling injectable anti-neoplastic agents. *American Journal of Hospital Pharmacy* 39(11):1881-1887.

Grove WR, Finley RS (1981). Assessment of videotapes on handling cytotoxic agents. *American Journal of Hospital Pharmacy* 41(10):1914-1922.

Harrison BR (1981). Developing guidelines for working with anti-neoplastic drugs. *American Journal of Hospital Pharmacy* 38(11):1686-1693.

Hospital Pharmacy (1981). Guidelines for Safe Handling of Cytotoxic Drugs in Pharmacy Departments and Hospital Wards. *Hospital Pharmacy* 35:16-17, 20.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

Jones RB, Frank R, et al. (1983). Safe handling of chemotherapeutic agents: a report from the Mount Sinai Medical Center. *Cancer* 33(5):258-263.

NIH (1981). Guidelines for the Laboratory Use of Chemical Carcinogens. Bethesda, MD: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Institute of Health, D^HHS (NIH) Publication No. 81-2385.

NIOSH (1984). Occupational exposure to cancer chemotherapeutic agents in pharmacists and nurses: summary report, NIOSH industrywide study. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, NTIS No. PB 84-181-486.

Provost GJ (1984). Legal issues associated with the handling of cytotoxic drugs. *American Journal of Hospital Pharmacy* 41(6):1115-1121.

Siminowitz J (1983). Guidelines for preparation and administration of anti-neoplastic drugs. San Francisco, CA: State of California Occupational Safety and Health Administration.

Vainio H (1982). Inhalation anesthetics, anti-cancer drugs and sterilants as chemical hazards in hospitals. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment and Health* 8(2):94-107.

5.7.1.4 Ethylene Oxide

American Hospital Association (1982). Ethylene oxide use in hospitals: a manual for health care personnel. Chicago, IL: The Association.

American Hospital Association (1981). Ethylene oxide use in hospitals: a manual for health care personnel. Chicago, IL: The Association.

Association for the Advancement of Medical Instrumentation (1982). Ethylene oxide training manual. Arlington, VA: The Association.

Association for the Advancement of Medical Instrumentation (1981). Good hospital practice: ventilation recommendations and safety use. Arlington, VA: The Association.

Daley WJ, Morse WA, et al. (1979). Ethylene oxide control in hospitals. Chicago, IL: American Society for Hospital Central Service Personnel and American Society for Hospital Engineering and American Hospital Association.

Finelli PF, Morgan TF, et al. (1983). Ethylene oxide-induced polyneuropathy: a clinical and electrophysiologic study. *Archives of Neurology* 40(7):419-421.

Gary VF, Hozier J, et al. (1979). Ethylene oxide: evidence of human chromosomal effects. *Environmental Mutagenesis* 1(4):375-382.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

Glaser ZR (1979). Ethylene oxide: toxicology review and field study results of hospital use. *Journal of Environmental Pathology and Toxicology* 2(5):173-208.

Landrigan PJ, Meinhardt TJ, et al. (1984). Ethylene oxide: an overview of toxicologic and epidemiologic research. *American Journal of Industrial Medicine* 6(2):103-115.

NIOSH (1977). Special occupational hazard review with control recommendations: use of ethylene oxide as a sterilant in medical facilities. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Center for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 77-200.

NIOSH (1985). In depth survey report: control technology for ethylene oxide sterilization in hospitals. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, NIOSH Report Nos. 146-13b, 146-15b, 146-17b, and 146-18.

Samuels TM (1981). Local exhaust and cycle purges reduce EtO release. *Hospitals* 53(3):67-69.

Samuels TM, Eastin M (1980). EtO exposure can be reduced by air system. *Hospitals* 54(13):66-68.

5.7.1.5 Formaldehyde

Clark RP (1983). Formaldehyde in pathology department. *Journal of Clinical Pathology* 36(8):839-846.

Hendrick DJ, Lane DJ (1977). Occupational formalin asthma. *British Journal of Industrial Medicine* 34(1):11-18.

Jenkins MF (1980). Reducing occupational exposure to formaldehyde in the dialysis Laboratory. *Dialysis & Transplantation* 9(11):1049-1050.

Loomis TA (1979). Formaldehyde toxicity. *Archives of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine* 103:321-324.

Niemela R, Vainio H (1981). Formaldehyde exposure in work and the general environment. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment and Health* 7(2):95-100.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

5.7.1.6 Mercury

Lehmann P (1975). Laboratory safety today. *Job Safety and Health* 3(5):4-9.

NIOSH (1973). Criteria for a recommended standard: occupational exposure to inorganic mercury. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Center for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 73-11024.

Noe FE (1959). Mercury as a potential hazard in medical laboratories. *New England Journal of Medicine* 261(20):1002-1006.

Porter DD (1972). Mercury pollution by tissue fixatives. *Archives of Pathology* 94(4):279.

5.7.1.7 Methyl Methacrylate

Fries IB, Fisher AA, Salvati EA (1975). Contact dermatitis in surgeons from methylmethacrylate bone cement. *Journal of Bone and Joint Surgery* 57(4):547-549.

McLaughlin RE, Barkalow JA, et al. (1979). Pulmonary toxicity of methyl methacrylate vapors: an environmental study. *Archives of Environmental Health* 34(5):336-338.

5.7.1.8 Solvents

NIOSH (1977). Criteria for a recommended standard: occupational exposure to refined petroleum solvents. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Center for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 77-192.

5.7.1.9 Waste Anesthetic Gases

American Society for Hospital Engineering (1980). Controlling waste anesthetic gases. Chicago, IL: American Hospital Association.

Cohen EN (Ed.) (1980). Anesthetic exposure in the workplace. Littleton, MA: PSG Publishing Company, Inc.

Collins WJ (1966). Principles of anesthesiology. Philadelphia, PA: Lea and Febiger.

Corbett TH (1973). Retention of anesthetic agents following occupational exposure. *Anesthesia Analgesia* 52(4):614-618.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

- Corbett TH, Ball GL (1973). Respiratory excretion of halothane after clinical and occupational exposure. *Anesthesiology* 39(3):342-345.
- Dahlgren BE (1980). Hepatic and renal effects of low concentrations of methoxyflurane in exposed delivery ward personnel. *Journal of Occupational Medicine* 22(12):817-819.
- Edling C (1980). Anesthetic gases as an occupational hazard--a review. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment and Health* 6(2):85-93.
- Fink BR, Cullen BF (1976). Anesthetic pollution: what is happening to us? *Anesthesiology* 45(1):79-83.
- Meyers EF (1980). An effective low-cost scavenging system. *Anesthesiology* 52(3):277.
- NIOSH (1976). Effects of trace concentrations of anesthetic gas on the behavioral performance of operating room personnel. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Center for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 76-169..
- NIOSH (1977). Control of occupational exposure to nitrous oxide in the dental operatory. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Center for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 77-171.
- Patterson WB, Craven DE, et al.(1985) Occupational hazards to hospital personnel. *Annals of Internal Medicine* 102(5):658-680.
- Sass-Kortask AM, Wheeler IP, et al. (1981). Exposure of operating room personnel to anaesthetic agents: an examination of the effectiveness of scavenging systems and the importance of maintenance programs. *Canadian Anesthesiology Society Journal* 28(1):22-28.
- Spence AA, Cohen EN, et al. (1977). Occupational hazards for operating room-based physicians. *Journal of the American Medical Association* 238(9):955-959.
- Stoppa GJ, McLaughlin M (1967). Psychophysical testing of human subjects exposed to solvent vapors. *American Industrial Hygiene Association Journal* 28(1):43-50.
- Tomlin PJ (1979). Health problems of anaesthetists and their families in the West Midlands. *British Medical Journal* 1(6166):779-784.
- Vessey MP (1978). Epidemiological studies of the occupational hazards of anesthesia--a review. *Anaesthesia* 33(5):430-438.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

Whitcher CD, Cohen EN, et al. (1971). Chronic exposure to anesthetic gases in the operating room. *Anesthesiology* 35(4):348-353.

Whitcher CD, Piziali RL (1977). Monitoring occupational exposure to inhalation anesthetics. *Anesthesia and Analgesia* 56(6):778-785.

Whitcher C (1985). Controlling occupational exposure to nitrous oxide. In: Eger EI, II, ed. *Nitrous oxide/N₂O*. New York, NY: Elsevier Science Publishing Co.

5.7.2 Physical Agents

5.7.2.1 Heat

NIOSH (1975). An improved method for monitoring heat stress levels in the workplace. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Center for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 75-161.

NIOSH (1981). Proceedings of a NIOSH workshop on recommended heat stress standards. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHHS (NIOSH) 81-108.

5.7.2.2 Noise

Carlson DR (1965). Noise control program is quiet success. *Modern Hospital* 105(6):82-85.

Falk SA, Woods NF (1973). Hospital noise - levels and potential health hazards. *New England Journal of Medicine* 289(15):774-781.

Golub S (1969). Noise, the underrated health hazard. *RN* 32(5):40-45.

Shapiro RA, Berland T (1972). Noise in the operating room. *New England Journal of Medicine* 287(24):1236-1238.

Sorenson S, Schultz L (1968). Detecting and correcting noises in the hospital. *Hospital* 42(21):74-80.

Van Wagoner R, Maguire N (1977). A study of hearing loss among employees in a large urban hospital. *Canadian Journal of Public Health* 68(8):511-512.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

5.7.2.3 Ionizing Radiation

- Anonymous (1977). The handling, storage, use and disposal of unsealed radionuclides in hospitals and medical research establishments. Report No. 25. Elmsford, NY: Pergamon Press.
- Anonymous (1979). Fact sheet for nurses: occupational radiation. Austin, TX: Nurse's Environmental Health Watch.
- Berger ME, Hubner KF (1983). Hospital hazards: diagnostic radiation. *American Journal of Nursing* 83(8):1155-1159.
- Braun BJ, Skienzielewski JJ (1982). Radiation exposure of emergency physicians. *Annals of Emergency Medicine* 11(10):535-540.
- Caprio ML (1980). The pregnant x-ray technologist--providing adequate radiation safety for the fetus. *Radiology Technology* 52(2):161-163.
- Cowie DB, Scheele LA (1980). A survey of radiation protection in hospitals. *Health Physics* 38(6):929-947.
- Crosby EH (1972). Comparison of film badges and thermoluminescent dosimeters. *Health Physics* 23(3):371-375.
- Denley HV (1981). Radiation hazard control in hospitals. Training Manual I. Ottawa, Ontario, Canada: Department of National Health and Welfare, Health Protection Branch, NTIS Publication No. DE 84701857.
- EPA (1976). Radiation protection guidance for diagnostic x-rays. Federal Guidance Report No. 9. Washington DC: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA Publication No. 520-4-76-019.
- Ecker MD, Bramesco NJ (1981). Radiation: all you need to know about it. New York, NY: Vintage.
- Electron Microscopy Society of America (1973). Handbook of x-ray safety for electron microscopists. New York, NY: The Society.
- Gandsman E, North D, et al. (1984). Update on radiation safety in a nuclear medicine department. *Health Physics* 46(6):1293-1295.
- Gill JR (1980). Radioactive hazards. *Laboratory Practice* 29(7):737-739.
- Houston CS, Fedoruk SO (1981). The radiation hazard in hospitals--a reappraisal. *Journal of the Canadian Association of Radiologists* 32(2):77-78.
- Jankowski CB (1984). Radiation exposure of nurses in a coronary care unit. *Heart and Lung* 13(1):55-58.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

Laughlin JS (1981). Experience with a sustained policy of radiation exposure control and research in a medical center. *Health Physics* 41(5):709-726.

Liu J, Edwards FM (1979). Radiation exposure to medical personnel during iodine-125 seed implantation of the prostate. *Radiology* 132(3):748-749.

Marx JL (1979). Low-level radiation: just how bad is it? *Science* 204(4389):160-164.

Matanoski GM, Seltzer R, et al. (1975). The current mortality rates of radiologists and other physician specialists: deaths from all causes and from cancer. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 101(3):188-198.

Meyer MB, Tonascia JA (1973). Possible effects of x-ray exposure during fetal life on the subsequent reproductive performance of human females. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 98(3):151-160.

NCRP (1970). Precautions in the management of patients who have received therapeutic amounts of radionuclides. Washington, DC: National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements, NCRP Report No. 37.

NCRP (1971). Basic radiation criteria. Washington, DC: National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements, NCRP Report No. 39.

NCRP (1980). Operational radiation safety program: recommendations of the National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements. Washington, DC: National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements, NCRP Report No. 59.

NIH (1978). Radiation safety guide. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, National Institutes of Health, DHEW (NIH) Publication No. 79-18.

NRC (1985). Radiation protection training for personnel employed in medical facilities. Washington, DC: Nuclear Regulatory Commission, Office of Nuclear Regulatory Research, NTIS Publication No. NUREG-1134/XAB.

Purington RG, Patterson W (1977). Handling radiation emergencies. Boston, MA: National Fire Protection Association.

Robertson JC (1976). Guide to radiation protection. New York, NY: Halsted Press/John Wiley.

Rummerfield PS, Rummerfield MJ (1970). What you should know about radiation hazards. *American Journal of Nursing* 70(4):780-786.

Shapiro J (1981). Radiation protection: a guide for scientists and physicians. 2nd edition. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

Swartz HM, Reichling BA (1978). Hazards of radiation exposure for pregnant women. *Journal of the American Medical Association* 239(18):1907-1908.

5.7.2.4 Nonionizing Radiation

ACGIH (1981). *Guide for control of laser hazards*. Cincinnati, OH: American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists.

Anonymous (1976). Microwave hazards. *Lancet* 2(7977):135.

International Radiation Protection Association (1985). *Occupational hazards from non-ionising electromagnetic radiation*. Occupational Safety and Health Series No. 53. Geneva, Switzerland: International Labour Office.

Lancranjan I, Maicanescu M, et al. (1975). Gonadic function in workmen with long-term exposure to microwaves. *Health Physics* 29(3):381-383.

McRee DI (1976). Potential microwave injuries in clinical medicine. *Annual Review of Medicine* 27:109-115.

NIOSH (1978). *Carcinogenic properties of ionizing and non-ionizing radiation*. Volume II: Microwave and radiofrequency radiation. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Center for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 78-134.

Sloney DH, Bason FC, et al. (1971). Instrumentation and measurement of ultraviolet, visible, and infrared radiation. *American Industrial Hygiene Association Journal* 32(7):415-431.

Sloney DH, Freasier BC (1973). Evaluation of optical radiation hazards. *Applied Optics* 12(1):1-24.

5.7.2.5 Video Display Terminals

Anonymous (1982). British Columbia hospital workers say symptoms are linked to VDTs. *Computing Canada* 8(16):18.

Bergman T (1970). Health effects of video display terminals. *Occupational Health and Safety* 49(10):24-28, 53-55.

Grandjean E, Vigliani E (eds.) (1980). *Ergonomics aspects of video display terminals*. London, England: Taylor and Francis, Ltd.

Kendall RM (1983). The Office revolution: health hazards coming into focus. *Occupational Hazards* 45(10):79-83.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

NIOSH (1978). A report on electromagnetic radiation surveys of video display terminals. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Center for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 78-129.

Sauter S, Chapman LJ, et al. (1985). Improving VDT work: causes and control of health concerns in VDT use. Lawrence, Kansas: Ergo Syst.

Sherr S (1982). Video and digital electronic displays: a user's guide. New York, NY: Wiley & Sons.

Smith MJ, Cohen BFG, et al. (1981). An investigation of health complaints and job stress in video display operations. *Human Factors* 23(4):387-400.

5.7.3 Mutagenic and Teratogenic Agents

Bellin JS (1982). Genes and gender in the workplace. *Occupational Health and Safety* 51(1):16, 36-37, 40-41, 46.

Dean BJ (1978). Genetic toxicology of benzene, toluene, xylenes and phenols. *Mutation Research* 47(2):75-97.

Haas JF, Schottenfeld D (1979). Risk to the offspring from parental occupational exposures. *Journal of Occupational Medicine* 21(9):607-613.

Hricko A, Brunt M (1976). Working for your life: a woman's guide to job health hazards. San Francisco, CA: Labor Occupational Health Program and Public Citizen's Health Research Group.

Hunt VR (1975). Occupational health problems of pregnant women: recommendations for the office of the secretary, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. University Park, PA: The Pennsylvania State University, Order No. SA-5304-75.

NIOSH (1978). Comprehensive bibliography on pregnancy and work. Rockville, MD: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Center for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 78-132.

NIOSH (1981). Proceedings of a workshop on methodology for assessing reproductive hazards in the workplace. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 81-100.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

NIOSH (1983). Report on women pharmaceutical workers and adverse reproductive outcomes. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, NIOSH Internal Report.

O'Connell RL (1979). Female and fetal responses to toxic exposures. *National Safety News* 119(8):77-80.

Olivieri AP (1983). Health hazards and legal issues of pregnant hospital workers. Presented at the American Occupational Health Conference, Washington DC, April 28, 1983. New York, NY: Employee Health Service, Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center.

Rawls RL (1980). Reproductive hazards in the workplace. Confrontation over issues surrounding genetic protection involves chemical companies, unions, worker's right groups and several government agencies. *Chemical and Engineering News* 58(6):28-31.

Rawls RL (1980). Reproductive hazards in the workplace. Government and companies are at odds over approaches to worker protection, mainly because of differences in interpretation of the problem. *Chemical and Engineering News* 58(7):35-37.

Shepard TH (1976). Catalog of teratogenic agents. 2nd edition. Baltimore, MD: The John Hopkins University Press.

Stellman JM (1979). The effects of toxic agents on reproduction. *Occupational Health and Safety* 48(3):36-43.

Vaughan TL, Daling JR, et al. (1984). Fetal death and maternal occupation: an analysis of birth records in the State of Washington. *Journal of Occupational Medicine* 26(9):676-678.

5.7.4 Dermatitis

Anonymous (1970). Cleaning solutions cause skin pigment loss in hospital employees. *Journal of the American Medical Association* 213(4):535, 540.

Anonymous (1984). Dermatitis among hospital workers - Oregon. *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 33(48):681-682.

Austin J (1961). Plastics--uses and problems in pharmacy and medicine. *American Journal of Hospital Pharmacy* 18:329-349.

Forstrom L (1980). Contact urticaria from latex surgical gloves. *Contact Dermatitis* 6(1):33-34.

Lammintausta K, Kalimo K (1981). Atopy and hand dermatitis in hospital wet work. *Contact Dermatitis* 7(6):301-308.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

5.7.5 Stress

AMA (1980). Bibliography on the impaired physician. Chicago, IL: American Medical Association, Department of Mental Health.

Bates EM, Moore BN (1975). Stress in hospital personnel. *Medical Journal of Australia* 2(20):765-767.

Brief AP (1976). Turnover among hospital nurses: a suggested model. *Journal of Nursing Administration* 6(8):55-58.

Colligan MJ (1980). Methodological and practical issues related to shiftwork research. *Journal of Occupational Medicine* 22(3):163-165.

Colligan MJ, Frockt IJ, et al. (1979). Frequency of sickness absence and worksite clinic visits among nurses as a function of shift. *Journal of Environmental Pathology and Toxicology* 2(5):135-148.

Gardner ER, Hall RC (1981). The professional stress syndrome. *Psychosomatics* 22(8):672-680.

Griffin P, Klun CL (1980). Laboratory stress: what causes it? *American Journal of Medical Technology* 46(7):490-494.

Hay D, Oken D (1972). The psychological stress of intensive care unit nursing. *Psychosomatic Medicine* 34(2):109-118.

McCue JD (1982). The effects of stresses on physicians and their medical practice. *New England Journal of Medicine* 306(8):458-463.

Murphy TJ, Winget CM, et al. (1979). Fixed vs. rapid rotation shift work. *Journal of Occupational Medicine* 21(5):318-326.

Patrick PK (1979). Burnout: job hazard for health workers. *Hospitals* 53(22):87-90.

Patterson WB, Craven DE, et al. (1985). Occupational hazards to hospital personnel. *Annals of Internal Medicine* 102(5):658-680.

Posner BZ, Randolph WA (1980). Moderators of role stress among hospital personnel. *Journal of Psychology* 105(2):215-224.

Rutenfranz J, Colquhoun WP, et al. (1977). Biomedical and psychosocial aspects of shiftwork: a review. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment and Health* 3(4):165-182.

Scully R (1980). Stress in the nurse. *American Journal of Nursing* 80(5):912-915.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

Sheridan JE, Vredenburgh DJ (1978). Usefulness of leadership behavior and social power variables in predicting job tension, performance, and turnover of nursing employee. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 63(1):89-95.

Shubin S (1978). Burnout: the professional hazard you face in nursing. *Nursing* 8(7):22-27.

Vittetoe M, Love BF (1985). Medical technologists' attitudes toward professional and work roles. *American Journal of Medical Technology* 2(8):537-540.



GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

6. HAZARDOUS WASTE DISPOSAL

Hospitals generate large amounts of diverse wastes that require disposal. Much of the waste is hazardous and must therefore be packaged, transferred, and disposed of properly to protect both the persons handling it and the environment.

Hospital wastes can be categorized as infectious or noninfectious. Infectious wastes include human, animal, or biological wastes and any items that may be contaminated with pathogens. Noninfectious wastes include toxic chemicals, cytotoxic drugs, and radioactive, flammable, and explosive wastes.

6.1 INFECTIOUS WASTES

The material in this section is extracted from the EPA Guide for Infectious Waste Management (EPA 1986). The following publications are also recommended:

- Guideline for Handwashing and Hospital Environmental Control, Section 4 (Garner and Favero 1985). This document is reprinted in Appendix 8.
- Guideline for Isolation Precautions in Hospitals (Garner and Simmons 1983). This document is reprinted in Appendix 8.
- Waste Disposal in Microbiology Laboratories, Chapter 9 (Mackel and Mallison 1981).

6.1.1 Infectious Waste Management Plan

Compliance with State and local regulations should be carefully considered when developing an infectious waste treatment plan. Each hospital should develop an infectious waste management plan that provides for (1) designation of the waste that should be managed as infectious, (2) segregation of infectious waste from the noninfectious waste, (3) packaging, (4) storage, (5) treatment, (6) disposal, (7) contingency measures for emergency situations, and (8) staff training.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

6.1.2 Types of Infectious Waste

Infectious wastes may be classified as isolation wastes, cultures and stocks of infectious agents and associated biologicals, human blood and blood products, pathological wastes, contaminated sharps, contaminated carcasses, body parts, and bedding, or miscellaneous contaminated wastes. Each of these categories is discussed briefly as follows:

- **Isolation wastes** are those generated by patients who are isolated because of communicable diseases.
- **Cultures and stocks of infectious agents and associated biologicals** include specimen cultures from medical and pathological laboratories, cultures and stocks of infectious agents from research and industrial laboratories, wastes from the production of biologicals, discarded live and attenuated vaccines, and culture dishes and devices used to transfer, inoculate, and mix cultures.
- **Human blood and blood products** include blood as well as serum, plasma, and other blood products.
- **Pathological wastes** include tissues, organs, body parts, and body fluids that are removed during surgery and autopsy.
- **Contaminated sharps** are hypodermic needles, syringes, Pasteur pipettes, broken glass, and scalpel blades. These items should be considered infectious wastes because of the possibility of contamination with blood-borne pathogens.
- **Contaminated carcasses, body parts, and bedding** emanate from animals intentionally exposed to pathogens during research, the production of biologicals, or the in vivo testing of pharmaceuticals.
- **Miscellaneous wastes** that are not designated as infectious should be assumed to be infectious and should be managed as such to maintain consistent levels of protection for both the environment and for persons handling these wastes. Miscellaneous wastes include those from surgery and autopsies, contaminated laboratory wastes, dialysis unit wastes, and contaminated equipment.
 - **Wastes from surgery and autopsies** include soiled dressings, sponges, drapes, lavage tubes, drainage sets, underpads, and surgical gloves.
 - **Contaminated laboratory wastes** include specimen containers, slides and cover slips, disposable gloves, laboratory coats, and aprons.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

- **Dialysis unit wastes** include contaminated disposable equipment and supplies such as tubing, filters, disposable sheets, towels, gloves, aprons, and laboratory coats.
- **Contaminated equipment** refers to discarded equipment and parts that are used in patient care, medical and industrial laboratories, research, and the production and testing of certain pharmaceuticals.

6.1.3 Treatment and Disposal Methods

Several methods are used for infectious waste treatment, depending on the type of waste material. These treatment methods include steam sterilization, incineration, thermal inactivation, gas/vapor sterilization, chemical disinfection, and sterilization by irradiation. After treatment, the wastes or their ashes can be disposed of by discharge into sanitary sewer systems (for liquid or ground-up waste) or burial in sanitary landfills. Acceptable treatment methods for the various types of wastes are listed in Table 6-1.

6.1.3.1 Steam Sterilization (Autoclaving)

Steam sterilization (autoclaving) involves the use of saturated steam within a pressure vessel at temperatures high enough to kill infectious agents in the waste. Sterilization is accomplished primarily by steam penetration. Steam sterilization is most effective with low-density material such as plastics. An alternative treatment method (e.g., incineration) should be used on high-density wastes such as large body parts or large quantities of animal bedding or fluids because they inhibit direct steam penetration and require longer sterilization times.

Containers that can be used effectively in steam sterilization are plastic bags, metal pans, bottles, and flasks. High-density polyethylene and polypropylene plastic should not be used in this process because they do not facilitate steam penetration to the waste load. Heat-labile plastic bags allow steam penetration of the waste, but they may crumble and melt. If heat-labile plastic bags are used, they should be placed in another heat-stable container that allows steam penetration (such as a strong paper bag), or they should be treated with gas/vapor sterilization.

The following precautions should be taken when using steam sterilization:

- Plastic bags should be placed in a rigid container before steam treatment to prevent spillage and drain clogging.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

Table 6-1. Recommended techniques for treatment of infectious wastes^a

Type of infectious waste	Recommended treatment techniques [†]			
	Steam sterilization	Incineration	Thermal inactivation	Chemical disinfection [§] Other
Isolation wastes	X	X		
Cultures and stocks of infectious agents and associated biologicals	X	X	X	X
Human blood and blood products	X	X		X ^{¶¶}
Pathological wastes	X ^{††}	X		X ^{§§}
Contaminated sharps	X	X		
Contaminated animal wastes: Carcasses and parts	X ^{††}	X		
Bedding				X

^a Taken from EPA (1986).

[†] The recommended treatment techniques are those that are most appropriate and are generally in common use; an alternative treatment technique may be used to treat infectious waste if it provides effective treatment.

[§] Chemical disinfection is most appropriate for liquids.

^{¶¶} Discharge to the sanitary sewer for treatment in the municipal sewage system (provided that secondary treatment is available).

^{†††} For aesthetic reasons, steam sterilization should be followed by incineration of the treated waste or by grinding with subsequent flushing to the sewer system in accordance with State and local regulations.

^{§§} Handling by a mortician (burial or cremation).

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

- To facilitate steam penetration, bags should be opened and caps and stoppers should be loosened immediately before they are placed in the steam sterilizer.
- Care should be taken to separate infectious wastes from other hazardous wastes.

The following precautions should be taken when using steam sterilization:

- Plastic bags should be placed in a rigid container before steam treatment to prevent spillage and drain clogging.
- To facilitate steam penetration, bags should be opened and caps and stoppers should be loosened immediately before they are placed in the steam sterilizer.
- Care should be taken to separate infectious wastes from other hazardous wastes.
- Infectious waste that contains noninfectious hazards (see Section 5) should not be steam-sterilized because of the possibility that the equipment operator will be exposed to toxic, radioactive, or other hazardous chemicals.
- Waste that contains antineoplastic drugs, toxic chemicals, or chemicals that would be volatilized by steam should not be steam-sterilized.
- Persons involved in steam sterilizing should be trained in handling techniques to minimize personal exposure to hazards from these wastes. Some of these techniques include:
 - Use of protective equipment
 - Minimization of aerosol formation
 - Prevention of waste spillage during autoclave loading and unloading
 - Prevention of burns from handling hot containers
 - Management of spills
- The autoclave temperature should be checked with a recording thermometer to ensure that the proper temperature is being maintained for a long enough period during the cycle.
- Steam sterilizers should be routinely inspected and serviced, and the process should be routinely monitored to ensure that the equipment is functioning properly.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

6.1.3.2 Incineration

Incineration converts combustible materials into noncombustible residue or ash. Gases are ventilated through the incinerator stacks, and the residue or ash is disposed of in a sanitary landfill. If incinerators are properly designed, maintained, and operated, they are effective in killing organisms present in infectious waste. Although all types of infectious waste can be disposed of by incineration, the process is especially useful for aesthetic disposal of pathological wastes such as tissues and body parts.

Incineration also renders contaminated sharps unusable. The principal factors to consider when incinerating infectious wastes are variations in waste composition, the waste feed rate, and the combustion temperature. Infectious wastes containing antineoplastic drugs should be disposed of in an incinerator that provides high temperatures and enough time for the complete destruction of these compounds. The incinerator's effectiveness in disposing of chemical wastes should be documented before such use.

6.1.3.3 Thermal Inactivation

Thermal inactivation involves the treatment of waste with high temperatures to eliminate the presence of infectious agents. This method is usually used for large volumes of infectious waste. Liquid waste is collected in a vessel and heated by heat exchangers or a steam jacket surrounding the vessel. The types of pathogens in the waste determine the temperature and duration of treatment. After treatment, the contents can be discharged into the sewer in a manner that complies with State, Federal, and local requirements. Solid infectious waste is treated with dry heat in an oven, which is usually electric. This method requires higher temperatures and longer treatment cycles than steam treatment.

6.1.3.4 Gas/Vapor Sterilization

Gas/vapor sterilization uses gaseous or vaporized chemicals as the sterilizing agents. Ethylene oxide is the most commonly used agent, but should be used with caution since it is a suspected human carcinogen (see Section 5 for a discussion of ethylene oxide toxicity and work practices). Because ethylene oxide may be adsorbed on the surface of treated materials, the potential exist for worker exposure when sterilized materials are handled.

6.1.3.5 Chemical Disinfection

Chemical disinfection is the preferred treatment for liquid infectious wastes, but it can also be used in treating solid infectious waste. The following factors should be considered when using chemical disinfection:

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

- Type of microorganism
- Degree of contamination
- Amount of proteinaceous material present
- Type of disinfectant
- Contact time
- Other relevant factors such as temperature, pH, mixing requirements, and the biology of the microorganism

Ultimate disposal of chemically treated waste should be in accordance with State and local requirements.

6.1.3.6 Sterilization by Irradiation

Sterilization by irradiation is an emerging technology that uses ionizing radiation. Advantages over other treatment methods are as follows:

- Electricity requirements are nominal.
- Steam is not required.
- No heat or chemicals remain in the treated waste.

The principal disadvantages are as follows:

- Capital costs are high.
- Highly trained operating and support personnel are required.
- Space requirements are great.
- The potential exists for worker exposure as a result of leaks in seals or poor work practices.
- Ultimate disposal of the radiation source may pose problems.

6.1.4 Separation of Infectious and Noninfectious Wastes

Infectious and noninfectious wastes should be separated at the point of generation. If the infectious waste contains noninfectious hazards, it should be identified and subjected to additional treatment.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

Infectious waste should be discarded into clearly identifiable containers or plastic bags that are leakproof and puncture-resistant. Red or orange bags are usually used for infectious waste. The containers should also be marked with the universal symbol for biological hazards (see Figure 6-1).

6.1.5 Packaging

Infectious wastes should be contained from the point of origin to the point at which they are no longer infectious. The packaging should be appropriate for the type of waste involved, and it must endure handling, storage, transportation, and treatment.

Liquid infectious wastes can be placed in capped or tightly stoppered bottles or flasks. Large quantities may be placed in containment tanks.

Solid or semisolid wastes may be placed in plastic bags, but the following recommendations should be heeded:

- Select tear-resistant plastic bags. Plastic bags are judged by their thickness or durability as evaluated by the ASTM dart test (ASTM 1975). Use one or both of these criteria in the procurement process. The most important consideration is tear-resistance.
- Do not place sharps, sharp items, or items with sharp corners in the bags. (Place sharps in impervious, rigid, puncture-resistant containers made of glass, metal, rigid plastic, or wood.)
- Do not load a bag beyond its weight or volume capacity.
- Keep bags from coming into contact with sharp external objects.
- Consider double bagging.

Some treatment techniques require special packaging characteristics. For example, incineration requires combustible containers, and steam sterilization requires packaging materials such as low-density plastics that allow steam penetration and evacuation of air.

6.1.6 Handling and Transportation

When the waste is to be moved about for treatment or storage, special handling or packaging may be necessary to keep bags intact and to ensure containment of the waste. The following procedures are recommended:



Figure 6-1. Universal symbol for biological hazards. The symbol is fluorescent orange or orange-red. The background may be any color that provides sufficient contrast for the symbol to be clearly defined.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

- Single-bagged waste and containers of sharps and liquids should be placed within a rigid or semirigid container such as a bucket, box, or carton lined with plastic bags.
- Containers should be covered with lids during transportation and storage.
- When handling or transporting plastic bags of infectious waste, care should be taken to prevent tearing the bags. Instead of chutes or dumbwaiters, carts should be used for transporting bags of infectious waste within the facility.
- Carts and recyclable containers that are used repeatedly for transport and treatment of bagged waste should be disinfected after each use. Single-use containers should be destroyed as part of the treatment process.
- Infectious waste should not be compacted before treatment. This process could damage the packaging and disperse the contents, or it could interfere with the effectiveness of treatment.
- Outside the hospital, infectious waste should be transported in closed, leakproof dumpsters or trucks.
- The waste should be placed in rigid or semirigid, leakproof containers before being loaded onto trucks.

6.1.7 Storage

- Infectious waste should be stored for a minimum amount of time and should be packaged securely enough to ensure containment of the waste and to prevent penetration by rodents and vermin.
- Limited access to the storage area is recommended.
- The universal biological hazard symbol (Figure 6-1) should be posted on the storage area door, waste containers, freezers, or refrigerators.
- Containers for biohazardous material should be a distinctive red or orange color.

6.1.8 Contingency Measures

Contingency measures should be developed to deal with emergencies that occur during the handling, transportation, or disposal of infectious waste. Emergencies include spills of liquid infectious waste, ruptures of plastic bags or other containers holding infectious waste, and equipment failure.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

6.1.9 Ultimate Disposal

For ultimate disposal of treated infectious waste, EPA recommends contacting State and local governments to identify approved disposal options. EPA also recommends (1) the discharge of treated liquids and ground solids (e.g., pathological wastes or small animals) to the sewer system, and (2) landfill disposal of treated solids and incinerator ash. Landfilling of infectious wastes is allowed in some States and prohibited in others. EPA recommends that only treated infectious wastes be buried in landfills. They further recommend that facilities secure the services of reputable waste handlers to ensure (to the extent possible) that ultimate disposal of hazardous wastes is performed according to applicable Federal, State, and local regulations.

6.1.10 Training

All workers who handle infectious waste should receive infectious waste management training that includes (1) explanation of the infectious waste management plan, and (2) assignment of roles and responsibilities for implementation of the plan. Refresher courses should also be given periodically.

6.2 NONINFECTIOUS WASTES

6.2.1 Chemical Wastes

Chemical wastes include toxic chemicals, cytotoxic drugs, radioactive materials, and flammable and explosive wastes. These wastes should be classified at the time of collection to avoid mixing chemicals that are incompatible (NFPA 1983). Disposal of chemical wastes should be handled in accordance with good safety practices and applicable government regulations. Persons or agencies involved with the removal of these wastes should be informed of their characteristics and hazards.

6.2.2 Cytotoxic Wastes

OSHA has issued work practice guidelines for workers who deal with cytotoxic (antineoplastic) drugs (OSHA 1986). These guidelines are reproduced as Appendix 7 of this document. They address drug preparation, drug administration, waste disposal, spills, medical surveillance, storage and transport, training, and information dissemination.

6.2.3 Radioactive Wastes

Three classes of radioactive wastes may be found in hospitals: solids, liquids, and gases. This section summarizes the recommendations of the National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements (NCRP 1976).

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

Solid radioactive wastes may include rags or papers from cleanup operations, solid chemicals, contaminated equipment, experimental animal carcasses, and human or experimental animal fecal material. Human and animal fecal material may generally be disposed of through the sanitary sewer system (NCRP 1976). For other solid wastes, disposal depends on the half-life of the radionuclide. For those nuclides with short half-lives, the solid material may be stored in a secure place until decay has occurred. Solid waste contaminated by nuclides with long half-lives should be disposed of by a licensed commercial disposal company. Contaminated equipment should be cleaned with large amounts of water, which should be disposed of as radioactive liquid waste.

Radioactive urine may generally be disposed of immediately through the sanitary sewer system, but the toilet should be flushed several times after each use (Stoner et al. 1982). In cases in which the patient has received a large dose of radioactive iodine, urine is generally collected for the first 48 hr after administration, taken to the laboratory for analysis, and flushed down the sanitary sewer system with large quantities of water. Other liquid wastes can be handled in the same manner as solid wastes. Those with short half-lives can be stored in a sealed container until the radioactivity decays; those with long half-lives should be disposed of by a licensed disposal company.

Gaseous radioactive wastes should be vented to the outside of the hospital so that recirculation of the exhaust air does not occur.

6.2.4 Flammable Wastes

Refer to Sections 3.1.3 and 3.1.4 for discussion of flammable and explosive wastes.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

6.3 REFERENCES

ASTM (1975). ASTM standard #D 1709-75. Philadelphia, PA: American Society for Testing and Materials.

EPA (1986). EPA guide for infectious waste management. Washington, DC: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Solid Waste. NTIS No. PB 86-199130.

Garner JS, Favero MS (1985). Guideline for handwashing and hospital environmental control, 1985. Atlanta, GA: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control, Center for Infectious Diseases, Hospital Infections Program.

Garner JS, Simmons BP (1983). Guideline for isolation precautions in hospitals. *Infection Control* 4(Suppl):245-325.

Mackel DC, Mallison GF (1981). Waste disposal in microbiology laboratories. In: Balows A, Hausler WJ Jr, eds. Diagnostic procedures for bacterial mycotic and parasitic infections. 6th edition. Washington, DC: American Public Health Association.

NCRP (1976). Radiation protection for medical and allied health personnel. Washington, DC: National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements, NCRP Report No. 48.

NFPA (1983). National fire codes. A compilation of NFPA codes, standards, recommended practices, and manuals. Vol 3. Quincy, MA: National Fire Protection Association, pp. 45-36.

OSHA (1986). OSHA Instruction PUB 8-1.1, Appendix A: Work practice guidelines for personnel dealing with cytotoxic (antineoplastic) drugs. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Labor, Occupational Safety and Health Administration.

Stoner DL, Smathers JB, et al. (1982). Engineering a Safe Hospital Environment. New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons.

GUIDELINES FOR HEALTH CARE WORKERS

6.4 ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

Burchinal JC, Wallace LP (1971). A study of institutional solid wastes. Charleston, WV: University of West Virginia, Department of Civil Engineering.

NFPA (1975). Fire protection guide on hazardous materials. Boston, MA: National Fire Protection Association.

Green ME, Turk A (1978). Safety in working with chemicals. New York, NY: MacMillan.

Litsky W, Martin JW, Litsky BY (1972). Solid waste—a hospital dilemma. American Journal of Nursing 7(10)1841-1847.

Meidl JH (1970). Explosive and toxic hazardous materials. Beverly Hills, CA: Glencoe Press.

Paul RC (1964). Crush, flatten, burn, or grind? The not so simple matter of disposal. Hospitals 38:99-101.

Phillips DF (1972). When is infectious waste not infectious waste? Hospitals 46(9)56.

Rutala WA, Sarubbi FA Jr. (1983). Management of infectious waste from hospitals. Infection Control 4(4):198-204.

Schigler-Pauze (1976). Hazardous materials. New York, NY: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Stoner DL, Smathers JB, et al. (1982). Engineering a safe hospital environment. New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons.

Tchobanoglous TE (1977). Solid wastes. New York, NY: McGraw Hill.

U.S. Department of Commerce (1974). Recommended methods of reduction, neutralization, recovery, or disposal of hazardous wastes. 16 Volumes. Washington, DC: The Department, NTIS Publication No. PB 224-79.