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# Trace-level beryllium analysis in the laboratory and in the field: State of the art, challenges, and opportunities

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DOE Contract No. **DE-AC09-96SR18500**

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# Trace-level beryllium analysis in the laboratory and in the field: State of the art, challenges, and opportunities†

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**5** *Receipt/Acceptance Data* [DO NOT ALTER/DELETE THIS TEXT]

*Publication data* [DO NOT ALTER/DELETE THIS TEXT]

**DOI:** 10.1039/b000000x [DO NOT ALTER/DELETE THIS TEXT]

Control of workplace exposure to beryllium is a growing issue in the United States and other nations. As the health risks associated with low-level exposure to beryllium are better understood, the need increases for improved analytical techniques both in the laboratory and in the field. These techniques also require a greater degree of standardization to permit reliable comparison of data obtained from different locations and at different times. Analysis of low-level beryllium samples, in the form of air filters or surface wipes, is frequently required for workplace monitoring or to provide data to support decision-making on implementation of exposure controls. In the United States and the United Kingdom, the current permissible exposure level is 2 µg/m<sup>3</sup> (air), and the United States Department of Energy has implemented an action level of 0.2 µg/m<sup>3</sup> (air) and 0.2 µg/100 cm<sup>2</sup> (surface). These low-level samples present a number of analytical challenges, including (1) a lack of suitable standard reference materials, (2) unknown robustness of sample preparation techniques, (3) interferences during analysis, (4) sensitivity (sufficiently low detection limits), (5) specificity (beryllium speciation), and (6) data comparability among laboratories. Additionally, there is a need for portable, real-time (or near real-time) equipment for beryllium air monitoring and surface wipe analysis that is both laboratory-validated and field-validated in a manner that would be accepted by national and/or international standards organizations. This paper provides a review of the current analytical requirements for trace-level beryllium analysis for worker protection, and also addresses issues that may change those requirements. The current analytical state of the art and relevant challenges facing the analytical community will be presented, followed by suggested criteria for real-time monitoring equipment. Recognizing and addressing these challenges will present opportunities for laboratories, research and development organizations, instrument manufacturers, and others.

## Introduction

Beryllium is a metal that occurs naturally in beryl and bertrandite mineral deposits. Beryllium is used in a variety of forms and has application in a number of industries, including aerospace, automotive manufacturing, electronics and defense industries, including nuclear weapons<sup>1</sup>. It is also found in consumer goods such as sports equipment<sup>2</sup>. Beryllium may also be encountered as a trace contaminant in raw materials, such as bauxite ore<sup>3</sup> from which alumina is refined and then

processed in aluminum smelters<sup>4</sup>.

Exposure to beryllium salts and beryllium particles in the form of metal, oxide, or alloy can cause an immune system response known as beryllium sensitization (BeS). Exposure may also lead to development of chronic beryllium disease (CBD), a debilitating and potentially fatal progressive lung disease characterized by lesions known as granulomas. BeS is believed to precede development of CBD<sup>5</sup>. Because CBD can be treated but not cured<sup>2</sup>, exposure monitoring is essential in workplaces where there is potential for beryllium exposure. The need for airborne exposure monitoring was first identified over half a century ago<sup>6,7</sup>. Initially, the intent of airborne monitoring for beryllium was to prevent CBD; however, development of the beryllium lymphocyte proliferation test (BeLPT) in the late 1980s<sup>8</sup> permitted testing for BeS, which prompted renewed interest in exposure monitoring<sup>7</sup>. It is well known that skin exposure to soluble beryllium salts can cause BeS in humans<sup>9</sup>, and recent evidence suggests that skin contact with poorly soluble beryllium oxide particles can cause BeS in mice<sup>10</sup>. Thus, the current prudent approach to worker protection is to assess and minimize both skin and inhalation exposures to beryllium<sup>11</sup>, despite uncertainty with

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† Presented at the Second Symposium on Beryllium Particulates and Their Detection, November 2005, Salt Lake City, UT, USA. This article was prepared by United States Government employees/contractors as part of their official duties and legally may not be copyrighted in the United States of America.

regard to which routes of exposure and what levels of airborne and/or skin exposure may lead to BeS and/or CBD, and uncertainty as to what exposure metric best predicts risk.

In recent years, the use of beryllium in the United States has grown considerably; between 1994 and 1998 there was a 21% increase in beryllium consumption<sup>1,12</sup>. In 1999 the United States Department of Energy (DOE) issued its Beryllium Rule<sup>13</sup>, which introduced a lower action level and increased sampling and analysis requirements at DOE sites, including a requirement for measurement of surface contamination.

The purpose of this paper is to review the history of exposure levels and action limits, and the resulting requirement for greater analytical sensitivity. Current analytical practices will be reviewed, along with an explanation of the need for, and benefits of, harmonization of analytical methods. Additionally, the need for “real-time” measurement capability, especially in field settings, will be discussed. Finally, future analytical challenges will be discussed.

## History of Beryllium Occupational Exposure Limits

Currently, a beryllium inhalation exposure value of 2  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  (eight-hour time-weighted average [TWA]) is used by the American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists (ACGIH®) as a Threshold Limit Value (TLV®)<sup>14,‡</sup> and by the United States Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) as a Permissible Exposure Limit (PEL)<sup>15</sup>. This value is also used as an exposure limit in other countries, including the United Kingdom<sup>16</sup>, Australia<sup>70</sup>, and Ontario, Canada<sup>71</sup>. This limit was originally proposed in 1949 as a result of studies conducted by the United States Atomic Energy Commission (AEC). This limit was empirically derived due to the lack of a clear exposure-response relationship<sup>17</sup>.

ACGIH® originally proposed the AEC level for beryllium as a TLV® in 1957 and adopted it in 1959. In 1986, the TLV® was applied to beryllium and its compounds. In 1999, ACGIH® proposed a reduction of the TLV® to 0.2  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , but this proposal was never adopted. In 2005, ACGIH® proposed to reduce the TLV® to 0.02  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ; this proposal was still pending at the time of this writing<sup>18</sup>. These proposed reductions in the TLV® are based on studies such as those by Kreiss et al.<sup>19-22</sup> and Kelleher et al.<sup>23</sup>, which indicate that the current TLV® is not effective in preventing new cases of CBD. Independently of ACGIH®, OSHA is also responding to published study results and is now considering lowering the PEL as part of its current regulatory agenda<sup>15,24</sup>.

The DOE, also in response to published studies<sup>7,19-22</sup>, published its Beryllium Rule<sup>13</sup>, published in 1999. The Rule established an action level for airborne exposure of one-tenth the current OSHA PEL, or 0.2  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . An empirical action level of 0.2  $\mu\text{g}/100\text{cm}^2$  was established for surface wipes as a criterion for release of equipment to the public or “non-beryllium areas”. In addition, a value of 3  $\mu\text{g}/100\text{cm}^2$  was established as a “housekeeping” action level for surfaces within beryllium work areas.

The actions of ACGIH®, OSHA, and DOE indicate that despite the continuing lack of an exposure-response relationship for CBD, the current trend in professional practice and regulatory efforts is clearly toward lower empirical mass-based limits and action levels. As will be described in the following sections, this trend presents many challenges to current analytical capabilities.

## State of the Analytical Art

### Available Techniques

Analysis techniques commonly used in the United States and United Kingdom for beryllium at trace levels include inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES)<sup>25</sup>, inductively coupled plasma mass spectroscopy (ICP-MS)<sup>26</sup>, and atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS)<sup>27</sup>. Additionally, an atomic fluorescence method has recently been developed<sup>28-30</sup>. Estimates of method detection limits (MDLs) for these techniques are given in Table 1<sup>30,31</sup>. At first glance, the values cited in Table 1 appear to be adequate for current action levels, and even for the recently proposed ACGIH® TLV®. However, it is necessary for the MDL to be well below the applicable exposure limit or action level; a value of ten percent of the applicable exposure limit or action level is a typical goal. This requirement ensures that the analyte concentration can be measured quantitatively at the exposure limit or action level. Given the trend toward lower action levels, current techniques will continue to be challenged to meet increasingly demanding performance expectations.

In selecting one or more techniques to use, laboratories must consider a number of factors, including instrument cost, type(s) of samples analyzed (i.e., air filters or surface wipes or both), physical and chemical forms of beryllium anticipated (as discussed further below), and interferences that may be encountered. For example, ICP-MS is more sensitive than ICP-AES, and is thus a good choice for analysis of air filters, but it is significantly more expensive. However, because ICP-MS may be more affected by sample matrix effects such as those typically encountered with surface wipes, this technique may not be as good a choice for analysis of surface wipes as ICP-AES. On the other hand, ICP-AES is subject to spectral interferences with all three of the primary lines used for beryllium (see Table 2)<sup>32,33</sup>. While there are established techniques for interference correction<sup>34</sup>, high concentrations of interferences can impact analytical sensitivity. For both ICP-AES and ICP-MS, appropriate matrix matching is important.

Because the atomic fluorescence method for trace-level beryllium is a relatively new application, field experience is limited. However, interlaboratory validation results suggest that this technique holds promise because it has comparable sensitivity to ICP-MS<sup>28</sup> and is less subject to interference effects<sup>29</sup>. Other techniques that have been, or are currently, under consideration are discussed under “Alternative Techniques.”

### Sample Preparation

175 Once samples are collected on air filters or surface wipes, the beryllium is brought into solution, by digestion or extraction, prior to instrumental analysis. The ICP-AES, ICP-MS, and AAS methods rely on sample preparation by an acid digestion involving one or more acids in combination with heat. A wide variety of digestion protocols are used<sup>33</sup>, making it difficult to compare analytical results among laboratories even when the same instrument is used. The fluorescence method uses a 1% ammonium bifluoride (aqueous) extraction<sup>28,29</sup>.

185 For sample preparation by acid digestion, the main consideration in selecting a digestion protocol is to ensure that it is sufficiently robust to digest all of the beryllium present in the sample, regardless of the chemical forms or physical characteristics (such as particle size). An additional consideration is selection of the method of heating the sample; accepted means include hot plate, hot block, and microwave digestion. Laboratories that analyze air filter samples, but not surface wipes, may not require an extremely aggressive digestion protocol. The same is true for laboratories whose samples contain exclusively soluble forms of beryllium. For such laboratories, a single acid (nitric acid or sulfuric acid) may suffice for their purposes.

However, there is a particular concern when samples may contain refractory beryllium oxide (BeO). For example, sulfuric acid is generally effective for BeO but is problematic for some sampling media<sup>35</sup>. Some acids, such as hydrofluoric acid and perchloric acid, are effective for a variety of media and for BeO, but may not be desirable due to safety concerns. Particle size distribution also plays a role in the efficacy of digestion protocols<sup>36</sup>. Most DOE sites where this is a concern use a mixture of acids at varying concentrations<sup>33</sup>. There is limited, but not sufficient, data in the literature on the efficacy of various digestion protocols for high-fired BeO<sup>36</sup>, especially with regard to BeO having a range of particle sizes. Extraction by 1% ammonium bifluoride, when heated to ~85°C, has shown quantitative recovery for BeO (particle size unknown) up to 2 µg/sample, but is less consistent at levels in the 10-20 mg range. Recoveries are also reduced when some surface wipes, such as GhostWipes<sup>TM</sup> (Environmental Express, Charleston, SC, USA, www.envexp.com), are used<sup>30</sup>.

The lack of a BeO reference material is an additional complicating issue. Reference materials are required to provide a definitive evaluation of digestion and extraction protocols for their effectiveness with BeO<sup>37</sup>. In the United States, a cooperative effort involving DOE, the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH), and the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) has been initiated to establish one or more BeO reference materials<sup>38</sup>.

### 225 Accreditation and Quality Assurance

Laboratories analyzing beryllium in workplace monitoring samples typically require accreditation and/or demonstration of proficiency. For example, the U. K. Health and Safety Laboratory administers the Workplace Analysis Scheme for Proficiency (WASP) with participation by over 200 laboratories worldwide<sup>72</sup>. The WASP scheme includes several metals but not beryllium specifically. In the United

States, the American Industrial Hygiene Association (AIHA) administers an accreditation program that is used by most industrial hygiene laboratories. AIHA accreditation requirements<sup>39</sup> are based on the requirements of Standard 17025 of the International Organization for Standardization (ISO)<sup>40</sup>. ISO 17025 includes requirements for documentation that appropriate management, technical, and personnel qualification requirements are met. It is also required that accreditation teams ("site assessors") visit participating laboratories periodically.

AIHA also administers a Beryllium Proficiency Analytical Testing (BePAT) program. One issue that has emerged with the BePAT program is that the form of beryllium used in the proficiency samples is beryllium acetate, which is water-soluble and thus easy to digest. Establishing a BeO reference material will allow development of BePAT samples based on BeO rather than beryllium acetate, which would provide a more robust test of digestion protocols.

It is important to note that accreditation, while a necessary and valuable function for assuring the quality of laboratory results, is not a guarantee that different laboratories will always produce the same results on the same samples. For example, in 2002, DOE's Savannah River Site (SRS) sent split samples to two AIHA-accredited laboratories. These laboratories, both of which used ICP-AES, reported different results although both laboratories were using the same analytical method. The discrepancies were found to be due to disparities in spectral interference corrections, which caused one of the laboratories to under-report the beryllium content. Questions also arose about the robustness of the sample preparation. After this, SRS began using hydrofluoric acid as one of the acids in its sample preparation protocol<sup>41</sup>.

It should also be noted that, at the time of this writing, the atomic fluorescence method is not specifically sanctioned by AIHA as an approved "field of testing" for beryllium. To address this gap, some organization wishing to use fluorescence within AIHA accreditation space will need to apply to AIHA to add fluorescence as a "field of testing" for laboratory and/or field applications. Other sites could then include the method, as sanctioned by AIHA, within their standard accreditation process.

### Alternative Techniques

A variety of alternative techniques for sampling and analysis of beryllium have been attempted. Most of these are direct-solid measurement techniques that may provide faster results than fixed-site laboratory-based methods. These techniques also avoid the sample preparation requirements and associated liquid waste generation of more traditional analytical techniques, and could potentially be made field-portable. These techniques include laser induced breakdown spectroscopy (LIBS)<sup>42</sup>, microwave induced plasmas spectroscopy (MIPS)<sup>43,44</sup>, aerosol time of flight mass spectroscopy (TOFMS)<sup>45</sup>, and surface enhanced Raman spectroscopy (SERS)<sup>46</sup>.

Although there is substantial interest in these techniques, none of them has as yet gained wide acceptance for several reasons. First, there are issues with analytical precision at the low levels required by the DOE action limit (and the proposed

ACGIH® TLV®); DOE requires a precision of  $\pm 25\%$  at the 0.2  $\mu\text{g}/\text{sample}$  action level<sup>13</sup>. Second, method development using these techniques has mostly been targeted toward analysis of air filters, and has not considered the requirement of the DOE Beryllium Rule for analysis of surface wipes. Finally, these methods have not yet received the amount of interlaboratory evaluation and field validation that has been performed with the atomic fluorescence method<sup>28</sup> and the traditional laboratory methods (ICP-AES, ICP-MS, AAS). Since the Beryllium Rule has given focus to beryllium sampling and analysis within DOE, many of these efforts have been fostered by DOE national laboratories<sup>33</sup>. Resolution of the issues needed for these methods to gain further acceptance will require a more coordinated and expanded effort, with targeted funding.

## Method Harmonization

Pursuant to publication of the DOE Beryllium Rule<sup>13</sup>, efforts to comply with the Rule, including attempts to compare data from various laboratories, identified a need for greater method standardization<sup>31</sup>. As shown in Tables 3 and 4, published sample preparation and analysis methods for worker protection and/or environmental samples are available from several sources<sup>25-27,47-57</sup>. In the United States, these include the American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM) International, the United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), NIOSH, and OSHA. Internationally, some standard methods are available from ISO, the United Kingdom Health and Safety Executive (HSE), and the French Institut National de Recherche et de Sécurité (INRS).

With regard to sample preparation, there are gaps in the available standard methods (see Table 3). In particular there are United States governmental methods for acid digestion of surface wipes and bulk samples, but no consensus standards are available. Many laboratories have found it necessary to modify the “standard” digestion methods to assure robustness for the samples they encounter<sup>33</sup>. Availability of BeO reference materials would aid in forming an improved basis for standard digestion methods<sup>37</sup>. Additionally, there are standard extraction methods, developed for environmental samples, available from ASTM International and EPA; these could be candidates for consideration in beryllium sample preparation. With regard to sample analysis, available standard methods are summarized in Table 4. Despite the availability of many governmental methods for the various sample types and analysis techniques, there is a lack of consensus standards for analysis of surface wipes and bulk samples.

Within the United States, efforts to address these gaps, as well as those in beryllium sampling methods, have begun under a cooperative effort involving ASTM International, Subcommittee D22.04 on Workplace Atmospheres, and the Beryllium Health and Safety Committee (BHSC)<sup>¶</sup>. The recently-published fluorescence method<sup>52</sup> is an example of this fruitful collaboration. At the time of this writing, efforts were underway to revise ASTM D7035, which is an ICP-AES method<sup>25</sup>, to include ICP-MS for beryllium and other selected analytes. Once a BeO reference material is established,

efforts toward more consistent sample preparation methods can be pursued.

A fertile opportunity exists, but is not yet being addressed, for harmonization of United States and international standard methods. This opportunity extends to related areas that are outside the scope of this paper, such as beryllium sampling methods for both air sampling and surface wiping<sup>31</sup>. For example, consensus is needed on which air fraction should be sampled (i.e., inhalable or respirable), and whether to wipe the inside of the air filter cassette<sup>58</sup>. Cooperation among various international standardization organizations to address these opportunities would be beneficial.

## Need for “Real-Time” Analysis in the Field

Current analytical techniques, with the exception of the fluorescence method, are lagging indicators based on results from stationary laboratories. While most laboratories can analyze “rush” samples within a few hours, it is more typical for laboratories to take at least 24 hours from time of sample receipt, and often longer, to provide analysis results. This length of time results from a combination of sample volume and competition with other analysis requirements. Several sites surveyed by the BHSC in 2004 analyze tens of thousands of samples per year<sup>33</sup>. Typically these laboratories perform a variety of other environmental and/or workplace monitoring analyses that compete for laboratory resources. For DOE sites alone, the sampling and analysis costs are in the millions of United States dollars per year. Analysis costs are particularly high for radiologically contaminated samples, which represent about 19% of the total among sites participating in the 2004 survey<sup>33</sup>. In some cases, waiting for the results causes delays in operations and additional costs. As a result, there is a need for the capability to perform these analyses faster, in or near real time, preferably using a field-portable application. For the sake of simplicity, the term “real-time monitor” is used in the balance of this discussion to refer to field-portable instrumentation that can deliver such results for air filters and/or surface wipes in, or near, real time.

Interest in real-time monitors began crystallizing in the late 1990s as it became evident that the 2  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  PEL was not preventing new cases of CBD, that DOE would soon establish lower action levels, and that substantial savings in analytical and operating costs could be achieved with such equipment. A symposium on Beryllium Particulates and Their Detection was held in February 2002 where a number of candidate techniques were presented<sup>59</sup>. At this symposium, papers were presented on techniques utilizing LIBS, MIPS, TOFMS, voltammetry<sup>60,61</sup> and colorimetric surface wipes<sup>62</sup>. The LIBS, MIPS, and colorimetric techniques are now commercially available<sup>42,44,63</sup>, along with the atomic fluorescence technique developed more recently<sup>28-30</sup>.

In 2002-03, a group of scientists from DOE, NIOSH, and the U. S. Department of Defense (DOD) developed preliminary criteria for real-time air monitoring equipment and surface wipe analyzers<sup>59,64</sup>. These criteria include essential functionalities for beryllium measurement and data reporting, throughput, portability requirements, and validation through technical and field evaluations. To date, most of the

405 technologies previously described meet at least some of these criteria, but none fulfill all of these requirements. Thus, additional research and development work is needed, and better coordination and funding of that effort would help achieve the desired results.

410 A potential limitation of real-time monitoring is that the results could only be used for screening purposes unless the equipment, and the equipment operator, are accredited (e.g., by AIHA<sup>39</sup>). With respect to AIHA accreditation, any real-time monitor would need to be added as a “field of testing” if  
415 the results are intended to be used in the same way that accredited laboratory results would be used. This process may raise some issues since field equipment is typically not operated by laboratory personnel, and field personnel typically are not included in laboratory applications for AIHA  
420 accreditation. However, there is a precedent in the United States for recognizing the use of field instrumentation in accreditation programs (i.e., the Environmental Lead Laboratory Accreditation Program [ELLAP]<sup>39</sup>).

### Future Analytical Challenges

425 Fulfillment of a number of information gaps regarding exposure to beryllium will have an impact on the future analytical science for measuring trace levels of beryllium in the workplace. A protective occupational exposure limit, based on human epidemiology, is needed for measurement of  
430 total beryllium mass to be of maximum benefit. It should be pointed out that compliance with an occupational exposure limit is only one of many uses for sampling and analysis results. Other crucial uses include epidemiological studies, hazard evaluations, characterization of emissions or legacy  
435 contamination areas, and investigation of the efficacy of control measures. The most appropriate metric for prevention of CBD is currently unclear and is an active area of research. For analysis of air samples, potential metrics include total aerosol mass with or without regard to particle size, particle  
440 surface area<sup>65</sup>, particle number<sup>66</sup>, bioavailable beryllium based on particle physicochemical properties<sup>67</sup>, or some combination thereof.

As noted previously, current occupational exposure limits are based on total beryllium aerosol mass, independent of  
445 chemical form. Additional studies are needed to confirm this understanding, and to identify whether some chemical forms of beryllium pose a greater risk of BeS and CBD than others. Clarification of the relative risk associated with exposure to the various chemical forms of beryllium will impact future  
450 analytical science. At present, it is generally accepted that exposure to beryllium metal, alloys, and BeO causes BeS and/or CBD, whereas exposure to naturally-occurring forms such as beryl and bertrandite has not yet been associated with adverse health effects<sup>68</sup>. Thus, future analytical needs may  
455 include development of analytical protocols capable of differentiating among beryllium species. One possibility is a sequential digestion scheme such as that described by Profumo et al.<sup>69</sup>.

### Conclusions

460 While considerable progress has been made in trace-level beryllium analysis, particularly in the last ten years, much more remains to be done to meet the needs of the industrial hygiene community. Specifically, we need to be sure we are measuring the correct exposure metric(s), and at the  
465 appropriate action levels. We need to continue pursuit of a BeO reference material as a means to validate sample preparation methods and improve proficiency testing programs. We need to more aggressively pursue harmonization of methods, both within the United States and  
470 internationally, to assure comparability of data. Finally, we need coordinated development of field-portable beryllium measuring equipment so that more of the analyses can be shifted from fixed-site laboratories to the field, thereby speeding decision-making and reducing costs.

### Acknowledgements

The authors gratefully acknowledge the assistance of members of the BHSC Sampling and Analysis Subcommittee, which has coordinated much of this work. We also acknowledge the efforts of Tom Oatts, Mark Hoover, Gregory  
480 Turk, and Robert Watters toward establishing BeO reference materials. The support of Steven Jahn and Marion Hook at Savannah River Site is acknowledged. Finally, the reviewers of the draft manuscript, including Martin Harper, Mark Millson and Gene Kennedy of NIOSH, and the referees, are  
485 gratefully acknowledged.

### Disclaimers

Mention of commercial products in this review does not imply endorsement by the authors, their companies, or any agency of the United States government.

490 The findings and conclusions in this paper have not been formally disseminated by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health and should not be construed to represent any agency determination or policy.

### Notes and references

495 ‡ ACGIH® publishes a “Statement of Position Regarding the TLVs® and BEIs®” available at <http://www.acgih.org>. This statement indicates that TLVs® are health-based values that represent ACGIH’s® scientific opinion of a value below which nearly all workers may be repeatedly exposed without adverse health effects. Regulatory bodies should  
500 consider these values as input into the risk characterization process, but should also analyze additional factors before adopting a TLV® as a regulatory standard.

§ Beryllium silicates and aluminosilicates typically require a more robust digestion than does beryllium oxide; however, these forms are not  
505 typically encountered by industrial hygiene laboratories.

¶ The Beryllium Health and Safety Committee (BHSC) is an ad hoc group consisting of members from DOE sites, other U.S. government agencies such as NIOSH, OSHA, and the Department of Defense, and from the U.K. Atomic Weapons Establishment (AWE). Information on  
510 the BHSC may be obtained at <http://www.sandia.gov/BHSC>.

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## TABLES

**Table 1** Method Detection Limit (MDL) for Beryllium Analytical Techniques<sup>a</sup>

Instrumentation	Estimated MDL (µg per sample)	Method	References
ICP-AES	0.009	ASTM D7035	31
ICP-MS	0.001	EPA 200.8	31
Graphite Furnace AAS	0.005	NIOSH 7102	31
Atomic Fluorescence	<0.002	ASTM D7202	30

<sup>a</sup> Values provided are examples of achievable MDLs as cited in the references. MDLs are specific to the measurement system involved, including instrumentation, sample matrix effects, and sample preparation.

**Table 2** Reported Interferences on Primary Emission Lines for Beryllium<sup>a</sup>

Beryllium Emission Line (nm)	Interfering Elements
313.042	V, Ti
313.107	Al, Cu, Fe Mn, Mo, Nb, Ni, Ti, V
234.861	Fe, Ti

<sup>a</sup>Based on Reference 21 (Winge et al) and survey data from Reference 22 (Brisson et al)

**Table 3** Available Standard Methods for Preparation of Beryllium Workplace Monitoring Samples

Sample Type	Sample Preparation Type	Available Sample Preparation Methods	References
Air filter	Acid Digestion	NIOSH 7102, NIOSH 7300, NIOSH 7303, OSHA ID-125G, OSHA ID-206, HSE 29/2 (UK), INRS Fiche 003(France), ASTM D7035, ISO 15202-2	25,27,47-51, 53
Air filter	Extraction <sup>a</sup>	ASTM D7202	52
Surface wipe	Acid Digestion	OSHA ID-125G, OSHA ID-206, NIOSH 9102	48,53a
Surface wipe	Extraction <sup>a</sup>	ASTM D7202	52
Bulk	Acid Digestion	OSHA ID-125G, OSHA ID-206	48

<sup>a</sup>Extraction method (1% ammonium bifluoride) is specific for use with the atomic fluorescence method in ASTM D7202.

**Table 4** Available Standard Methods for Analysis of Beryllium Workplace Monitoring Samples

Sample Type(s)	Analytical Technique	Available Analysis Methods	References
Air Filter	Graphite Furnace AAS	NIOSH 7102, HSE 29/2 (UK)	27,49
Air Filter	ICP-AES	ASTM D7035, ISO 15203-3, NIOSH 7300, NIOSH 7303, EPA 6010B, EPA 200.7, OSHA ID-125G, OSHA ID-206	25,47-48,51,53-55
Surface Wipe	ICP-AES	EPA 6010B, EPA 200.7, OSHA ID-125G, OSHA ID-206, NIOSH 9102	48,53a,54-55
Air Filter and Surface Wipe	ICP-MS	EPA 6020, EPA 200.8	26,56
Air Filter and Surface Wipe	Fluorescence	ASTM D7202	52
Bulk	ICP-AES	OSHA ID-125G, OSHA ID-206	48