

Radiation and Environmental Biophysics

NUCLEAR MEDICINE: WORKPLACE MONITORING AND INTERNAL OCCUPATIONAL EXPOSURE DURING A VENTILATION/PERFUSION SINGLE PHOTON EMISSION TOMOGRAPHY

--Manuscript Draft--

Manuscript Number:	REBS-D-18-00224R2
Full Title:	NUCLEAR MEDICINE: WORKPLACE MONITORING AND INTERNAL OCCUPATIONAL EXPOSURE DURING A VENTILATION/PERFUSION SINGLE PHOTON EMISSION TOMOGRAPHY
Article Type:	Original Article
Keywords:	Ventilation-perfusion lung scintigraphy; 99mTc-HDP; occupational radiation exposure; Nuclear Medicine; Urine samples; Air samples
Corresponding Author:	Carme Aguilar Anguera Universitat Rovira i Virgili Facultat de Química Tarragona, SPAIN
Corresponding Author Secondary Information:	
Corresponding Author's Institution:	Universitat Rovira i Virgili Facultat de Química
Corresponding Author's Secondary Institution:	
First Author:	Joana Martínez Ratia
First Author Secondary Information:	
Order of Authors:	Joana Martínez Ratia Tatiana Baciú Manel Artigues Mònica Danús Alejandra Peñalver Carme Aguilar Anguera Francesc Borrull
Order of Authors Secondary Information:	
Funding Information:	
Abstract:	<p>The administration of 99mTc-HDP to diagnose pulmonary thromboembolisms implies the presence of this radionuclide in the environment of the nuclear medicine department, which could pose a potential risk of internal contamination to medical staff. Air samples from the administration room, gamma camera room and corridor were taken for the purposes of performing a workplace monitoring program of the medical centre under study, with maximum activity values of 636.9 ± 27.1 kBq/m³, 1.47 ± 0.06 kBq/m³ and 53.6 ± 3.0 kBq/m³ respectively being obtained. These results were also used to assess the corresponding committed effective dose received for the exposed workers, via inhalation, when one ventilation/perfusion single photon emission tomography study was performed, with values of 0.74 µSv, 0.004 µSv and 0.07 µSv respectively. As inhalation is the workers' main exposure pathway to radioaerosol, the internal dose of the nuclear medicine department's medical staff was also evaluated via urine bioassay. Nuclear medicine nurses usually presented the highest 99mTc activity in 24-hour urine samples with a value of 2,073.8 Bq/day, resulting in a committed effective dose of 20.9 µSv for each diagnostic study performed. Even so, the performance of ventilation/perfusion diagnostic studies do not constitute a radiological risk since the annual dose limit for exposed workers is not exceeded.</p>

9th May 2019

Dear Editor,

Please find enclosed a resubmission of our manuscript with the reference number "REBS-D-18-00224R1". The new version has been revised and modified according to the reviewer's comments since they contribute positively to the quality of the manuscript. In reference with those comments we have answered them point to point as following:

Reviewer # 1

- 1) *You have improved almost all comments reported by reviewers. At the moment, the paper looks much better. However, one fundamental problem has not been corrected. In the first review I wrote that both dosimetric models used in presented study should give similar results. Maximum intake calculated by the activity in the air reached ca. 25 000 Bq meanwhile maximum intake calculated by activity in the urine reached 800 000 Bq. The difference is so big that the results may seem doubtful and unreliable. In my opinion, the doses calculated by activity in the urine are more reliable. Besides, the table 2 is a bit pointless. Intakes and doses should be determined for people not for rooms. In my opinion, the results should be presented in the following way: Medical doctor spent in the administration room 20 min, in gamma room 40 min and in corridor 30 min so summary intake was X Bq and Y Sv. If the dosimetric results will be more consistent, I recommend paper for publication in REBS*

RESPONSE:

Regarding the reviewer comment, we would like to point out that the present research article does not aim to compare the results obtained from both dosimetric models (this issue is clarified in lines 443 – 449 of the new version of the manuscript). In particular, the main aims are:

- 1- To determine the ^{99m}Tc -HDP activity in the air of different NM department areas (namely, the administration room, the gamma camera and the corridor) and check the contamination levels and verify the radioaerosol dispersion. With this data, we then tried to estimate the related doses received by a worker via inhalation in the mentioned areas for a certain time (not for the total time the worker spends in the NM department) in order to have qualitative information about the possible associated risks. This issue is also clarified in Lines 398 – 404 of the new version of the manuscript.
- 2- To determine the ^{99m}Tc -HDP activity in urine samples from different workers in order to find out the dose received via inhalation during one working day (and during the performance of one V/P_{SPECT}), when these individuals were developing their usual tasks in the entire NM department.

In detail, the *prospective dose assessment* used in the present study tries to evaluate and estimate the potential committed effective dose received by a worker in a specific room and during a preset time. In this regard, Table 2 shows three specific situations. As an example, one individual that spends 2 minutes in the administration room, which corresponded to the

real time a worker spent in this area in our case, inhales the measured ^{99m}Tc -HDP activity in air, and due to this, he/she receives a particular dose. The other two situations show the received dose in the other two mentioned NM department areas when the individuals spent 5 minutes. The estimated intake due to air inhalation ($I = d * t * C$), using this model, will vary depending on the time spent by a worker and the ^{99m}Tc -HDP air concentration. Therefore, with the data presented in Table 2 we tried to illustrate, in a qualitative and indicative basis, the possible doses that can be received by any individual in the studied areas.

On the other hand, the *retrospective dose assessment* is used to evaluate the potential committed effective dose received by different workers in all the NM department during their working day and developing their usual tasks when one V/P_{SPECT} has been performed. In this case, 24-h urine sample reveals the internal contamination received by a worker inhaling the ^{99m}Tc -HDP activity dispersed through the different areas of the entire NM department. With the data obtained, we have been able to observe that the highest committed effective dose corresponds to workers that spent mostly his time in areas with higher ^{99m}Tc activity concentration in the air. We are agreed with the reviewer and the estimated doses calculated using the retrospective model are more reliable than those estimated by the prospective one. This is because, as the recent report named *Technical Recommendations for Monitoring Individuals for Occupational Intakes of Radionuclides* states, “static air samplers can underestimate concentrations in air in the breathing zone of the worker and in extreme cases underestimates can be several orders of magnitude”. For this reason, it will be necessary the application of correction factors (European Commission, 2018).

European Commission, 2018. Radiation Protection N° 188. Technical Recommendations for Monitoring Individuals for Occupational Intakes of Radionuclides [WWW Document]. URL https://ec.europa.eu/energy/sites/ener/files/rp_188.pdf (accessed 1.26.19).

In view of all above, we consider that the results of the two dosimetric models could not be comparable. As already discussed, the prospective model presented here gives an estimation of the intake and resulting internal doses received by an individual if stays a certain time in a certain room of the NM department while the retrospective model illustrates a reliable estimation of the intake and the dose that an individual could received due to its exposure (via inhalation) during a working day staying in different areas of the NM department.

Further research could be done in order to establish a more accurate air sampling campaign by using for example personal air samplers, which would sample air from all the NM department areas where the individual works.

For further comments do not hesitate to contact with me,

Sincerely yours

1 **NUCLEAR MEDICINE: WORKPLACE MONITORING AND INTERNAL**
2 **OCCUPATIONAL EXPOSURE DURING A VENTILATION/PERFUSION**
3 **SINGLE PHOTON EMISSION TOMOGRAPHY**

4 **J. Martínez^a, T. Baciú^a, M. Artigues^b, M. Danús^c, A. Peñalver^a, C. Aguilar^{a*}, F.**
5 **Borrull^a.**

6
7 ^aDepartament de Química Analítica i Química Orgànica

8 Universitat Rovira i Virgili

9 Unitat de Radioquímica Ambiental i Sanitaria (UR AIS)

10 Consorti d'Aigües de Tarragona (CAT)

11 Carretera Nacional 340, Km. 1094

12 43895 L'Ampolla, Tarragona, Spain

13
14 ^bServei de Protecció Radiològica i Física Mèdica

15 Hospital Universitari Sant Joan de Reus

16 Av. del Dr Josep Laporte, 2

17 43204 Reus

18
19 ^cDepartament de Medicina Nuclear

20 Hospital Universitari Sant Joan de Reus

21 Av. del Dr Josep Laporte, 2

22 43204 Reus

23
24 *Corresponding author: carme.aguilar@urv.cat +34977558629

35 **Keywords**

36 Ventilation-perfusion lung scintigraphy

37 ^{99m}Tc-HDP

38 Occupational radiation exposure

39 Nuclear medicine

40 Urine samples

41 Air samples

43 **Abstract**

44 The administration of ^{99m}Tc-HDP to diagnose pulmonary thromboembolisms implies
45 the presence of this radionuclide in the environment of the nuclear medicine
46 department, which could pose a potential risk of internal contamination to medical staff.
47 Air samples from the administration room, gamma camera room and corridor were
48 taken for the purposes of performing a workplace monitoring program of the medical
49 centre under study, with maximum activity values of 636.9 ± 27.1 kBq/m³, 1.47 ± 0.06
50 kBq/m³ and 53.6 ± 3.0 kBq/m³ respectively being obtained. These results were also
51 used to assess the corresponding committed effective dose received for the exposed
52 workers, via inhalation, when one ventilation/perfusion single photon emission
53 tomography study was performed, with values of 0.74 μSv, 0.004 μSv and 0.07 μSv
54 respectively. As inhalation is the workers' main exposure pathway to radioaerosol, the
55 internal dose of the nuclear medicine department's medical staff was also evaluated via
56 urine bioassay. Nuclear medicine nurses usually presented the highest ^{99m}Tc activity in
57 24-hour urine samples with a value of 2,073.8 Bq/day, resulting in a committed
58 effective dose of 20.9 μSv for each diagnostic study performed. Even so, the
59 performance of ventilation/perfusion diagnostic studies do not constitute a radiological
60 risk since the annual dose limit for exposed workers is not exceeded.

69 1. Introduction

70 More than 80% of the radiopharmaceuticals used in nuclear medicine are compounds
71 labelled with ^{99m}Tc (Silva et al. 2010). It has been documented that in 2010, in Spain,
72 this radionuclide was the most widely-used in diagnostic studies, with over 11,000
73 procedures being carried out for every million inhabitants (European Commission
74 2015). Its use in diagnostics is common because a) its short half-life period (6 hours)
75 avoids prolonged patient irradiation, b) its monochromatic gamma radiation emission,
76 with an energy of 140 keV, is optimal for planar NaI (Tl) gamma camera imaging and
77 single photon emission computed tomography (SPECT), c) it has multiple oxidation
78 states that offer labelling versatility with a wide variety of molecules, and d) it is readily
79 available and easy to obtain *in situ* in the nuclear medicine departments (NMDs), using
80 a generator of $^{99}\text{Mo}/^{99m}\text{Tc}$ (Kwon et al. 2014).

81 Of all the diagnostics in which this radionuclide is used, one of the most usual
82 proceedings is that aimed at determining the probability of pulmonary
83 thromboembolism (PE) by ventilation/perfusion scans (V/P_{SPECT}). This is a dual study
84 comprising two parts, the first consisting of a ventilation process and the second of a
85 perfusion (Schiepers 2006). The ventilation study is generally performed first and
86 several agents such as radioactive gases (^{81m}Kr , ^{127}Xe , ^{133}Xe) or radioaerosols (^{99m}Tc -
87 compounds) are suitable for the purpose. ^{99m}Tc -diethylene triamine pentaacetic acid
88 (^{99m}Tc - DTPA) and ^{99m}Tc -carbon compounds (Technegas) are the most widely-used
89 (Metter et al. 2017). However, due to the high cost of ^{99m}Tc -DTPA, other technetium
90 radiopharmaceuticals labelled with different compounds have also been considered
91 (Opanowski et al. 2015; Schembri et al. 2015; Evbuomwan et al. 2018). As an example,
92 ^{99m}Tc -hydroxyl ethylene diphosphonate (^{99m}Tc -HDP), traditionally used for bone
93 scintigraphy, has also been satisfactorily tested for use as a ventilation agent (Young
94 and Prasad 2017; Wondergem et al. 2018). The ventilation study is then followed by the
95 perfusion, and in this process ^{99m}Tc macroaggregates of albumin are administered
96 (^{99m}Tc -MAA) by intravenous injection (Bajc et al. 2009). After both studies, the
97 corresponding images are acquired in the gamma camera room and a three-dimensional
98 image that allows clear visualization of all the lung segments is obtained (Bailey et al.
99 2010).

100 One of the hazards of working in a NMD is the possibility of long-term occupational
101 exposure to low-level radiation. The inhalation of airborne radioactive particles that
102 could be present in the working environment, is one of the most important routes of

103 entry of radionuclides into the human body, i.e. ^{99m}Tc when performing one V/P_{SPECT}
104 study. For this reason, it is important to evaluate the radiological risk associated with
105 this intake. There are different studies in the literature that focus on this topic in which
106 the administered radiopharmaceuticals were ^{99m}Tc -DTPA, Technegas or ^{133}Xe gas
107 (Greaves et al. 1995; Chen et al. 2000; Ferrand et al. 2010; Leners et al. 2011; Kawase
108 et al. 2015). These studies also deal with the potential internal exposure of medical staff.
109 However, to the best of our knowledge, there is no study on this subject that considers
110 ^{99m}Tc -HDP. The main aim of the present study is therefore to carry out a workplace
111 monitoring program during the administration of ^{99m}Tc -HDP radioaerosol as a
112 ventilation agent in V/P_{SPECT}, assessing the presence of this radiopharmaceutical in
113 NMD areas and evaluating the potential risk of occupational exposure through the
114 collection of air and urine samples from the workers.

116 2. Materials and methods

117 2.1. Nuclear medicine department studied and sample collection

118 The present study was performed in the NMD of a hospital located in Reus, southern
119 Catalonia. It was carried out during the administration of ^{99m}Tc -HDP radioaerosol
120 during a V/P_{SPECT} procedure, which is performed according to the following
121 methodology. The patient is placed in supine position with their torso covered by a
122 disposable medical soaker pad to prevent contamination of clothes. The radioaerosol
123 delivery system used is a Venticis® II Medical, in which the mouthpiece has been
124 replaced by a transparent facial mask to facilitate administration to patients. The activity
125 deposited in the nebulization vial of the system is 30 mCi (1,110 MBq) of ^{99m}Tc -HDP
126 and, after adjustment of the oxygen flow, the patient inhales the dose for twenty
127 minutes. Approximately 10% of the initial activity is deposited in the patient's lungs
128 (Thrall and Ziessman 2001; Fernández Tena and Casan Clarà 2012).

129 This radionuclide was determined in air and wipe samples to carry out a workplace
130 monitoring program. Urine samples from the workers in this NMD were also taken.

131 Specifically, fourteen air samples were collected using a low-volume portable pump,
132 DF-1E model (F&J Specialty Products), equipped with borosilicate fibre filters, FP47
133 (F&J Specialty Products), with a 99.98% microparticle retention efficiency of 0.3
134 microns (F&J Speciality Products). The holder was located at a height of 1.5 m from
135 ground level to simulate the worker breathing zone, and the sampling time was from
136 twenty minutes to four hours per sample depending on the sampling site, at a flow of 90

137 litres per minute (LPM). **Figure 1** shows the blueprint distribution of the sampling
138 areas. Air samples were collected in a) the administration room (point 1), where the
139 ^{99m}Tc -HDP administration via inhalation takes place, b) the image acquisition room
140 (gamma camera, point 2), where the ventilation and perfusion images are acquired, and
141 c) the corridor (point 3), which is a common area for all workers in the NMD. The
142 radiological background of the sampling sites was evaluated by collecting air samples
143 before the start of the ventilation study.

144 Point 4 (**Figure 1**) indicates the surface contamination sampling points corresponding to
145 the administration room. Collection of these samples involved wiping the sampling
146 surface with an absorbent material, a square piece of cotton dipped in ethyl alcohol. The
147 different surfaces wiped were a) wall tiles, b) a bed rail with an area of 200 cm^2 , and c)
148 a door handle with an area of 60 cm^2 .

149 Finally, spot and 24-hour urine samples were collected from seven workers who carry
150 out different tasks in the NMD, these being the NM doctor and the sampler (point α),
151 positron-emission tomography (PET) and NM technician (point β), PET and NM nurse
152 (point χ) and secretary (point δ) (**Figure 1**). Of these, five are medical staff who had
153 direct contact with patients and doses, whereas the secretary and the samplers had no
154 contact with patients or radiopharmaceuticals. Regarding the spot urine samples, three
155 different samplings were performed, corresponding to three V/P_{SPECT} studies performed
156 on three different days. Blank urine samples were collected before the start of each
157 ventilation study. Three hours after the study was performed, urine spot samples were
158 collected and kept in 100 mL polyethylene beakers. As the physiological conditions of
159 each worker could vary and urine activity concentrations fluctuate during the day, 24-
160 hour samples were collected to provide the best basis for assessing exposure during this
161 period and estimating the daily excretion fraction. These were kept in 3 L polyethylene
162 bottles, of which an aliquot of 500 mL was used for gamma-ray analysis. All urine
163 samples were identified with a reference code, date and time of collection. They were
164 processed immediately after sampling, homogenized without any chemical preparation
165 and recorded their total volume. The gamma-ray geometry beakers were covered with a
166 plastic film to avoid contamination of the detector.

168 **2.2. Instrumentation**

169 ^{99m}Tc was measured with a high-resolution germanium detector (HPGe) (model 2020,
170 Canberra Industries, Meriden, USA) equipped with a standard multichannel analyser.
171 The operating conditions were a voltage of 4,500 V, negative polarity and relative
172 efficiency of 20%. Genie 2000 software (Canberra Industries, Meriden, USA) was used
173 to acquire and analyse the information provided by the gamma-ray spectra. A gamma-
174 ray radionuclide GC2 cocktail (^{241}Am , ^{109}Cd , ^{139}Ce , ^{57}Co , ^{60}Co , ^{137}Cs , ^{54}Mn and ^{113}Sn),
175 covering an energy range of 59.54 to 1,332.49 keV and supplied by CIEMAT (Centro
176 de Investigaciones Energéticas, Medioambientales y Tecnológicas), was used to prepare
177 the different geometries to perform this study for the energy/efficiency calibration, these
178 being a filter, a paper facial mask, a wipe, a 100 mL polyethylene beaker and a 500 mL
179 Marinelli geometry. The counting efficiency of the detector was determined for each
180 photoelectric peak and for each geometry used in this work in accordance with the
181 specifications of Spanish Standard UNE-EN ISO 10703 (AENOR 2016).

2.3. Gamma-ray spectrometry measurement and validation

184 The activity concentrations of ^{99m}Tc in the air, masks, wipe and urine samples were
185 measured using an HPGe detector. The counting time for the air, masks, wipe and spot
186 urine samples was 1,800 s and the measurements were decay-corrected at the time of
187 sampling. The 24-hour urine samples were counted for 3,600 s, as recommended in ISO
188 16637:2016 (2016) as being a normal method for quantifying gamma-ray emitting
189 radionuclides in these types of sample. Their measurement was decay-corrected at the
190 time of intake, corresponding to the start of the ventilation procedure.

191 In order to validate the measurement of the air samples under these conditions, a fibre
192 glass filter sample taken from an intercomparison exercise conducted in 2017 by the
193 Consejo de Seguridad Nuclear (CSN) was used. This sample contains ^{57}Co and ^{60}Co
194 with certified activities of 0.397 ± 0.079 Bq/filter and 0.720 ± 0.144 Bq/filter
195 respectively. The Z-score values obtained were below one in both cases, with a relative
196 bias of 7.81% and 1.25% respectively.

197 ^{99m}Tc was also determined in urine samples and the measurement was validated using
198 an intercomparison sample from the IAEA conducted in 2017. This was a tap water
199 sample from Seibersdorf, spiked with a mixture of fresh fission products (^{95}Zr , ^{99m}Tc ,
200 ^{99}Mo , ^{103}Ru , ^{132}I , ^{140}Ba , ^{141}Ce , ^{143}Ce , ^{144}Ce , ^{147}Nd , ^{239}Np). The ^{99m}Tc certified activity
201 value was 53.8 ± 2.0 Bq/L. In this case, the Z-score value was around zero, with a
202 relative bias of 5.4%.

203 Taken together, the results from the intercomparison sample measurements indicate that
204 our procedure is robust and satisfactory for the intended purpose.

205

206 **2.4. Evaluation of the committed effective dose**

207 The concentration of ^{99m}Tc found in the collected air and urine samples was then used to
208 estimate the committed effective dose received by exposed worker when one V/P_{SPECT}
209 study was performed. As Etherington *et al.* (2006) stated and depending on the type of
210 available data: a) the quantity of radionuclides to which an individual could be exposed
211 (air) or b) biological samples, a distinction between two different types of dose
212 assessment, prospective and retrospective, can be made.

213 It is also important to bear in mind that nowadays there is no specific dosimetry data or
214 biokinetic model for ^{99m}Tc -HDP. Kwon *et al.* (2014) worked on this subject by taking
215 into account the more reliable biokinetic models for occupational intakes described in
216 ICRP 103 (2007) and ICRP 130 (2015). However, the results obtained had different
217 limitations in terms of dosimetry and blood absorption. ICRP 134 (2016) was published
218 more recently but is still not officially accepted. Taking this into consideration, the
219 parameter values used to perform the dose assessment in the present study were those
220 published in ICRP 119 (2012) and ICRP 68 (1994).

221

222 *2.4.1. Air samples. Prospective dose assessment*

223 The committed dose assessment due to inhalation of the radioaerosol in the previously
224 mentioned areas was performed using the following equation (Eq. 1):

$$225 \quad E_{(inh)} = I * e_{inh}(50) \quad (1)$$

226 where E is the effective dose (Sv), I is the intake (Bq) and $e_{inh}(50)$ is the dose coefficient
227 per unit intake via inhalation (Sv/Bq). It should be pointed out that ^{99m}Tc behavior after
228 uptake is dependent on the type of ligand and, in this case, the $e_{inh}(50)$ value is $2.9 \cdot 10^{-11}$
229 Sv/Bq, considering an activity median aerodynamic diameter (AMAD) of 5 μm
230 (recommended for workplace exposures) and an M absorption type (ICRP 2012) (values
231 established for ^{99m}Tc , since absorption type in the blood through the inhalation pathway
232 of ^{99m}Tc -HDP it is not documented).

233 The intake was calculated using Equation 2 (ISO 2016):

$$234 \quad I = d * t * C \quad (2)$$

235 where d is the breathing rate of a sedentary worker ($1.2 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$). This value was taken
236 from ISO 16637:2016 (ISO 2016). t is the time spent by the worker in the radioactive
237 atmosphere and C is the air concentration of the radionuclide (Bq/m^3).

239 *2.4.2. Urine samples. Retrospective dose assessment*

240 The committed effective dose in the retrospective dose assessment was evaluated using
241 the $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ activity levels found in the 24-hour urine samples taken after the intake had
242 taken place. The intake was calculated using Equation 3:

$$243 \quad I = \frac{M}{m(t)} \quad (3)$$

244 where I is the intake (Bq), M is the $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ activity in the 24-hour urine samples (Bq/d)
245 and $m(t)$ is the excretion factor of this radionuclide corresponding in time to one day
246 between the intake and the measurement and it has been obtained with AIDE (Activity
247 and Internal Dose Estimates) software (Bertelli et al. 2008). The $m(t)$ value, considering
248 an AMAD of $5 \mu\text{m}$ and an M absorption type, is $2.88 \cdot 10^{-3}$. With this value and
249 assuming that the pathway of the intake was via inhalation, the dose assessment was
250 performed by using Equation 1.

252 **3. Results and discussion**

253 **3.1. Activity levels in air samples**

254 The presence of $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ in air samples from the administration room, gamma camera
255 room and corridor was evaluated in the present research.

256 During the performance of a V/P_{SPECT}, particularly when carrying out the ventilation
257 process, the medical staff of the NMD postulated the dispersion of $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ -HDP
258 radioaerosol outside the administration room, since an alteration of the image obtained
259 by the gamma camera was observed. This could suggest that the radioaerosol generated
260 may be dispersed through the administration room and in different compartments of the
261 NMD. The radioaerosol dispersion could happen for several reasons, such as a) losses in
262 the ventilation system, b) non-cooperative patients or those with breathing difficulties,
263 or c) the presence of leaks between the mask and the patient's face. Despite
264 improvements in the air extraction system, the image alteration was usually detected
265 after the performance of two or three ventilations per day. This suggests that the
266 radioaerosol still remains in the environment.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

267 In this sense, the collection of air samples from the administration room, gamma camera
268 room and corridor was carried out to evaluate their radiological background two days
269 after a ventilation procedure and before performing another, with results below the
270 minimum detectable activity (MDA), $2.8 \cdot 10^{-5}$ kBq/m³. These low activity values
271 indicate that, although the radioaerosol could be dispersed in the ambient air, it is
272 efficiently eliminated by the air extraction system, and it is also important to consider
273 the decay in its disappearance. Air samples were also collected during the
274 administration of 1,110 MBq of ^{99m}Tc-HDP via inhalation to five different patients on
275 five different days. ^{99m}Tc was detected in all five air samples, with concentrations of
276 207.4 ± 8.8 kBq/m³, 221.7 ± 9.5 kBq/m³, 326.1 ± 18.3 kBq/m³, 395.1 ± 20.2 kBq/m³
277 and 636.9 ± 27.1 kBq/m³. It is important to highlight that although all ventilation studies
278 were performed under the same conditions, there is activity variability between samples.
279 This could be because all the patients were elderly and each had their own respiratory
280 capabilities and particular levels of willingness to cooperate. Achey *et al.* (2004) stated
281 that when they performed a ^{99m}Tc-DTPA ventilation study, the highest ^{99m}Tc air activity
282 values were obtained with uncooperative patients. Another factor to take into account is
283 that NM nurses generally enter the administration room to take care of patients during
284 the ventilation study and this can facilitate radioaerosol dispersion. The activity levels
285 sampled in the administration room are in accordance with others found in the literature
286 (Greaves et al. 1995; Avison and Hart 2001).

287 After the ventilation study, patients are moved to the gamma camera room and as a
288 protective measure they are provided with paper facial masks. It was in this room that
289 the ventilation image was acquired, as well as the perfusion image. The levels of ^{99m}Tc
290 in the air during these procedures were also quantified. To this end, air samples were
291 collected from the same five patients as before and the values obtained were noticeably
292 lower than those obtained in the administration room (with values of 0.14 ± 0.01
293 kBq/m³, 0.36 ± 0.02 kBq/m³, 0.72 ± 0.05 kBq/m³, 1.32 ± 0.09 kBq/m³ and 1.47 ± 0.06
294 kBq/m³), probably due to dilution through radioaerosol dispersion in the air. The
295 presence of radioaerosol in the gamma camera room could be attributed to two causes,
296 the first being dispersion throughout all the NMD and the second being related to the
297 fraction that could be exhaled by the patient, since the drops are too small to enter the
298 lungs and are expelled during expiration (Fernández Tena and Casan Clarà 2012). As
299 previously mentioned, patients are provided with a paper facial mask, and these were
300 also analysed and obtained a maximum activity of 359.2 ± 18.6 kBq/mask. The higher

1 301 the activity in the paper facial masks, the lower the ^{99m}Tc activity in the gamma camera
2 302 air, which indicates that this is a good radiological protective measure.

3 303 The dispersion of the radioaerosol was also evaluated in a common area i.e. the
4 304 corridor, during the overall V/P_{SPECT} study (comprising the ventilation study and the
5 305 acquisition of images). The air samples collected did not match the previous five case
6 306 studies since it was only possible to work with one air sampling device. Sampling was
7 307 performed twice when two different patients were under diagnostic study, and the
8 308 values obtained were $23.7 \pm 1.0 \text{ kBq/m}^3$ and $53.5 \pm 3.0 \text{ kBq/m}^3$. As expected, these
9 309 activities were considerably lower than those found in the administration room (one
10 310 order of magnitude), but even so they were considerably higher than those obtained as
11 311 background. The possible explanation was a dispersion of ^{99m}Tc during its
12 312 administration. At this point it is important to highlight that the presence of radioaerosol
13 313 in common areas of the NMD could be a potential source of internal exposure for
14 314 anyone working in the service.

15 315 Finally, air sampling in the administration room was also performed five minutes and
16 316 thirty minutes after the end of the radioaerosol administration, when the patient was no
17 317 longer present in the room. The results obtained were $263.4 \pm 11.4 \text{ kBq/m}^3$ and $0.41 \pm$
18 318 0.02 kBq/m^3 respectively. It was observed that after five minutes the activity levels
19 319 were similar to those during dose administration. However, the activity level drastically
20 320 decreased after thirty minutes. This could be mainly explained by a) radioaerosol
21 321 elimination by the air extraction system, b) dispersion through the NMD area, since the
22 322 door remains open after ventilation, c) the decay rate of ^{99m}Tc , and d) the deposition of
23 323 the radioaerosol on the room surfaces.

24 324 Another aim of the present study was to verify ^{99m}Tc levels on different surfaces in the
25 325 administration room: a) the wall tiles, b) the bed rail, and c) the door handle. The
26 326 collection of wipe samples before the start of a ventilation study in order to evaluate the
27 327 radiological background revealed the presence of ^{99m}Tc on the door handle and on the
28 328 bed rail, probably due to radioaerosol deposition onto these surfaces, which could not be
29 329 cleaned well and meant that the radionuclide could remain there until decay
30 330 disappearance. Wall tile surfaces had ^{99m}Tc activities below the MDA value, 0.0014
31 331 Bq/cm^2 . After carrying out four ventilation procedures, four wipe sampling campaigns
32 332 were performed over the door handle, the bed rail and the wall tiles, obtaining activity
33 333 values of $229.5 \pm 13.1 \text{ Bq/cm}^2$, $337.0 \pm 19.0 \text{ Bq/cm}^2$ and $164.0 \pm 0.9 \text{ Bq/cm}^2$

334 respectively. These results indicate that the radioaerosol particles were deposited on the
335 surfaces of the room and remained there until their decay or until they were cleaned off.

336

337 **3.2. Activity levels in urine samples**

338 From all the results obtained, we can conclude that ^{99m}Tc -HDP is dispersed in different
339 areas of the NMD and hence it can be incorporated into the human body via inhalation.

340 With reference to the literature, it is known that the main pathway of ^{99m}Tc -DTPA
341 elimination is via urine excretion (Kohn et al. 1990). For this reason and because there
342 is no published data on ^{99m}Tc -HDP elimination from the human body, it has been
343 assumed that, like ^{99m}Tc -DTPA, ^{99m}Tc -HDP is also eliminated via urine. This was
344 corroborated by the imaging every two hours of a young healthy patient who showed
345 great ventilation efficiency (10.7% calculated taking into consideration the procedure
346 used by Leners *et al.* (2011)). These images also revealed that absorption of the inhaled
347 ^{99m}Tc -HDP twenty minutes after the ventilation performance was mainly to the lungs
348 and urinary bladder, and after two hours it was also slightly absorbed into the skeleton.

349 On this basis, urine samples from different workers were collected. Specifically in the
350 present study, seventeen spot urine samples from workers were taken three hours after
351 the ventilation performance, in three independent V/P_{SPECT} studies performed in three
352 different days. As can be seen in **Table 1**, the workers had been performing different
353 tasks during the three sampling days, so depending on these, ^{99m}Tc activities in urine
354 could be correlated. Blank urine samples were collected before the performance of the
355 ventilation, with ^{99m}Tc activity values lower than the MDA, 3 Bq/L. NM nurses were
356 potentially the most exposed workers in the NMD because their tasks include the dose
357 administration and taking care of the patient. The maximum ^{99m}Tc activity found in the
358 urine spot sample was $18,652.4 \pm 1,218.7$ Bq/L. The nurses carrying out the same NM
359 tasks had different levels of ^{99m}Tc in urine (**Table 1**), probably because each person has
360 different metabolic and excretion rates. Meanwhile NM doctors were located near
361 reception (see **Figure 1**) and frequently visited the adjacent room with the gamma
362 cameras. Therefore they could inhale the radioaerosol dispersed through the corridor,
363 and the maximum activity found in urine in this case was $2,828.6 \pm 275.3$ Bq/L. The
364 secretary and PET staff were the workers with the lowest activity value in urine. This
365 may be due to their relative lack of movement from their working area during their
366 working day. Their maximum activity was $1,014.9 \pm 138.9$ Bq/L and 537.0 ± 57.8 Bq/L
367 respectively. Finally, the maximum activity level found for the sampler was $4,429.4 \pm$

368 258.7 Bq/L because this individual performed the wipe tests mentioned above
369 immediately after the end of the dose administration when ^{99m}Tc activity in the air was
370 higher. From all these results we can state that the activity values obtained in urine may
371 be correlated with the working activity performed by the medical staff. Moreover, we
372 can confirm that inhalation is an important pathway for radionuclide intake and that this
373 can be corroborated by analysing urine samples, as reported in previous studies
374 (Clouvas and Xanthos 2012; Ferdous et al. 2012; Ferdous 2016; Noh et al. 2016).

375 As mentioned earlier, spot urine samples were collected three hours after the intake had
376 taken place. In order to obtain more information about excretion rate variations during
377 24 hours, urine samples from a healthy 30-year-old woman were collected. As can be
378 observed in **Figure 2**, the maximum ^{99m}Tc activity is excreted over two hours after the
379 collection. From this time onwards, the activity progressively decreases until it is almost
380 completely eliminated 24 hours after the intake took place.

381 24-hour urine samples from exposed workers were collected, since these results are
382 used to address internal occupational dosimetry. The corresponding results are
383 presented in **Figure 3**. ^{99m}Tc was detected in all the 24-hour urine samples analysed. It
384 can be seen that the NM nurse, secretary and samplers who were located near the
385 radioaerosol administration room and who could also be present in the corridor during
386 the performance of the V/P_{SPECT} have the highest activities. This could potentially be
387 related to the dispersion of ^{99m}Tc in corridor because of the PE study performance. PET
388 nurse ^{99m}Tc activity was not shown in **Figure 3** because it was < MDA, with a value of
389 1 Bq/L.

390 **3.3. Radiation exposure assessment**

391 Members of the NMD as well as the general public who frequent the area are those
392 affected using the use of the ^{99m}Tc -HDP radioaerosol. This could potentially result in a
393 significant risk of internal radiation exposure.

395 *3.3.1. Prospective dose assessment*

396 From the equations presented in the Materials and Methods section and by using the
397 minimum and maximum ^{99m}Tc activity detected in the administration room, the gamma
398 camera and the corridor, the related committed effective doses that a worker could
399 potentially receive due to the performance of a certain task, during a certain time in each
400 mentioned area were calculated. In this sense, **Table 2** shows those three different
401 situations for a worker. The dose assessment has been performed trying to determine the

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

402 estimated intake and the related committed effective dose received by one worker, for
403 example in case of spending 2 minutes in the administration room by inhaling the
404 measured ^{99m}Tc activity in air. It can be observed that the worst case-scenario (the
405 highest activity in air) result in committed effective doses of $7.39 \cdot 10^{-1} \mu\text{Sv}$, $4 \cdot 10^{-3} \mu\text{Sv}$
406 and $6.9 \cdot 10^{-2} \mu\text{Sv}$ for a worker present in the dose administration room, gamma camera
407 room or corridor during the performance of one V/P_{SPECT} study, respectively. There are
408 other studies in the literature in which dose data from the same situations were
409 calculated (Ferrand et al. 2010; Leners et al. 2011). Ferrand *et al.* (2010), for example,
410 sampled air from the administration room while ventilating with Technegas and in the
411 gamma camera room. The doses received by workers via inhalation were $2.2 \cdot 10^{-3} \mu\text{Sv}$
412 and $7.2 \cdot 10^{-7} \mu\text{Sv}$, lower than the doses calculated in the present study, since the activity
413 in air obtained by these authors was lower.

414 3.3.2. Retrospective dose assessment

415 The results in terms of the content of ^{99m}Tc in 24-h urine sample, intake and the
416 committed effective dose for each worker exposed to one V/P_{SPECT} study are presented
417 in **Table 3**. It can be seen that the NM nurse is one of the most exposed medical
418 workers, followed by the NM doctors. The external workers that remained in the NMD
419 while the ventilation was performed were also exposed, at approximately the same order
420 of magnitude as the medical staff. The PET and NM technicians were those with the
421 lowest committed effective dose values. This could be explained by the fact that they do
422 not tend to move towards the dose administration room but remain in the gamma
423 camera room or their work location. In this case the PET nurse seems not to be exposed
424 because the ^{99m}Tc was below the MDA.

425 Taking into account the annual number of V/P_{SPECT} diagnostic studies in the NMD
426 under study (approximately 200), the potential annual committed effective dose
427 received by medical workers through internal contamination is below 20 mSv per year
428 (ICRP 2007), which is the effective dose limit recommended for occupational exposure.
429 For example, the NM nurse could potentially receive 4.18 mSv annually due to the
430 V/P_{SPECT} diagnostic studies. The secretary could potentially be exposed to the same
431 annually committed effective dose. In this case, it is below to 6 mSv per year which is
432 the effective dose limit recommended for exposed workers belonging to category B
433 (Royal Decree 783/2001 2001). However, the potential annual committed effective dose

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

435 for external workers (samplers), who are categorized as general public, could probably
436 exceed 1 mSv per year, which is the effective dose limit for a member of the public.

437

438 **4. Conclusions**

439 The workplace monitoring performed in the NMD under study revealed the dispersion
440 of the radioaerosol throughout the entire area, which implies potential internal exposure
441 via inhalation of all the medical staff. Of all the sampled sites, the administration room
442 was the one with the highest ^{99m}Tc activity in air. Because of the activity levels in the
443 air, internal occupational monitoring by using air and urine analysis was also
444 performed. Using the prospective dose assessment model three specific situations have
445 been shown, during which a worker could receive a related committed effective dose.
446 The situation of maximum worker exposure is the one related with tasks performed in
447 the administration room. According to the data obtained by the retrospective dose
448 assessment, the performance of a V/P_{SPECT} study would not constitute a radiological risk
449 for exposed staff. However, samplers which are considered as general public would
450 exceed the annual limit dose for this category. On the basis of all this, further
451 radiological protection measures should be introduced, such as applying negative
452 pressure in the administration room to avoid dispersion of the radionuclide to other
453 areas of the NMD.

454

455 **Acknowledgements**

456 We would like to thank the staff of the Department de Medicina Nuclear and the Servei
457 de Protecció Radiològica i Física Mèdica at the Hospital Universitari Sant Joan de Reus
458 for their help and collaboration.

459 We are also extremely grateful to the Consorci d'Aigües de Tarragona for their support.

460

461 **Compliance with ethical standards**

462 **Conflict of interest**

463 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

464 **Human and animal rights**

465 All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance
466 with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and
467 with the 1964 Helsinki Declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

standards. This article does not contain any studies with animals performed by any of the authors.

470 **Informed consent**

471 Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

472 **References**

- 473 Achey B, Miller K, Erdman M, King S (2004) Potential Dose to Nuclear Medicine
474 Technologists from ^{99m}Tc-DTPA Aerosol Lung Studies. *Health Phys* 86:85–87.
475 doi: 10.1097/00004032-200405002-00009
- 476 AENOR (2016) Water quality. Determination of the activity concentration of
477 radionuclides. Method by high resolution gamma-ray spectrometry. (ISO
478 10703:2007). Madrid
- 479 Avison M, Hart G (2001) The use of a modified technique to reduce radioactive air
480 contamination in aerosol lung ventilation imaging. *J Radiol Prot* 21:155–161. doi:
481 10.1088/0952-4746/21/2/305
- 482 Bailey EA, Bailey DL, Roach PJ (2010) V/Q Imaging in 2010: A quick start guide.
483 *Semin Nucl Med* 40:408–414. doi: 10.1053/j.semnuclmed.2010.07.003
- 484 Bajc M, Neilly JB, Miniati M, et al (2009) EANM guidelines for ventilation/perfusion
485 scintigraphy : Part 1. Pulmonary imaging with ventilation/perfusion single photon
486 emission tomography. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 36:1356–1370. doi:
487 10.1007/s00259-009-1170-5
- 488 Bertelli L, Melo DR, Lipsztein J, Cruz-Suarez R (2008) AIDE: Internal Dosimetry
489 Software. *Radiat Prot Dosimetry* 130:358–367. doi: doi:10.1093/rpd/ncn059
- 490 Chen Y, Dai Z, Huang Y, Jong S (2000) Radiation Protect during the Ventilation
491 Scintigraphy of Tc-99m DTPA Radioaerosol in Pediatric Application. In: IRPA-10
492 Proceedings of the 10th international congress of the International Radiation
493 Protection Association on harmonization of radiation, human life and the
494 ecosystem. Japan
- 495 Clouvas A, Xanthos S (2012) Gamma radiation measurements and Monte Carlo
496 computations following myocardial perfusion imaging with Tl-201. *Radiat Prot*
497 *Dosimetry* 152:414–417. doi: 10.1093/rpd/ncs073
- 498 Etherington G, Birchall A, Puncher M, et al (2006) Uncertainties in doses from intakes
499 of radionuclides assessed from monitoring measurements. *Radiat Prot Dosimetry*

121:40–51. doi: 10.1093/rpd/ncl152

1
2 501 European Commission (2015) Radiation Protection N° 180. Medical Radiation
3
4 502 Exposure of the European Population (Part 1). Luxembourg

5 503 Evbuomwan O, Purbhoo K, Vangu MDT (2018) A prospective study comparing ^{99m}Tc-
6
7 504 MIBI and ^{99m}Tc-MDP with ^{99m}Tc-DTPA for lung ventilation scintigraphy in
8
9 505 pulmonary thromboembolism. Nucl Med Commun 39:1103–1112

10
11 506 F&J Speciality Products Product information sheet FP-X glass fiber filter paper where
12
13 507 X = dimension of filter paper. [http://www.fjspecialty.com/wp-](http://www.fjspecialty.com/wp-content/uploads/FPX-Specs-1.pdf)
14
15 508 [content/uploads/FPX-Specs-1.pdf](http://www.fjspecialty.com/wp-content/uploads/FPX-Specs-1.pdf). Accessed 5 Mar 2019

16
17 509 Ferdous J (2016) Assessment of Activity Concentration and Effective Doses from
18
19 510 Bioassay Sample of Occupational Workers in NINMAS, Bangladesh. Int J Radiol
20
21 511 Radiat Ther 1:8–11. doi: 10.15406/ijrrt.2016.01.00008

22
23 512 Ferdous MJ, Alam Z, Khan RK, et al (2012) Internal Radiation Monitoring of
24
25 513 Occupational Staff in nuclear medicine facility. Bangladesh J Med Phys 5:63–70.
26
27 514 doi: <https://doi.org/10.3329/bjmp.v5i1.14670>

28
29 515 Fernández Tena A, Casan Clarà P (2012) Depósito pulmonar de partículas inhaladas.
30
31 516 Arch Bronconeumol 48:240–246. doi: 10.1016/j.arbres.2012.02.003

32
33 517 Ferrand O, Brouquières G, Puech B, Bussy E (2010) Zonage radiologique d’un service
34
35 518 de médecine nucléaire: exemple de l’hôpital d’instruction des armées Sainte-Anne.
36
37 519 Med Nucl 34:664–674. doi: 10.1016/j.mednuc.2010.10.006

38
39 520 Greaves CD, Sanderson R, Tindale WB (1995) Air contamination following aerosol
40
41 521 ventilation in the gamma camera room. Nucl Med Commun 16:901–904

42
43 522 ICRP 1994 Dose Coefficients for Intakes of Radionuclides by Workers. ICRP
44
45 523 Publication 68. Ann ICRP 24

46
47 524 ICRP 2007 The 2007 Recommendations of the International Commission on
48
49 525 Radiological Protection on Radiological Protection. ICRP Publication 103. Ann
50
51 526 ICRP 37:2–4

52
53 527 ICRP 2012 Compendium of Dose Coefficients based on ICPR Publication 60. ICRP
54
55 528 Publication 119. Ann ICRP 41 Suppl.

56
57 529 ICRP 2015 Occupational Intakes of Radionuclides: Part 1. ICRP Publication 130. Ann
58
59 530 ICRP 44

60
61 531 ICRP 2016 Occupational Intakes of Radionuclides: Part 2. ICRP Publication 134. Ann
62
63 532 ICRP 45

64
65 533 ISO (2016) Radiological protection — Monitoring and internal dosimetry for staff

1 534 members exposed to medical radionuclides as unsealed sources (ISO 16637:2016).
2 535 Switzerland
3
4 536 Kawase S, Ohno K, Miyatake H (2015) Safety management of nuclear medicine
5 537 personnel with visualisation of air dose rate. *Radiat Prot Dosimetry* 165:439–442.
6
7 538 doi: 10.1093/rpd/ncv120
8
9 539 Kohn H, Konig B, Klech H, et al (1990) Urine excretion of inhaled technetium-99m-
10 540 DTPA: an alternative method to assess lung epithelial transport. *J Nucl Med*
11 541 31:441–449
12
13
14 542 Kwon T, Noh S, Jeong S, Lee J (2014) Calculation of the intake retention fraction and
15 543 dose coefficients in ^{99m}Tc-labelled compound for internal exposure for medical
16 544 workers. *Nucl Sci Tech* 25:1–5. doi: 10.13538/j.1001-8042/nst.25.S010302
17
18
19 545 Leners N, Sinnen C, Kaphammel O, et al (2011) Procédures de ventilation pulmonaire
20 546 par aérosol ^{99m}Tc-DTPA: contamination aérienne, contaminations interne et
21 547 cutanée externe des manipulateurs. *Med Nucl* 35:553–557. doi:
22 548 10.1016/j.mednuc.2011.07.005
23
24
25 549 Metter D, Tulchinsky M, Freeman LM (2017) Current status of ventilation-perfusion
26 550 scintigraphy for suspected pulmonary embolism. *Am J Roentgenol* 208:489–494.
27 551 doi: 10.2214/AJR.16.17195
28
29
30 552 Noh S, Jeong S, An M, et al (2016) Internal Dosimetry for Intake of 18FDG Using Spot
31 553 Urine Sample. *Radiat Prot Dosimetry* 168:343–349. doi: 10.1093/rpd/ncv346
32
33
34 554 Opanowski A, Gross LJ, Tulchinsky M (2015) Radiopharmaceutical options for the
35 555 ventilation part of ventilation-perfusion scintigraphy performed for the indication
36 556 of pulmonary embolism: US practice survey. *Clin Nucl Med* 40:553–558. doi:
37 557 10.1097/RLU.0000000000000763
38
39
40 558 Royal Decree 783/2001, of 6th July, which approves the Regulations on sanitary
41 559 protection against ionizing radiation. *Official State Gazette* 178. Madrid, 6th July
42 560 2001
43
44
45 561 Schembri GP, Roach PJ, Bailey DL, Freeman L (2015) Artifacts and anatomical
46 562 variants affecting ventilation and perfusion lung imaging. *Semin Nucl Med*
47 563 45:373–391. doi: 10.1053/j.semnuclmed.2015.02.009
48
49
50 564 Schiepers C (ed) (2006) *Diagnostic Nuclear Medicine*, 2nd edn. Springer-Verlag Berlin
51 565 Heidelberg
52
53
54 566 Silva ICOA, Lucena EA, Souza WO, et al (2010) Estimation of internal exposure to
55 567 ^{99m}Tc in nuclear medicine patients. *Cell Mol Biol* 56:37–40. doi: 10.1170/T892

568 Thrall JH, Ziessman HA (2001) Nuclear Medicine: The Requisites, 2nd edn.
569 Wondergem M, Van Der Zant FM, Knol JJR, et al (2018) ^{99m}Tc -HDP bone
570 scintigraphy and ^{18}F -sodiumfluoride PET/CT in primary staging of patients with
571 prostate cancer. World J Urol 36:27–34. doi: 10.1007/s00345-017-2096-3
572 Young CR, Prasad K (2017) Initial Experience in the Use of Technetium- 99
573 Metastable Hydroxymethylene Diphosphonate as an Alternative Ventilation Agent
574 During Periods of Interim Shortage. World J Nucl Med 16:156–159. doi:
575 10.4103/1450-1147.203063

576 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

577 **Fig. 1** Schematic representation of the air, wipe and urine sampling collection points in
578 the NMD under study

579

580 **Fig. 2** Representation of ^{99m}Tc urine concentration detected in sampler spot samples
581 collected over 24 hours

582

583 **Fig. 3** Graphical representation of ^{99m}Tc concentration in 24-hour urine samples
584 corresponding to different individual tasks

585

586 **TABLE CAPTIONS**

587 **Table 1** Urine spot sample concentration related to each medical staff task

588

589 **Table 2** Measurements of ^{99m}Tc concentration in the air from different areas, intakes
590 and the corresponding committed effective doses

591

592 **Table 3** Measurements of ^{99m}Tc concentration in 24-hour urine samples from different
593 workers, intakes and the corresponding committed effective doses

TABLE 1

Worker	Worker task	^{99m} Tc concentration in spot urine samples (Bq/L)		
		28/05/2018	31/05/2018	06/06/2018
1	PET Technician	94.0 ± 50.0	537.0 ± 57.8	-
2	NM Nurse	279.3 ± 80.4	-	
	PET Nurse		-	14.5 ± 8.3
3	NM Nurse		2,939.0 ± 141.3	18,652.4 ± 1,218.7
	PET Nurse	158.0 ± 26.0		
4	NM Doctor	-	1,045.2 ± 75.5	2,828.6 ± 275.3
5	Secretary	1,014.9 ± 138.9	891.9 ± 74.0	774.3 ± 75.5
6	NM Doctor	-	1,778.7 ± 75.5	752.8 ± 69.6
7	Sampler	4,429.4 ± 258.7	774.3 ± 57.9	1,863.7 ± 224.9

- : The worker was not in the hospital these days

TABLE 2

Sampling sites	Worker	^{99m} Tc	Intake [Bq]	Committed
	exposure	concentration		effective dose,
	time, <i>t</i> [min]	in air [kBq/m ³]		<i>E</i> _{inhalation} [μSv]
Administration room	2	207.43 ± 8.81 ^a	8,297.24	0.241
		636.92 ± 27.11 ^b	25,476.80	0.739
Gamma camera room	5	0.14 ± 0.01 ^a	14.00	0.0004
		1.47 ± 0.06 ^b	143.77	0.004
Corridor	5	23.67 ± 0.99 ^a	2,367.22	0.069
		53.56 ± 2.92 ^b	5,356.00	0.155

^aMinimum ^{99m}Tc concentration detected in the area

^bMaximum ^{99m}Tc concentration detected in the area

TABLE 3

Task	^{99m} Tc concentration in 24-h urine samples [Bq/d]	Intake [Bq]	Committed effective dose, E [μSv]
NM Doctor	1,714.5 ± 164.5	595,312.5	17.3
NM Technician	490.0 ± 103.2	170,138.9	4.9
PET Technician	362.7 ± 83.9	125,951.4	3.7
NM Nurse	2,073.8 ± 131.1	720,079.9	20.9
PET Nurse	<MDA*		-
Secretary	2,382.1 ± 164.9	827,125.0	24.0
Sampler 1	1,569.2 ± 176.6	544,861.1	15.8
Sampler 2	2,385.9 ± 251.3	828,437.5	24.0

*MDA = 1 Bq/L

Figure 1

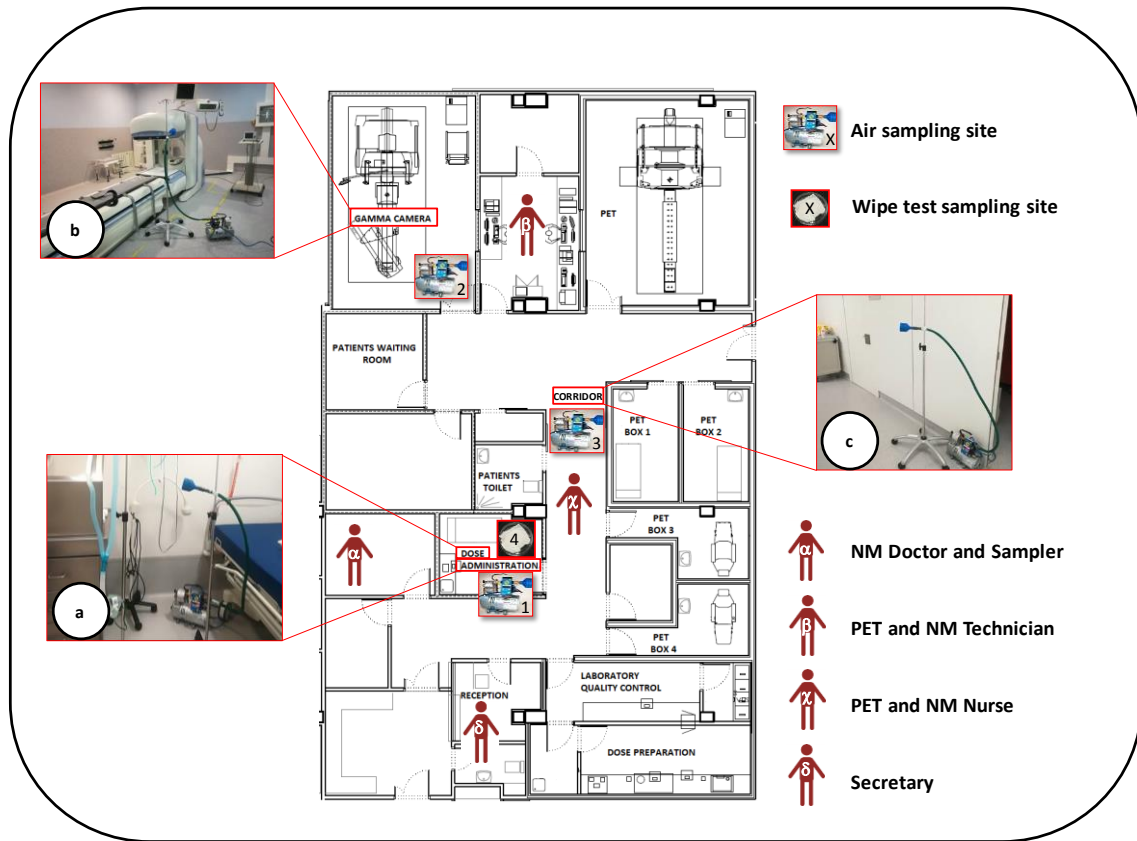


Figure 2

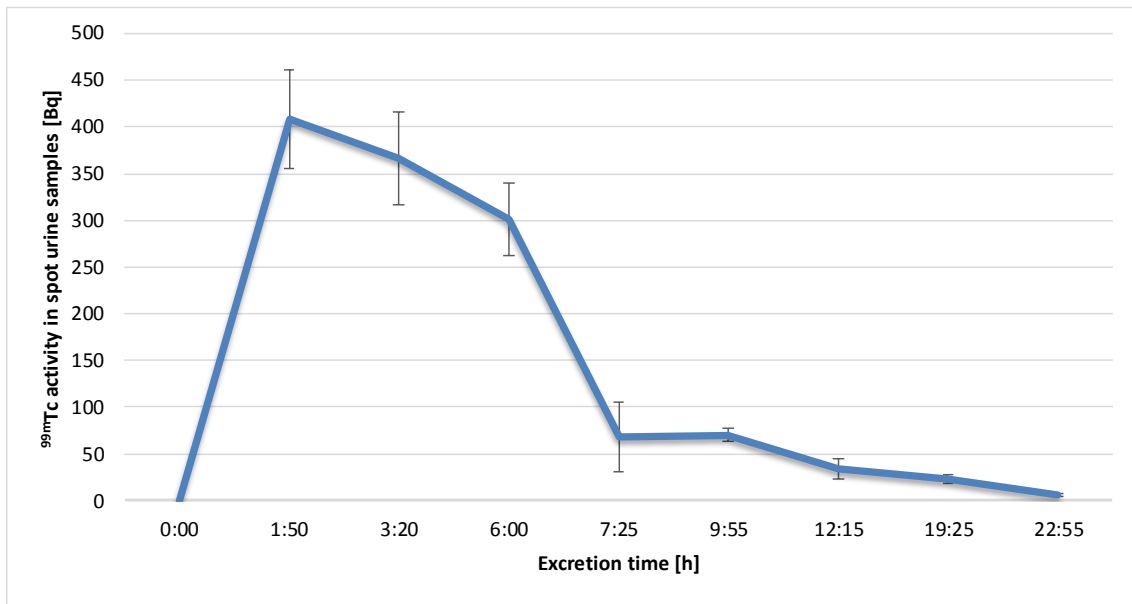


Figure 3

