

# Cancer Mortality Among Laundry and Dry Cleaning Workers

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*A cancer mortality study of 8,163 deaths occurring among persons formerly employed as laundering and dry cleaning workers in 28 states is described. Age-adjusted sex-race cause-specific proportionate mortality ratios (PMRs) and proportionate cancer mortality ratios (PCMRs) were computed for 1979 through 1990, using the corresponding 28-state mortality as the comparison. For those aged 15-64 years, there were excesses in black men for total cancer mortality (PMR = 130, 95% confidence interval (CI) = 105-159) and cancer of the esophagus 1 (PMR = 215, 95% CI = 111-376), and in white men for cancer of the larynx (PMR = 318, 95% CI = 117-693). For those aged 65 years and over, there were statistically nonsignificant excesses for cancer of the trachea, bronchus, and lung in black women (PMR = 128, CI = 94-170) and for cancer of other and unspecified female genital organs in white women (PMR = 225, CI = 97-443). The results of this and other studies point to the need for the effective implementation of available control measures to protect laundry and dry cleaning workers. Am. J. Ind. Med. 32:614-619, 1997. © 1997 Wiley-Liss, Inc.†*

**KEY WORDS:** dry cleaning solvents; dry cleaning industry; laundering industry; organic solvents; chlorinated-hydrocarbons; chlorinated ethylenes; tetrachloroethylene; women; mortality data; malignant neoplasms; carcinogenicity

## INTRODUCTION

Dry cleaning and some laundering operatives may have exposure to organic solvents used as cleaners, mainly the nonflammable synthetic solvent perchloroethylene, also called tetrachloroethylene [DHEW (NIOSH), 1978; Rubino, 1983; Seitz and Briotet, 1983]. Before the 1960s, dry cleaning establishments primarily used other organic solvents such as carbon tetrachloride, trichloroethylene, and flammable petroleum derivatives, especially Stoddard solvent. The potential exposures of dry cleaning workers to organic solvents differs according to their job category and proximity to the solvent cleaning machines [Seitz and Briotet, 1983; Rubino, 1983]. In 1979, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) air sample data

from 44 dry cleaning establishments in California, Illinois, Michigan, New York, and Ohio indicated that, across the five states, the operators of dry cleaning machines have the greatest potential exposure to solvents, and that other dry cleaning employees have much lower potential exposure [Solet et al., 1990; Ludwig et al., 1983].

Several recent reports have described the mortality of laundry and dry cleaning workers [Blair et al., 1990; Asal et al., 1988; Nakamura, 1985; Katz and Jowett, 1981], the most recent a report, by Ruder et al. [1994], of a cohort of dry cleaning union members previously studied by Brown and Kaplan [1987]. Epidemiologic data have suggested that persons employed as dry cleaning workers who are exposed to tetrachloroethylene and other solvents have an increased risk of cancer of the esophagus [Ruder et al., 1994; Blair et al., 1990], intestine excluding rectum [Ruder et al., 1994; Fredriksson et al., 1989], and bladder [Ruder et al., 1994; Brown and Kaplan, 1987]. Other studies of workers in the laundry and dry cleaning industry have suggested an increased risk of cancer of the liver [Lyng and Thygesen, 1990; Nakamura, 1985], pancreas [Ruder et al., 1994; Asal

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et al., 1988], lung [Brownson et al., 1993], and kidney [Duh and Asal, 1984]. Many of the reports that specifically deal with laundry and dry cleaning workers are cohort mortality studies of employees of selected companies or of members of particular dry cleaning unions, while other reports are population-based mortality studies. The sample sizes for the industrial cohorts were under 2,000 except for two which were 3,315 [Asal et al., 1988] and 5,365 [Blair et al., 1990]; the number of deaths in the industrial cohorts under 2,000 ranged from 500 to 1,200 deaths. The deaths in all the industrial cohorts occurred from the 1940s through the 1980s.

Through a collaborative effort with the National Center for Health Statistics, the National Cancer Institute, and State health departments, NIOSH maintains a large database of coded occupational data from death certificates with wide geographical coverage of the United States [Burnett and Dosemeci, 1994]. The National Occupational Mortality Surveillance (NOMS) system currently includes data from 28 states for two or more years. Although the NOMS database lacks information on length of employment, specificity of occupations and industries, or estimates of workplace exposures, its advantages over recent studies include its size, its broad geographic coverage, and the recent date of death of the cases.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

We assessed the mortality experience of laundering and dry cleaning workers using NOMS data for 28 states<sup>1</sup> collected for 1979–1990 for decedents aged 15 years and over. Sources of information for the NOMS are death certificates, where the cause of death is entered by the attending physician, medical examiner, or coroner, and industry and occupation are entered by the funeral director with information supplied by informants or next of kin. The usual occupation and industry of each decedent in the NOMS is coded according to the 1980 Census classification system [U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980]. The underlying cause of death is coded according to the International Classification of Diseases (ICD), Ninth Revision [WHO, 1977]. There were 8,163 deaths in total, with 2,157 deaths for ages 15–64 years (307 black men, 582 white men, 659 white women, and 609 black women) and 6,006 deaths for ages 65 years and over (358 black men, 1,293 white men, 3,074 white women, and 1,281 black women). We computed proportionate mortality ratios (PMRs) by comparing the proportion of all deaths that was due to specific causes, in

laundering and dry cleaning workers, with a parallel estimate for decedents in all occupations. Age-adjusted PMRs were computed for deaths occurring for ages 15–64 years and for ages 65 years and over, stratified by race and sex. Age 65 years was chosen to correspond with the typical age of retirement, with greater likelihood of inaccurate occupational information after retirement. We also computed proportionate cancer mortality ratios (PCMRs) by comparing the proportion of all cancer deaths that was due to specific types of cancer among laundering and dry cleaning workers, with a parallel estimate for decedents in all occupations. To test for statistical significance of the PMR, two-sided 95% confidence intervals (95%CI) were calculated, based on the Poisson distribution for observed deaths [Bailar and Ederer, 1964], and using the normal approximation to the Poisson for large numbers [Mantel and Haenszel, 1959].

## RESULTS

Results for selected malignant neoplasms for those aged 15–64 years and those aged 65 years and over are presented in Tables I and II, respectively. Complete results for all causes are available on request.

Review of the data for those aged 15–64 years shows that the highest and statistically significant PMR values were seen for all cancer in black men (97 observed, PMR = 130; 95%CI = 105–159), cancer of the esophagus in black men (12 observed, PMR = 215; 95%CI = 111–376), and cancer of the larynx in white men (6 observed, PMR = 318, 95%CI = 117–693; PCMR = 315; 95%CI = 116–685) (Table I). Cancer of the esophagus was elevated but not statistically significant in black women (PMR = 184; 95%CI = 84–349; PCMR = 164; 95%CI = 75–311) and white women (PMR = 189; 95%CI = 51–483; PCMR = 205; 95%CI = 56–526). Cancer of the trachea, bronchus, and lung was also elevated, but not statistically significant, in all groups (PMR = 132, 106, 106, and 109, and PCMR = 102, 104, 120, 126 for black and white men and black and white women, respectively). Cancer of the penis and other male genital organs was elevated in white men based on two deaths (PMR = 1,490; 95%CI = 180–5,381; PCMR = 1,493; 95%CI = 181–5,393).

We also found increases for those aged 65 years and over, including cancer of the trachea, bronchus, and lung in black women (48 observed, PMR = 128; 95%CI = 94–170) (Table II). A statistically significant PMR (4 observed, PMR = 1,275; 95%CI = 347–3,263) and PCMR (4 observed, PCMR = 1,277; 95%CI = 348–3,269) were seen for breast cancer in white men. The PCMR for cancer of the breast was reduced in black women aged 65 years and over (PCMR = 63; 95%CI = 39–95). Cancer of other and unspecified female genital organs in white women was elevated but not statistically significant (8 observed, PMR = 225; 95%CI = 97–443) (not shown). Cancer of the colon was lower than expected in white women aged 65 years and over (PCMR = 76; 95%CI = 57–98). The rubric,

1. Alaska, California, Colorado, Georgia, Idaho, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York except New York City, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

**TABLE I.** Summary of Cancer Mortality Experience for Laundering and Dry Cleaning Machine Operators, Aged 15–64 Years, by Race and Sex, from 28 States\*: 1979–1990†

Cause of death (ICD9 codes)	Black men (307 deaths)			White men (582 deaths)			Black women (609 deaths)			White women (659 deaths)		
	Obs deaths	PMR and 95%CI PCMR and 95%CI		Obs deaths	PMR and 95%CI PCMR and 95%CI		Obs deaths	PMR and 95%CI PCMR and 95%CI		Obs deaths	PMR and 95%CI PCMR and 95%CI	
Malignant neoplasms (140–208)	97	130 105–159		151	101 86–119		179	90 78–104		257	85 75–96	
Esophagus (150)	12	215 111–376		3	75 16–219		9	184 84–349		4	189 51–483	
Colon (153)	6	168 87–294		10	73 15–212		12	164 75–311		14	205 56–526	
Liver (155)	0	106 39–231		2	81 39–150		1	79 41–138		0	70 38–118	
Pancreas (157)	4	98 36–214		9	95 12–342		8	49 1–271		6	55 1–305	
Larynx (161)	1	118 32–302		6	128 58–243		2	78 34–154		0	92 40–181	
Lung (162)	39	92 25–235		61	125 57–236		43	92 40–181		75	61 22–132	
Bone (170)	0	60 2–332		0	318 117–693		0	20–605		1	189 5–1,051	
Skin (172)	0	44 1–247		3	315 116–685		2	143 17–517		2	256 6–1,427	
Cervix (180)	0	132 94–181		0	106 81–137		11	106 77–143		8	40 5–145	
Ovary (183)	0	102 73–140		0	104 80–134		3	120 87–162		8	53 6–192	
Prostate (185)	7	0		5	0		0	118 59–212		8	105 46–208	
Penis (187)	0	162 65–335		2	105 34–245		0	118 59–212		8	117 50–230	
Bladder (188)	2	125 50–258		0	1,490 180–5,381		1	41 8–119		0	105 46–208	
Kidney (189.0–189.2)	1	309 37–1,116		1	1,493 181–5,393		3	35 7–103		3	117 50–230	
Thyroid (193)	0	241 29–871		0	0		0	8–119		0	170 35–497	
Lymphatic and hematopoietic (200–208)	4	70 2–388		15	24 1–135		7	60 2–335		21	192 40–562	
		54 1–303			23 1–130			139 29–407			75 16–220	
		62 17–159			104 58–172			60 24–125			96 59–146	
											117 72–178	

\*Alaska, Colorado, Georgia, Idaho, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York except New York City, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

†Abbreviations: ICD9, International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision; PMR, proportionate mortality ratio; PCMR, proportionate cancer mortality ratio; 95%CI, 95% confidence interval; OBS, observed.

other lymphatic neoplasms and multiple myeloma, was lower than expected among white women (20 observed, PMR = 56; 95%CI = 35–87) (not shown).

## DISCUSSION

A major finding by Ruder et al. [1994], an excess of esophageal cancer overall and in women dry cleaning

workers, corresponded to the statistically significant excess for this classification that we observed for black men and the statistically nonsignificant increases in black and white women. There was a statistically nonsignificant deficit in white men. The PMR and PCMR analyses produced similar findings for esophageal cancer. The difference between black and white male mortality may be due to differences in alcohol consumption in black men compared to white men

**TABLE II.** Summary of Cancer Mortality Experience for Laundering and Dry Cleaning Machine Operators, Aged 65 Years and Over, by Race and Sex, from 28 States: 1979–1990\*

Cause of death (ICD9 codes)	Black men (358 deaths)			White men (1,293 deaths)			Black women (1,281 deaths)			White women (3,074 deaths)		
	Obs deaths	PMR and 95%CI PCMR and 95%CI		Obs deaths	PMR and 95%CI PCMR and 95%CI		Obs deaths	PMR and 95%CI PCMR and 95%CI		Obs deaths	PMR and 95%CI PCMR and 95%CI	
Malignant neoplasms (140–208)	96	98 79–120 100		298	97 86–109 100		252	101 89–114 100		564	86 79–93 100	
Esophagus (150)	5	140 45–326 134 44–314		4	62 17–159 64 18–164		7	148 60–305 140 56–289		7	106 43–218 126 51–259	
Colon (153)	7	88 35–180 91 37–188		39	124 88–170 128 91–175		40	109 78–149 111 79–151		56	65 49–84 76 57–98	
Liver (155)	0			5	112 36–262 115 38–269		5	123 40–287 126 41–294		8	98 42–192 106 46–210	
Pancreas (157)	4	86 23–219 89 24–227		9	65 30–123 67 31–127		19	94 56–146 93 56–145		24	61 39–91 71 45–105	
Larynx (161)	2	167 20–603 167 20–603		5	156 51–365 162 53–378		1	206 5–1,149 162 4–901		0		
Lung (162)	27	89 59–130 89 58–129		103	99 81–120 103 84–124		48	128 94–170 131 97–174		109	88 73–107 106 87–128	
Bone (170)	0			1	244 6–1,361 252 6–1,404		0			4	419 114–1,074 437 119–1,120	
Skin (172)	0			1	33 1–187 35 1–193		1	118 3–658 124 3–693		6	113 41–246 123 45–268	
Breast (174, 175)	2	1–587 192–5,734 1,478 179–5,340		4	1,275 347–3,263 1,277 348–3,269		22	63 40–96 63 39–95		98	91 74–111 110 89–134	
Cervix (180)	0			0			7	99 40–205 88 36–182		11	143 71–255 161 81–289	
Ovary (183)	0			0			12	125 65–219 118 61–207		36	98 69–136 118 83–164	
Prostate (185)	27	120 79–175 128 84–186		29	68 46–98 71 47–102		0			0		
Penis (187)	0			1	384 10–2,142 383 10–2,133		0			0		
Bladder (188)	2	106 13–384 112 14–406		4	39 11–100 40 11–102		7	140 56–288 132 53–272		11	95 47–169 109 55–196	
Kidney (189.0–189.2)	3	209 43–611 214 44–627		8	119 51–234 123 53–243		3	102 21–298 92 19–269		14	121 66–203 134 74–226	
Thyroid (193)	0			0			1	187 5–1,043 148 4–826		1	54 1–300 58 2–324	
Lymphatic and hematopoietic (200–208)	4	65 18–166 66 18–170		26	98 64–143 101 66–148		18	85 50–134 86 51–135		46	71 52–94 82 60–109	

\*See Table I footnotes.

and in urban versus rural residence patterns for black men compared to white men [Rubin, 1988]. An important difference between our study and that of Ruder et al. [1994] is that our population consists of laundering and dry cleaning workers, while the cohort in the study conducted by Ruder et al. [1994] was limited to dry cleaning workers. If the

increased esophageal cancer in this study is associated with an exposure in the dry cleaning workplace, we would expect that combining dry cleaners and laundry workers might have led to an underestimation of the true risk.

We also observed an increase similar to that found by Blair et al. [1990] for laryngeal cancer in all race–sex groups

combined. We found excess laryngeal cancer in white men aged 15–64 years; there were too few deaths in other groups to give results. Cancer of the larynx is related to tobacco and alcohol use [Muscat and Wynder, 1992; Freudenheim et al., 1992]. Information on these factors was not available. However, analyses of noncancer causes of death related to smoking and alcohol use, such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and allied conditions, and chronic liver disease and cirrhosis, did not show a pattern consistent with excess smoking and alcohol use, although based on small numbers.

We found increased cancer of other and unspecified female genital organs in white women aged 65 years and over, decreases in white and black women under 65, and no increase or decrease for black women over age 65. However, these results were not statistically significant, and may be due to chance variation. Genital cancer (unspecified) has been found to be increased among female laundry and dry cleaning workers [Katz and Jowett, 1981]. These cancers are most common in older women (over age 60) [Cotran et al., 1989]. Although the causes are unknown, risk factors include low socioeconomic status, possibly related to increased sexual behavior [Brinton et al., 1990a,b], and cigarette smoking [Rubin and Farber, 1988]. We did not have information on other possible risk factors.

Another increase we observed was cancer of the trachea, bronchus, and lung, which was moderately elevated, but not statistically significant, in black men and white and black women aged 15–64 years (PMRs and PCMRs) and in black women aged 65 years and over (PMRs only). Although these statistically nonsignificant results may be due to chance variation, the increases are consistent with the results of Brownson et al. [1993], who found increased lung cancer in dry cleaning workers. Although information on cigarette smoking in this population was not available, data from the National Health Interview Survey indicates that laundry operators and dry cleaners have a higher proportion of current and former smokers than in the general population [Brackbill et al., 1988]. However, smoking may not have been highly prevalent in the study population, since analysis of noncancer causes of death related to smoking use among white decedents did not show a pattern consistent with excess smoking. There were too few deaths due to chronic bronchitis and emphysema in black men and women to conclude anything about the level of smoking in these two groups.

This is a large study including more than 2,000 deaths of individuals under 65 years of age and about 6,000 deaths of individuals 65 years of age and over. This PMR study is based on deaths occurring from 1979 to 1990, rather than over decades, and has broad geographical coverage for the United States. However, occupational mortality data are not without limitations. The information on usual occupation and industry listed on the death certificate may be inaccurate [Schade and Swanson, 1988; Schumacher, 1986; Steenland

and Beaumont, 1984]. There is no information on possible confounders, such as smoking and alcohol use. There is no direct information on length of employment or possible occupational exposures. However, employees in service industries tend to have fewer years with their employer compared with other industries, which indicates that laundry and dry cleaning workers may have reduced exposures, possibly diluting the PMRs [U.S. Department of Labor, 1992]. Furthermore, cancer mortality will underestimate cancer morbidity and in varying degrees across the different types of cancer [Lynge, 1992].

Proportionate mortality studies are useful for hypothesis generation [Checkoway et al., 1989]. However, in a PMR study, the PMR for one cause of death may be relatively high if proportions of other causes of death are relatively low [Decouflé et al., 1980]. Excesses in PMR studies may be biased away from the null because of the “healthy worker effect,” resulting from a worker study population being healthier than a nonworker referent population [McMichael, 1976]. For instance, PMRs for long-term chronic diseases such as cardiovascular disease may be low, causing PMRs for other causes to be inflated [Howe et al., 1988]. In this study, PMRs due to circulatory disease (9th Rev ICD 390-459) ranged from 90 to 114 for all age and race groups (not shown), and none was statistically significant. The results in this study may not be affected by the healthy worker effect, as the referents are also workers. In addition, the healthy worker effect is less likely to occur for PCMRs, since the PCMR excludes nonmalignant chronic diseases [McMichael, 1976]. Finally, some elevations could be due to chance, because of the large number of study subjects and the multiple comparisons made.

This study adds to the evidence that laundry and dry cleaning workers may be at excess risk of specific causes of mortality, particularly esophageal cancer, laryngeal cancer, lung cancer, and cancer of other and unspecified female genital organs. That the excesses were not entirely consistent by race and sex makes inference from these data difficult, but the results suggest possible hypotheses for further study. Although limited, the findings, especially for esophageal and lung cancer, fit well with data from other epidemiological studies, all pointing to the need for the effective implementation of available control measures to protect laundry and dry cleaning workers [Solet et al., 1990; Materna, 1985; Stricoff, 1983].

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