



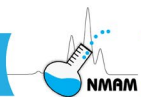
NIOSH Manual of Analytical Methods (NMAM), 5th Edition

Application of Biological Monitoring Methods for Chemical Exposures in Occupational Health

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This chapter is a revision and expansion of Chapter F: Application of Biological Monitoring Methods published in the 4th edition of the NIOSH Manual of Analytical Methods (NMAM) [NIOSH 1998]. Additional information has been incorporated and terminology has been updated to reflect the most current practice. A lengthy section on biomonitoring analytical method validation has been added.

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1 Introduction

Exposure assessment is a critical part of occupational health studies and risk mitigation activities. Biomonitoring can be an essential tool to determine exposures and/or health effects resulting from those exposures. According to a National Research Council (NRC) report [NRC 2006], biomonitoring can provide an efficient means to measure exposures and, when used with other information derived from toxicological, epidemiologic or modeling studies, can estimate the absorption into the body (dose), the influence of an exposure to an individual, and the potential health risks. Large population studies that incorporate biomonitoring efforts can identify chemicals found in the environment (including the occupational environment) and monitor the trends and distribution of exposures in the general population [CDC 2021, 2022].

Environmental measurements involving various media (such as air, water, soil, food, or surfaces) can detect the presence of hazards and sometimes predict individual exposure; for example, air monitoring predicts effects when the lung is the target organ. However, to evaluate biological, physical, or chemical agents that have been absorbed into the body, the magnitude of the absorbed dose and its contribution to total body burden, the measurement of biomarkers (biomonitoring) is required. Exposures for which biomarkers can be useful include the full range of occupational hazards from noise to stress to chemicals. While this document generally focuses on chemical exposures, considerations pertaining to purpose (objectives), study design criteria, quality assurance, ethics, and safety have general application. The guidance provided in this document is particularly relevant to urine and blood biomonitoring and is generally relevant to other biomonitoring matrices and assays in which response or susceptibility factors such as genetic markers or gene variants are measured. This document generally focuses on the utility of biomonitoring as a research tool. Only a few examples that are cited in this chapter are relevant to occupational health practice.

2 Applications of biomonitoring

Biomonitoring has many benefits. Adapted from Decker et al. [2013], biomonitoring benefits can include the following:

- Measure actual body burden
- Augment other exposure monitoring tools
- Capture all exposure routes, including dermal
- Detect unexpected exposures or routes of exposure
- Evaluate the effectiveness of control measures, including personal protective equipment (PPE)
- Provide biomarkers of potential health risks
- Use to reconstruct exposures following acute or accidental events if appropriate biomarkers are available

- Enhance individual or group risk assessments
- Provide valuable information for risk communication

Biomonitoring can enhance exposure assessment and provide information about health outcomes, depending upon the selected biomarker(s).

3 Categories of biomarkers

The National Academy of Sciences has defined biomarkers as measurable indicators in a biological system or organism. Examples include the presence of a chemical or its metabolite within biological specimens, measured alterations in structure or function, or identifiable genetic variations (Figure 1) [NRC 1987]. Biomarkers can be classified into three categories: exposure, effect or response, and susceptibility (Table 1) [NRC 1987]. While these categories can overlap, generally biomarkers of exposure provide a measure of body burden of a chemical or its metabolite. Susceptibility biomarkers estimate the impact that individual factors can have on exposure, uptake metabolism, and/or repair.

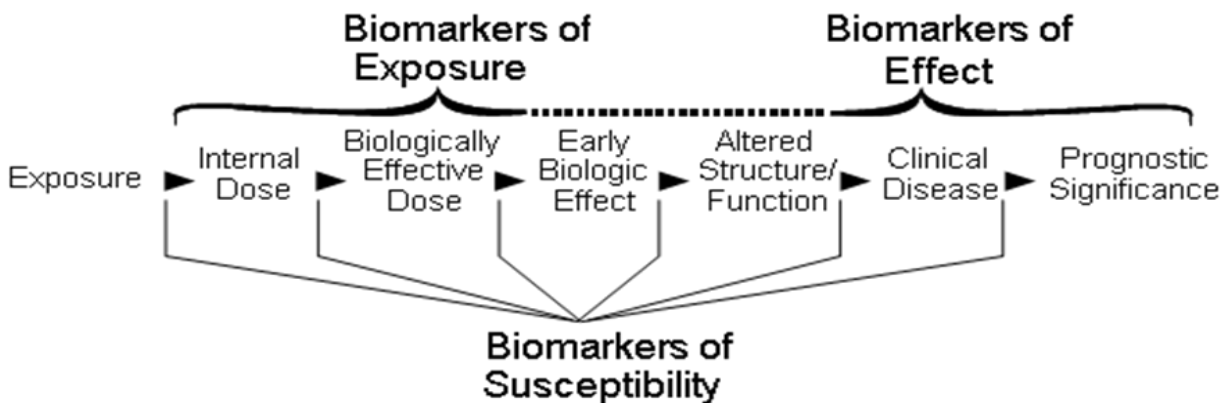


Figure 1 Continuum from exposure to disease. [Adapted from NRC 1987 and Schulte and Perera 1993]

Table 1. The three types of biomarkers

Type of Biomarker	Characteristics	Example
Exposure	Measurement that reflects absorption of a chemical into the body	Urine or blood concentration of chemical or metabolite
Effect	Biochemical, physiological, or other alteration that can be measured, which may or may not indicate a health impairment [WHO 2001]	DNA mutation or cytogenetic change
Susceptibility	Inherent or acquired sensitivities or resistance in response to specific exposures	Genetic polymorphisms in metabolic activation/deactivation enzymes

[Adapted from DeBord et al. 2015]

a. Biomarkers of exposure

Occupational exposure occurs mainly by inhalation or through the skin [NIOSH 1998] and less often by ingestion. The route of exposure may affect the internal dose and the biologically effective dose, which is the dose that interacts with the target organ or tissue. Biomarker measurements aggregate exposure across all pathways and all agents. While this aggregation is often advantageous, biomarker measurements cannot be used by themselves to determine the route(s) of exposure and in certain cases, the specific exposure agent. Examples of biomarkers of exposure include blood lead [Sexton et al. 2004], urinary cadmium [Menke et al. 2009], and serum dioxin [Manh et al. 2014]. Biomarkers of exposure indicate that an individual or population has been exposed and absorbed an agent into the body. Exposure biomarkers may or may not reflect future disease or health risk. Exposure concentration, exposure duration, route of exposure, pharmacokinetics of the chemical as it affects the distribution, metabolism and elimination, timing of sample collection, physiological variations in hydration status, and urinary flow can influence biomarker levels [Aylward et al. 2012; Aylward et al. 2014]. Individual characteristics such as gene variants, exertion, and co-exposures can also modify biomarker levels through the modification of absorption or metabolism.

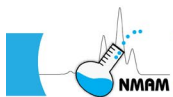


b. Biomarkers of effect

Biomarkers of effect (also known as biomarkers of response) measure effects or responses in the body to an exposure. These changes may be early precursors of disease, specific clinical changes or markers for preclinical effects, or not be related to any specific health outcome. Biomarkers of effect may result in a measurable change in a pathway, macromolecule (DNA, RNA, protein), or other biomolecules. These changes may be reversible or permanent. An example of a biomarker of effect is the decreased levels of the enzyme acetylcholinesterase (AChE) in red blood cells (RBCs) of persons exposed to organophosphate (OP) pesticides [Richards et al. 1978]. Biomonitoring results of blood AChE levels can be used to determine (or confirm) exposure and to assess potential health risks and treatment needs [Richards et al. 1978]. A continuum exists across the biomarker spectrum. At low levels, a biomarker may indicate an exposure or an effect. However, as the exposure continues or increases, the biomarker level also increases, leading to a response or action level that needs intervention before health is permanently impacted. While biomarkers of exposure tend to be specific for a particular chemical or agent, biomarkers of effect are less specific and may show the effect of exposure to multiple chemicals or agents. For example, measuring blood AChE levels provides evidence of exposure to OP pesticides, but does not identify the specific pesticide responsible for the decrease in AChE. Similarly, carboxyhemoglobin levels increase after exposure to both carbon monoxide and methylene chloride, which is metabolized to carbon monoxide [Andersen et al. 1991].

c. Biomarkers of susceptibility

Biomarkers of susceptibility indicate whether an individual may be at increased or decreased risk for developing a disease after an exposure has occurred. Susceptibility biomarkers may also identify individuals whose body burden may be increased or decreased relative to other individuals because of differences in absorption, metabolism, or other biological processes. Biomarkers of susceptibility could include other exposures from the environment, current health status, or genetic traits, such as the activity of metabolizing enzymes. For example, the activity of CYP2E1, a cytochrome P450 metabolic enzyme, can modify benzene toxicity [McHale et al. 2012], and exposure to ethanol reduces methyl ethyl ketone metabolism [Liira et al. 1990].



validation. This involves analysis of five replicates at three concentration levels. The recovery should be reproducible (better than 20% as measured by CV or RSD) for each of the concentration levels.

9) Robustness/ruggedness

Robustness or ruggedness is a measure of the susceptibility of a method to small changes that might occur during routine analysis. Validation of a method need not necessarily include ruggedness testing, but it can be very helpful during the method development phase. Problems that may occur during validation are often detected in initial ruggedness testing. Warnings can be included in the methodology about parameters that must be tightly controlled to achieve the desired levels of precision and accuracy.

While not every parameter of every type of method can be listed here, it is important for the analyst to consider every step of the method and strive to include ruggedness testing in each step. Some typical examples of variations include pH (of samples, mobile phases, extraction solvents), mobile phase composition, and columns (GC, LC, and extraction columns/cartridges with different lots or suppliers). Other sources can include variations in temperature (room, oven, column, processing, thawing, autosampler, etc.), flow rate (both in extraction and analysis), and various volumes and times used during the entire bioanalytical method.

10) Limit of detection and limit of quantification

The limit of detection (LOD), also referred to as the method detection limit (MDL), is the lowest concentration of an analyte that the bioanalytical procedure can reliably differentiate from background noise [FDA 2018]. The LOD should not be used for quantitative measurement but may be useful for semi-quantitative or qualitative determinations [Tiwari and Tiwari 2010]. Several literature methods for determining the LOD can be utilized [Bader et al. 2012; NIOSH 1995]. In brief, one method involves the analysis of five or more low-level standards (prepared in the appropriate matrix) that range from less than the expected LOD to no greater than 10 times the expected LOD. These standard responses are plotted and the regression equation and standard error (s_y) are calculated. The LOD is then $3 s_y/\text{slope}$. Alternatively, analyze at least 10 standards near the anticipated LOD and calculate the standard deviation [ASTM 2020b]. The LOD (MDL) is reported as 3 times the standard deviation of the blank signal (correcting for background). The lower limit of quantitation (LLOQ) is concomitantly taken as 10 times the standard deviation of the blanks.



The LLOQ is the lowest concentration of analyte in a sample that can be quantified reliably with acceptable accuracy and precision. Calibration standards should include the lower and upper limits of quantitation (L/U LOQ) as values should not be extrapolated beyond the range of the calibration curve. The accuracy and precision criteria at each end of the curve have been found to be acceptable within the defined criteria. In addition, the analyte signal of the LLOQ should be at least 10 times $sy/slope$ (or $3.33 \times LOD$).

The LOD, LLOQ, and ULOQ should be reported in the validation report. These should also be reported when samples are analyzed. When reporting biomonitoring results, report results below the LOD as “not detected (ND),” and report results between the LOD and LLOQ numerically and enclose in parentheses to denote the greater imprecision of these results. It is also common to use one less significant figure when reporting results in this area.

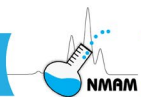
11) Acceptance criteria for an analytical run

An analytical run consists of the following components:

- A matrix blank (a processed matrix sample without analyte and without internal standard)
- A zero sample (a processed matrix sample with internal standard)
- A minimum of six nonzero calibration levels
- A minimum of three levels of quality control (QC) samples in duplicate or a minimum of 5% of the total number of unknown samples, whichever is higher. Add QC samples in multiples of two when additional samples are needed
- Field/study/unknown samples

All samples should be processed as a single batch. Calibration standards and QC samples should be spiked independently using separately prepared stock solutions. A single batch is comprised of samples handled at the same time, by the same analyst, under homogeneous conditions.

The standard curve samples, blanks, QCs, and unknowns can be arranged as considered appropriate within the run and to support detection of drift or carryover over the course of the run. Acceptance criteria should be pre-established in the protocol, in the study plan, or in a standard operating procedure. In cases where a whole run consists of more than one batch, acceptance criteria should be applied to the whole run and to the individual batches.

**12) Accuracy acceptance criteria for QC samples [EMA 2011; FDA 2018]**

The accuracy values of the QC samples should be within $\pm 15\%$ for the upper concentration (50%–100% ULOQ) and within $\pm 20\%$ for the lower concentration (100%–200% LLOQ). At least 67% of the QC samples should be within these limits for a run to be accepted. Furthermore, at least 50% of the QC samples at each concentration should comply with this criterion.

In the case where the criteria are not fulfilled, the analytical run should be rejected. The samples can be re-extracted and analyzed, corrective action can be taken on the instrumentation, or other cause(s) of the failure investigated, analyzed, and corrected. In the case of the simultaneous determination of several analytes, there will be a calibration curve for each analyte in the method. If an analytical run is acceptable for one analyte but is rejected for another analyte, the data for the accepted analyte can be used.

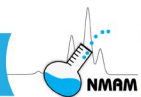
13) Accuracy acceptance criteria for calibration standards [EMA 2011; FDA 2018]

The back-calculated concentrations of the calibration standards should be within $\pm 15\%$ of the nominal value, except for the LLOQ, which should be within $\pm 20\%$. A minimum of 75% of the calibration standards should be within these limits for the analytical run to qualify. If one of the calibration standards does not meet these criteria, the standard should be discarded, provided the calibration model does not change, and the calibration curve without this standard should be re-evaluated and regression analysis performed.

If the discarded calibration standard is the LLOQ or the ULOQ, then the next calibration standard becomes the LLOQ or ULOQ, and the calibration range is narrower for that run. The revised calibration range should cover all concentrations of QC samples.

8 Conclusions

This chapter describes biomonitoring as a valuable tool for conducting research and public health surveillance, evaluating intervention effectiveness, and improving risk assessments. A major aim of biomarker research is to develop and validate biomarkers that reflect specific exposures or are quantitatively linked to adverse outcomes in humans to enable their use in risk prediction. The NRC identified several strategies to use biomarkers of effect to extrapolate dose and to evaluate dose response [NRC 2007]. Biomonitoring can be used not only to identify exposures but also to evaluate exposure trends over time. While several international agencies have developed biological exposure levels for some chemicals, OSHA has only mandated three tests for occupational compliance.



Some general considerations for biomonitoring research have been noted, such as the goals of biomonitoring for the study or program being initiated. The biological matrices of interest, whether blood, urine, exhaled breath, or some other specimen, will have an integral role in the selection of the biomarker most pertinent for the study. If the goal is to understand whether exposure occurred or not, it may be possible to measure the chemical or its metabolite in exhaled breath or urine. If the goal is to determine a health risk, then measurement of a biomarker of effect may be more appropriate.

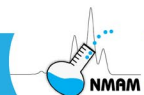
Appropriate study design and statistical analyses in occupational research studies will aid in ensuring that studies of biomarkers have scientific rigor and will minimize uncertainty. Written standard operating procedures and a quality assurance program will help improve data quality and provide interpretable results. Adherence to field and laboratory safety procedures are imperative to protect staff from exposure to bloodborne pathogens. Ethical considerations should be at the forefront of any biomonitoring investigation.

Biomarkers need to be validated in the laboratory and for the population for which they will be used. The steps for laboratory validation of the analytical methods are covered in this chapter. Equally important is the population validation of biomonitoring methods, which is not in the scope of this chapter [Schulte and DeBord 2000]. Population validation determines the utility of the method in various population groups. It entails understanding interpersonal variability according to demographic and behavioral characteristics, determining the underlying prevalence of the marker, and identifying the optimal handling and logistical considerations [Schulte and DeBord 2000; Schulte and Perera 1997].

The potential of biomonitoring in occupational health is tempered by limitations in study design, interpretation of results, communication of results, and ethical issues. The ability of advances in existing and emerging technologies to develop new biomarker methods exceeds our practical ability to evaluate and validate all of them. The real challenges for occupational health professionals are to decide which measurement methods may be of value to understand what information biomarker measurements are providing, and, finally, to determine appropriate actions based on that information.

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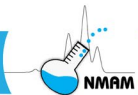
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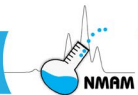
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