

Inter-laboratory validation of bioaccessibility testing for metals

The Faculty of Oregon State University has made this article openly available.
Please share how this access benefits you. Your story matters.

Citation	Henderson, R. G., Verougstraete, V., Anderson, K., Arbildua, J. J., Brock, T. O., Brouwers, T., ... & Oller, A. R. (2014). Inter-laboratory validation of bioaccessibility testing for metals. <i>Regulatory Toxicology and Pharmacology</i> , 70(1), 170-181. doi:10.1016/j.yrtph.2014.06.021
DOI	10.1016/j.yrtph.2014.06.021
Publisher	Elsevier
Version	Accepted Manuscript
Terms of Use	http://cdss.library.oregonstate.edu/sa-termsfuse

Interlaboratory Validation of Bioaccessibility Testing for Metals

Henderson, Rayetta^{*a}, Verougstraete, Violaine^b; Anderson, Kim^c; Arbildua, José J.^d; Brock, Thomas O.^e; Brouwers, Tony^f; Cappellini, Danielle^g; Delbeke, Katrien^h; Herting, Gunillaⁱ; Hixon, Greg^a; Odnevall Wallinder, Ingerⁱ; Rodriguez, Patricio H.^d; Van Assche, Frank^j; Wilrich, Peter^k; Oller, Adriana R.^l

*Corresponding author

^aToxStrategies, Inc.
9650 Strickland Rd., Suite 103-195
Raleigh, NC 27615, USA
Phone: 919-797-9938
Email: rhenderson@toxstrategies.com and ghixon@toxstrategies.com

^bEurometaux
Avenue de Broqueville 12
1150 Brussels, Belgium
Email: verougstraete@eurometaux.be

^cOregon State University
Corvallis, OR 97331, USA
Email: kim.anderson@oregonstate.edu

^dCECM, Adolfo Ibañez University
Adolfo Ibañez University
Diagonal Las Torres 2640
Peñalolen, Santiago, Chile
Email: Patricio.rodriquez@uai.cl and jose.arbildua@uai.cl

^eDuke University
2200 West Main Street, Suite 400
Durham, NC 27705, USA
Email: thomas.brock@duke.edu

^fECTX bvba
Havenstraat 46/0.01, B-3500
Hasselt, Belgium
Email: tony.brouwers@ectx.be

^gKirby Memorial Health Center
71 North Franklin Street
Wilkes-Barre, PA 18701, USA
Email: dcappellini@epix.net

^hEuropean Copper Institute
168 Avenue de Tervueren
1150 Brussels, Belgium
Email: katrien.delbeke@copperalliance.eu

ⁱKTH Royal Institute of Technology
Drottning Kristinas väg 51, -~~80~~44 Stockholm, Sweden
Email: ingero@kth.se and herting@kth.se

^jInternational Zinc Association
International Zinc Association
Avenue de Tervueren 168/Box 4
B-1150, Belgium
E-mail: fvanassche@zinc.org

^kFreie Universität Berlin
Promenadenstr. 16 A
D-12207 Berlin, Germany
E-mail: wilrich@wiwiss.fu-berlin.de

^lNickel Producers Environmental Research Association, Inc.
2525 Meridian Parkway, Suite 240
Durham, NC 27713, USA
Email: aoller@nipera.org

Abstract (199 words)

Bioelution assays are fast, simple alternatives to *in vivo* testing. In this study, the intra- and inter-laboratory variability in bioaccessibility data generated by bioelution tests were evaluated in synthetic fluids relevant to oral, inhalation, and dermal exposure. Using one defined protocol, five laboratories measured metal release from cobalt oxide, cobalt powder, copper concentrate, Inconel alloy, leaded brass alloy, and nickel sulfate hexahydrate. Standard deviations of repeatability (s_r) and reproducibility (s_R) were used to evaluate the intra- and inter-laboratory variability, respectively. Examination of the $s_R:s_r$ ratios demonstrated that, while gastric and lysosomal fluids had reasonably good reproducibility, other fluids did not show as good concordance between laboratories. Relative standard deviation (RSD) analysis showed more favorable reproducibility outcomes for some data sets; overall results varied more between- than within-laboratories. RSD analysis of s_r showed good within-laboratory variability for all conditions except some metals in interstitial fluid. In general, these findings indicate that absolute bioaccessibility results in some biological fluids may vary between different laboratories. However, for most applications, measures of relative bioaccessibility are needed, diminishing the requirement for high inter-laboratory reproducibility in absolute metal releases. The inter-laboratory exercise suggests that the degrees of freedom within the protocol need to be addressed.

Keywords: metals; alloys; UVCB; classification; bioavailability; bioaccessibility; read-across; inter-laboratory validation

Abbreviations:

CEN	European Committee for Standardization
CLP	Classification, Labelling And Packaging of Substances and Mixtures Regulation
RBA	Relative Bioavailability
ECHA	European Chemicals Agency
RBALP	Relative Bioaccessibility Leaching Procedure
REACH	Registration, Evaluation, and Authorization of Chemicals
RSD	Relative Standard Deviation
s_r	repeatability standard deviation
s_R	reproducibility standard deviation
UBM	Unified BARGE Method

1 **1. Introduction (7100 Text words)**

2

3 As the demand for understanding the potential hazard and risk of chemicals to human
4 health continues to grow, the data required for elucidating these concerns continues to
5 expand as well. Meeting the new and evolving demands of regulatory programs such as
6 the Registration, Evaluation, and Authorization of Chemicals (REACH) Regulation in
7 Europe (EU) (Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006, 2006) necessitates the generation of new
8 and scientifically robust data on chemical substances, including metals. The *in vivo*
9 testing that would be required to fill these needs is often cost-prohibitive and time-
10 consuming, and also raises concerns with regards to animal welfare due to the extent of
11 testing potentially required. As such, alternative approaches such as read-across
12 (extrapolation of known data from one substance to another substance) based on structure
13 activity relationships or bioavailability are often encouraged to perform hazard and risk
14 assessment while reducing animal testing (ECHA, 2008; 2013). For most routes of
15 exposure and health endpoints, it is indeed the bioavailability of the metal at the target
16 site in an organism that is the most important factor determining its potential toxicity.
17 Bioaccessibility, referring in this context to the amount of metals released from a given
18 material in fluids designed to mimic those of the human body and may become available
19 for uptake (e.g., synthetic gastric fluid to simulate oral exposure) (Ruby et al., 1999;
20 Henderson et al., 2012), provides a conservative estimate of bioavailability.
21 Bioaccessibility is measured in *in vitro* bioelution assays, whose application to hazard
22 and risk assessment has been increasingly used as an alternative to *in vivo* testing in
23 recent years. Bioaccessibility is a conservative concept because not all metals available

24 will be absorbed or induce damage (effects will depend on dose and metal speciation).
25 Such data are particularly informative, as the presence of a metal does not always impart
26 its biological properties on a given material, for example when the release of the metals
27 and their absorption may be limited due to surface and material properties (e.g., for
28 alloys).

29

30 The comparison of bioaccessibility data for two or more forms of the same metal (e.g., a
31 pure metal and an alloy with the same metal constituent) enables an estimate of their
32 relative *in vivo* bioavailability. This type of information can be used in a variety of ways
33 for metals assessment, including: as a tool in determining hazard classification (e.g.,
34 using relative bioavailability to determine classification or justifying a derogation
35 because of a lack of bioavailability; ECHA, 2013), to aid in establishing categories of
36 metal substances (grouping; ECHA, 2008), as part of the weight of evidence approach
37 applied in performing read-across (e.g., Henderson et al., 2012); and for risk assessments
38 for exposure to metals required by some consumer product safety regulations (Brock and
39 Stopford, 2003). In addition, relative bioaccessibility can be used to estimate the
40 effective concentration (defined as the fraction of released metals in biological fluids
41 compared with its matrix concentration) of a metal in a complex material where matrix
42 effects may occur (e.g., alloys) and enable read-across between these materials
43 (Stockmann-Juvala et al., 2013; Hedberg et al, 2013).

44

45 The bioaccessibility concept is already incorporated in some standard bioelution test
46 methods and regulatory frameworks, such as the European standard for release of nickel

47 in artificial sweat (BS EN 1811, 2011), ASTM D5517 (2007) for metals in art materials,
48 and EN 71-3 (2013) that specifies safety requirements for metals in toys. Bioaccessibility
49 has been listed as a possible approach for complying with information requirements of
50 REACH as part of the chapter on grouping of chemicals (ECHA, 2008).

51

52 Method development for – and utilization of – bioelution testing by independent and
53 government research groups have increased in recent years. The bioaccessibility
54 approach to estimate metal bioavailability has been applied in recent years to human
55 exposures to metals and minerals in soils, consumer products, and to the evaluation of
56 metal substances (Hillwalker and Anderson, 2014; Henderson et al., 2012; Stopford et al.,
57 2003; Herting et al., 2008; Hedberg et al., 2010; Mazinanian et al., 2013; Oller et al.,
58 2009; Hamel et al., 1998; Vasiluk et al., 2011; Drexler and Brattin, 2007; Wragg et al.,
59 2011; Ellickson et al., 2001; Turner, 2011; Gray et al., 2010; and Twining et al., 2005;
60 Hedberg et al., 2013; Hedberg and Odnevall Wallinder, 2013; Jiang et al., 2012; Hedberg
61 et al., 2012). In addition, some groups have developed research programs to perform
62 inter-laboratory validation of bioelution methods for specific systems and metals. For
63 example, Drexler and Brattin (2007) reported the outcome of a validation exercise for a
64 method to estimate *in vivo* bioavailability of lead (Pb) from soils. Additionally, a
65 separate group also performed a round-robin study for a different physiologically-based
66 method for estimating the bioaccessibility of Pb, as well as cadmium (Cd) and As, from
67 soils (Wragg et al., 2011). Cordeiro and co-workers (2012) reported the results of an
68 inter-laboratory comparison of 8 metals in comminuted flakes from alkyd resin paints
69 simulating a toy coating using EN 71-3 (1994).

70

71 Although some groups have sought to standardize specific methods (Drexler and Brattin,
72 2007; Wragg et al., 2011; Ashley et al., 2012; Cordeiro et al., 2012), generally
73 standardized fluid compositions and testing protocols for the basic bioelution method are
74 lacking. In addition, there are no reference standards to ensure the accuracy of these
75 bioaccessibility results and existing studies have demonstrated that sample characteristics
76 and methodological differences (e.g., temperature, pH, sample loading) can affect the
77 amount of metals released (Stopford et al., 2003; Midander et al., 2006; Hedberg et al.,
78 2013).

79

80 The aim of the current study, therefore, was to perform a cross-laboratory testing of
81 different metal-containing materials in select simulated biological fluids that are relevant
82 to characterizing key routes of human exposure, using a defined protocol. To do so, five
83 laboratories measured the release of metals from six different metals and metal-
84 containing materials in synthetic gastric, lysosomal/interstitial, and perspiration fluids
85 (representing oral, inhalation, and dermal routes of exposure, respectively). The results
86 of these bioelution analyses were evaluated by characterizing within-laboratory
87 repeatability and between-laboratory reproducibility measures.

88

89

90 **2. Materials and Methods**

91

92 *2.1 General study design*

93

94 The five laboratories participating in the inter-laboratory validation study were Center of
95 Ecotoxicology and Chemistry of Metals, Universidad Adolfo Ibañez (Santiago, Chile),
96 ECTX-Consult (Hasselt, Belgium) with analytical work conducted at Labtium Oy
97 (Finland), Kirby Memorial Health Center (Wilkes-Barre, PA, USA), Oregon State
98 University (Corvallis, Oregon, USA) and KTH Royal Institute of Technology
99 (Stockholm, Sweden). Each laboratory was assigned an identification code of A-E in no
100 specific order and is referred to by its respective coding throughout this manuscript. All
101 labs performed bioaccessibility testing in the following four simulated biological fluids:
102 gastric, lysosomal, interstitial, and perspiration. Labs were asked to follow a Standard
103 Operating Procedure (SOP; dated November 2010) provided and discussed prior to study
104 initiation. In brief, test materials were added to simulated fluids and extracted for a set
105 period of time under standard conditions (e.g., pH, temperature). Following a filtration
106 step, extracts were analyzed and the amount of metals released into solution was
107 reported. Laboratories measured the release of seven different metals (Cr, Co, Cu, Fe,
108 Ni, Pb and Zn) depending on the composition of the test materials.

109

110 *2.2 Test Materials*

111

112 The six materials tested are listed in Table 1 with their respective chemical formula, CAS
113 number, metal content, mean particle size, surface area, and supplier. The materials were
114 Co oxide, Co powder, Cu concentrate, Inconel alloy, leaded brass alloy, and Ni sulfate
115 hexahydrate. All test materials were powders with a median particle size <60 µm in

116 diameter representing a size range relevant for oral and dermal exposures, and compliant
117 with requirements of ASTM D5517 (2007) and BS EN 1811 (2011). However, although
118 the SOP required particles sized $<10\ \mu\text{m}$ for testing in interstitial and lysosomal fluids,
119 which is considered to be representative of the respirable fraction, only three samples met
120 this criterion. As Ni sulfate hexahydrate is hygroscopic, the salt agglomerated to a mean
121 particle size of $12.4\ \mu\text{m}$. However, its particle size is not relevant as it is readily soluble
122 in aqueous solutions. The copper concentrate was ground during the concentration
123 process and the smallest attainable particles were sent to the labs for testing (mean
124 diameter of $59.2\ \mu\text{m}$). As lead in the leaded brass alloy sample has lubricating
125 properties, additional milling would have likely smeared the particles together.
126 Therefore, a sieve was used to separate the smallest fraction for testing with a mean
127 particle size of $56.2\ \mu\text{m}$. Laboratories were supplied with 100g of each test material from
128 the same original batch and samples were tested as received without further grinding or
129 other manipulation to alter particle size.

130

131 *2.3 Laboratory Equipment*

132

133 In general, laboratories used similar equipment and any major deviations are listed in the
134 Supplemental Online Material. All chemicals used to prepare the test fluids were of
135 analytical grade reagent quality or better unless otherwise stated. Test vessels were inert,
136 chemical resistant, covered Erlenmeyer flasks of 250 mL. All glassware was cleaned by
137 acid soaking for 24h (10% HNO_3) then rinsed four times in ultrapure water
138 ($18.2\ \text{M}\Omega\text{cm}$) and dried (by air or oven). A thermostated linear shaker ($37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, 150

139 rpm; stroke length=1 inch) or a thermostated orbital shaker ($37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, 171 rpm stroke
140 length=1 inch) was used for agitation. Controlled thermometers with a readability of
141 0.1°C and calibrated pH meters with a readability of 0.01 units were utilized. A
142 calibrated micro balance with a readability of 0.01 mg or 0.001 mg was used. For
143 filtration, $0.2 \mu\text{m}$ membrane filters. (e.g., Whatman UNIFLO syringe filters, Pall
144 Acrodisc syringe filters or equivalent filter system), latex- and oil-free syringes, and
145 polypropylene tubes were used.

146

147 *2.4 Bioaccessibility Assays*

148

149 All fluids and experimental set ups were prepared by each individual laboratory. The
150 compositions and general testing conditions of each of the simulated fluids, including pH,
151 temperature, loading, and extraction duration, are described in Table 2. The use of
152 synthetic gastric fluid (pH 1.5) to represent oral exposure has been used extensively,
153 starting with the Comité Européen de Normalisation standard, Safety of Toys (BS EN 71-
154 3, 2013), which has been adopted in the United States as ASTM D5517 (2007; Standard
155 Method for Determining the Solubility of Metals in Art Materials). Interstitial and
156 lysosomal fluids are used as surrogates for inhalation. Interstitial fluid (pH 7.4),
157 comprised primarily of Gamble solution, represents fluid deep within the lung and has
158 been used for many years to evaluate a range of materials. In this study, 5% CO_2 in air
159 was used to keep the interstitial fluid test solutions at $\text{pH } 7.4 \pm 0.2$. The approach used by
160 each laboratory to maintain this pH varied and is described in the Supplemental Online
161 Material. Simulated lysosomal fluid, which mimics intracellular conditions with a pH of

162 4.5 similar to that found in lysosomes of alveolar macrophages, was also used (de
163 Meringo et al., 1994; Stopford et al., 2003). Finally, synthetic perspiration (pH 6.5) was
164 used to represent release from test materials on the skin and was prepared according to
165 BS EN 1811 (2011).

166

167 Ultrapure water was added to the fluid compositions listed in Table 2 up to a final volume
168 of 1 L. Temperature and pH were measured at the start of each test and fluids were
169 adjusted with HCl or NaOH as necessary to achieve the desired pH. Temperature and pH
170 were also measured in the remaining blank control for each test solution after sampling.

171 All bioaccessibility tests were conducted at 37°C except for tests in synthetic perspiration
172 where a temperature of 30°C was used (BS EN 1811, 2011). Sample loadings were 0.2
173 and 2.0 g/L for gastric and all other fluids, respectively (Midander et al., 2006;
174 Henderson et al., 2012; Stopford et al., 2003; Turner, 2011).

175

176 Extractions in gastric fluid were conducted for 2 h based on an average half time for
177 gastric emptying of 17.7 min and complete emptying of 91 min in human volunteers
178 (Tomlin et al., 1993; Wang et al., 2001). In addition, this duration has been shown to be
179 correlated with acute oral toxicity of nickel compounds in a recent study by Henderson et
180 al. (2012). All other extractions were carried out for 24 h or 168 h to be representative of
181 longer-term exposures. All extractions were prepared and analyzed in triplicate.

182

183 Filtered extracts from blank controls and test vessels were analyzed for metal
184 concentrations using ICP-OES, ICP-MS, or AAS (flame or graphite furnace, depending

185 on concentration) as noted in the Supplemental Online Material. Bioaccessibility
186 measurements underwent a Quality Assurance (QA) check and were reported as released
187 μg metal /g sample.

188

189 *2.5 Quality Assurance*

190

191 Each laboratory generated a comprehensive report, which underwent a QA exercise. A
192 detailed review and comparison between the SOP and the 5 laboratory reports was
193 performed. As part of this review, individual exchanges were held with the labs to
194 address information gaps and confirm data when necessary. Some differences in
195 methodology between labs were noted. As a result of this exercise, some datasets were
196 excluded from statistical analysis.

197

198 *2.6 Statistical approach*

199

200 Amounts of released metals that were not reported by the laboratories or were below the
201 respective limit of detection were excluded from any analysis. In addition, any fluid/time
202 point/ lab dataset with 2 or more labs reporting results $<\text{LOD}$ were excluded from the
203 inter-laboratory validation.

204

205 The statistical analysis of the measurement results was based on ISO 5725-2 (1994).
206 According to this method, measurement results obtained in an inter-laboratory study are
207 inspected for consistency by plotting Mandel's h and k statistics and for outliers by

208 application of the Grubbs tests and the Cochran test. A laboratory mean or a within-
209 laboratory standard deviation was marked as a straggler if the outlier test result was
210 significant at the 5% level, and marked as an outlier if the outlier test result was
211 significant at the 1% significance level. Following ISO 5725-2 recommendations,
212 outliers were discarded and stragglers retained unless no other explanations for the
213 outlying observations were found.

214

215 Repeatability standard deviation (s_r ; within-lab) and reproducibility standard deviation
216 (s_R ; between-labs) were used as measurements of precision. The ratio of the repeatability
217 standard deviation and the reproducibility standard deviation ($s_R:s_r$) of the log-
218 concentration was determined and used as an indicator of the (dis)agreement between the
219 mean results of the laboratories. Ratios up to 3 were considered to represent good
220 agreement, ratios between 3 and 6 to represent fair agreement, and >6 were considered to
221 mean that agreement between the laboratories needed to be improved.

222

223 Relative standard deviation (RSD) was used to assess the fluctuations in the data relative
224 to the data mean. Expressed in percentage terms, the formula for RSD is: (sd/mean log
225 concentration)*100. RSD values and associated thresholds represent an attempt to define
226 absolute levels of acceptable sample-to-sample result variability (repeatability, r) and lab-
227 to-lab result variability (reproducibility, R). Standards for RSD have been developed in
228 the literature in an attempt to define absolute levels of acceptable variability in sample-to-
229 sample measurements. Criteria for the analysis were based on Wragg et al. (2011) and
230 Ashley et al. (2012) who suggest that the RSD for reproducibility should be less than

231 20%, and Wragg et al. who further suggest that RSD for repeatability should be less than
232 10%.

233

234

235 **3. Results**

236

237 The five laboratories performed bioaccessibility testing on the same six distinct metal-
238 containing materials in four simulated biological fluids. A total of 70 datasets were
239 generated: seven time points with up to ten metal/test substance extractions each.

240 However, some datasets were excluded from analyses as described in Section 3.1.

241

242 *3.1 Data Exclusion*

243

244 *3.1.1 Quality Control of Protocol Implementation*

245

246 Differences in protocol implementation between labs identified as part of the quality
247 assurance exercise (see Section 2.5) are summarized in detail in the Supplemental Online
248 Material. The outcome of this exercise led to exclusion of several fluid/time point/lab
249 datasets from statistical analyses when the identified deviations from the SOP had
250 potential to impact the experimental procedures, as discussed below.

251

- 252 • For synthetic perspiration, both datasets (24 and 168 h) for Lab D were excluded
253 from analyses of perspiration data as it reported using a different temperature

254 during extraction (37°C instead of 30°C).

255

256 • Four of the five labs demonstrated lower Pb values for the 168 h time point in
257 perspiration compared to 24 h. The reported lower values could be due to Pb ion
258 complexation and subsequent precipitation. Indeed two labs reported seeing
259 precipitation with a naked eye. This phenomenon is likely to be associated
260 with pH changes. Labs A and E reported a drift in pH up to 7.7-7.9 after 168 h (no
261 information on pH was provided by Lab D; Lab B reported pH around
262 6.5). While these effects are related to the underlying chemistry of metal ion
263 dominated by complexation with fluid constituents and subsequent precipitation
264 effects, they introduce a greater source of variability to the assays. The results
265 from multiple labs suggest that this combination of fluid composition, time point,
266 and loading is less suitable to assess the repeatability and reproducibility of bio-
267 elution tests for Pb. Thus Pb from leaded brass alloy at 168 h was not included in
268 this evaluation.

269

270 • Lab E reported significant evaporation in many of the test vessels containing
271 interstitial fluid at both time points, with some data points not reported at all due
272 to 100% evaporation. Therefore, Lab E data was not included in analyses of
273 interstitial fluid.

274

275 • Release of Ni from Ni compound in interstitial fluid at 168 h was less than that at
276 24 h for Labs B, C, and D; while Lab E only had one triplicate reported due to

277 evaporation (data already excluded). Labs A and B reported observations of
278 precipitation with Ni compounds in this fluid at this time point and Lab B
279 reported a pH shift upwards of ~1 unit in some cases. While related to the
280 underlying chemistry of metal ion interactions (as described above for Pb) in this
281 particular fluid, these effects introduce a greater source of variability to the
282 assays. The results from multiple labs suggest that this combination of fluid
283 composition, time point, and loading is not suitable to assess the repeatability and
284 reproducibility of bio-elution tests for Ni from Ni compound, therefore data from
285 168 h were not included in this evaluation.

286

287 3.1.2 *Limitations imposed by limits of detection*

288

289 The LODs varied depending upon the metal, fluid, loading and analytical methodology
290 used (e.g., AAS-flame or AAS-GF) and are provided in the Supplemental Online
291 Material. Since one of the goals of this study was to determine reproducibility of
292 measurements between labs, the variable LODs precluded the possibility of using the
293 measurements that were below the LOD (only the case for the Inconel alloy), either by
294 substituting them with the LOD or replacing them by a fraction of the LOD. Therefore,
295 all measurements <LOD were noted as such and excluded from any statistical analyses.

296

297 Datasets with 2 or more labs reporting results <LOD and therefore excluded from the
298 inter-laboratory validation were only an issue for the release of Fe and Cr from the
299 Inconel alloy; Cr in gastric fluid; Cr and Fe in 24 h perspiration; Fe in 168 h perspiration;

300 Cr and Fe in 24 and 168 h interstitial fluid; and Cr in 24 h lysosomal fluid.

301

302 *3.1.3 Precision measures and outliers*

303

304 As illustrated in Table 3, there were a total of 11 outliers identified among all treatments,
305 with at least one outlier present within each treatment except the 168 h extraction of
306 interstitial fluid. Per ISO 5725-2 recommendations, all outliers were discarded from the
307 database prior to subsequent analyses. Retained datasets (number of labs and number of
308 measurements) are summarized in Table 4.

309

310 **3.2 Results from Statistical Analyses**

311

312 *3.2.1 Repeatability and reproducibility results*

313

314 For the retained test substances and treatment fluid conditions, the means and measures
315 of repeatability (s_r) and reproducibility (s_R) of the logarithms of the measurements were
316 calculated and presented under each treatment fluid condition in Table 4. General
317 observations based on intra-laboratory and inter-laboratory measurement variability for
318 each treatment conditions are presented below according to their respective s_r and s_R
319 calculations.

320

321 3.2.1.1 Gastric 2 h

322

323 Laboratory data for bioaccessibility after 2 h in synthetic gastric fluid were available for
324 all but the Cr from Inconel alloy (Table 4). In this treatment condition, Ni from Ni
325 compound measurements were the least variable within and across labs, with Pb from
326 leaded brass alloy and Co from Co compound also demonstrating relatively low
327 variability for both measures. Iron from the Inconel alloy, a dataset with the fewest
328 bioaccessibility measures for the gastric fluid treatment, demonstrated some of the
329 highest variability for both measures.

330

331 3.2.1.2 Perspiration – 24 h

332

333 For the bioaccessibility dataset after 24 h in synthetic perspiration fluid, data were
334 retained for all but the Cr and Fe from the Inconel alloy (Table 4). Under these
335 conditions, both Ni-containing test substances and the Cu from Cu concentrate
336 demonstrated a combination of low variability for both the repeatability and
337 reproducibility measures. On the other hand, both Co-containing test substances
338 demonstrated some of the highest variability for both measures under these conditions.

339

340 3.2.1.3 Perspiration – 168 h

341

342 For the extended 168 h exposure to perspiration fluid, the bioaccessibility data were
343 retained for all but the Fe from Inconel alloy and Pb from leaded brass alloy (Table 4).
344 Again, Ni from Ni compound demonstrated relatively little variability within and
345 between labs, along with Zn from leaded brass and Cu from Cu concentrate. Similar to

346 the 24 h perspiration treatment, Co from Co powder had a relatively high variability for
347 both measures.

348

349 3.2.1.4 Lysosomal – 24 h

350

351 With the exception of Cr from the Inconel alloy, bioaccessibility measurement data were
352 retained for all metal/test substance analyses in lysosomal fluid for 24 h (Table 4). The
353 measurement variability within and between labs was relatively low for both Ni-
354 containing test substances, Pb from leaded brass alloy, and the Co from Co compound. In
355 contrast, Co from Co powder and Cu from leaded brass alloy had relatively large s_r and
356 s_R values.

357

358 3.2.1.5 Lysosomal – 168 h

359

360 Bioaccessibility measurement data were retained for all metal/test substance analyses
361 conducted over the extended 168 h period in lysosomal fluid (Table 4). Under these
362 conditions, the variability in measurements both within and between labs was relatively
363 low for Ni from Ni compound, Cr from Inconel alloy, and Co from Co powder. On the
364 other hand, Fe from the Inconel alloy and Cu from Cu concentrate measurements
365 demonstrated relatively high variability for both measures under these conditions.

366

367 3.2.1.6 Interstitial – 24 h

368

369 For the bioaccessibility dataset after 24 h in interstitial fluids, data that passed QA check
370 and outlier evaluations were available for all but the Cr and Fe measurements from the
371 Inconel alloy (Table 4). In general, the dataset for this treatment condition was the most
372 variable as it relates to both repeatability and reproducibility. Only Ni from Ni compound
373 had relatively low variability for both parameters, whereas the three metals measured
374 from the leaded brass alloy sample (Cu, Pb, and Zn) demonstrated some of the highest
375 variability in the overall dataset.

376

377 3.2.1.7 Interstitial – 168 h

378

379 For the extended 168 h exposure to interstitial fluid, the bioaccessibility data were not
380 retained for four of the 10 metal/test substance analyses, including Cr and Fe
381 measurements from Inconel alloy, as well as Pb from leaded brass alloy and Ni from Ni
382 compound (Table 4). The measurement variability within and between labs was relatively
383 low for Ni from Inconel alloy and the Co from Co powder. In contrast, Zn from leaded
384 brass alloy had relatively large s_r and s_R values.

385

386 3.3 $s_R:s_r$ ratio results

387

388 As demonstrated in Table 4, the average repeatability standard deviation (s_r) of the log-
389 concentration among all treatment conditions varied slightly (between 0.014 and 0.083),
390 with the exception of interstitial fluid at the 24 h extraction time period. These findings
391 demonstrate good within-lab agreement. However, the between-lab agreement relative to

392 the within-lab agreement was not as satisfactory. This can be illustrated for many of the
393 treatment condition datasets by calculating the ratio of the reproducibility standard
394 deviation (s_R) and the repeatability standard deviation (s_r) of the log-concentration, which
395 was used as an indicator of the agreement/disagreement between the mean results of the
396 laboratories (Table 5). Even after exclusion of measurements obtained outside the SOP
397 (Section 3.1.1) or datasets with more than 2 values below the LOD (Section 3.1.2), the
398 reproducibility standard deviations of log-concentrations for perspiration fluid (24 h and
399 168 h extraction time) and lysosomal fluid (168 h extraction time) remain very large as
400 compared with the repeatability standard deviations. This is reflected in the high $s_R:s_r$
401 ratios in several of the metals measurements for these treatment conditions. Based on the
402 criteria used to interpret the $s_R:s_r$ ratio the perspiration treatment conditions were poorly
403 reproduced between labs. This is especially true at 24 h for Co from Co compound (24.0)
404 and Co powder (12.7), and all three metals (Cu, Pb, and Zn) measured from leaded brass
405 alloy (19.9, 6.6, and 19.0, respectively). There was fair agreement in variability between
406 repeatability and reproducibility measurements under the gastric and long-term lysosomal
407 treatments (average $s_R:s_r$ for all 10 metal/test substance analyses equal to 3.4 and 5.3,
408 respectively), while the average $s_R:s_r$ ratios for interstitial fluids (24 h and 168 h) and the
409 short-term lysosomal treatment indicated good agreement in variability within and
410 between labs (average $s_R:s_r$ for all 10 metal/test substance analyses equal to 2.2, 2.3, and
411 2.5, respectively).

412

413 From the perspective of the metal/test substance analyses, both Ni-containing substances,
414 the three metals from the leaded brass sample (Cu, Zn, Pb), and Cu from Cu concentrate

415 all displayed fair inter-laboratory agreement (relative to intra-laboratory agreement)
416 across treatment conditions. The remaining metal/test substance (Fe, Cr) analyses
417 showed poor agreement between repeatability and reproducibility, indicating that the
418 agreement between the laboratories needs to be improved.

419

420 *3.4 RSD results*

421

422 Relative standard deviation (RSD) analysis of the log concentration is another way to
423 consider intra- and inter-laboratory measurement variability. This approach examines s_r
424 and s_R measures individually, assessing the fluctuations in the data relative to the log
425 mean. In our study there were only five instances where the standard for repeatability
426 (e.g., 10%) was exceeded (all with metals from the leaded brass sample treated with
427 lysosomal or interstitial fluids) out of a potential 70 treatment+metal/test substance
428 analyses combinations. Figure 1 demonstrates that with the exception of interstitial, all
429 other fluids have fairly low within-lab variability for the time point shown (<4%). This
430 suggests that measurements were satisfactory based on within-lab variability for all
431 treatment conditions (Table 6).

432

433 According to the RSD analysis, the inter-laboratory variability appears to be unacceptable
434 (e.g., >20%) in the interstitial fluid treatment (24 h) for Pb and Zn from the leaded brass
435 alloy, and Ni from the Inconel alloy. Additionally, the RSD analysis indicates very large
436 reproducibility RSD values for Co from Co compound (perspiration, 24 h), Cr from
437 Inconel alloy (perspiration, 168 h), Cu in leaded brass alloy (lysosomal, 24 h), and Zn in

438 leaded brass alloy (interstitial, 24). Figure 2 demonstrates the variability observed
439 between laboratories.

440

441

442 **4. Discussion**

443

444 Bioelution methods have been used extensively as an alternative to *in vivo* testing for
445 evaluation of metals and metal-containing materials over the last 15 years. Existing
446 publications include those evaluating the bioaccessibility of various metals (Co, Ni, Cr,
447 Pb, Zn, Cu, Cd, arsenic, beryllium, manganese, tin, and uranium) from metal compounds,
448 alloys, soils, household dust, welding fumes, and mine waste in various synthetic fluids
449 (Stopford et al., 2003; Stefaniak et al., 2014; Hillwalker and Anderson, 2014; Oller et al.,
450 2009; Hamel et al., 1998; Vasiluk et al., 2011; Drexler and Brattin, 2007; Wragg et al.,
451 2011; Ellickson et al., 2001; Turner, 2011; Gray et al., 2010; and Twining et al., 2005;
452 Mazinianian et al., 2013; Hedberg et al., 2013). A series of studies published by the KTH
453 laboratory, primarily reported on the bioaccessibility of Fe, Cr, and Ni from various
454 alloys and metals (Herting et al., 2008; Hedberg et al., 2010; Mazinianian et al., 2013;
455 Midander et al., 2010; Hedberg and Odnevall Wallinder, 2013; Hedberg et al., 2013;
456 Jiang et al., 2012; Hedberg et al., 2011; Stockmann-Juvala et al., 2013).

457

458 In recent years, various metals associations have also used bioaccessibility methods to
459 meet regulatory requirements imposed under REACH. Prior to REACH, precedents for
460 the use of bioaccessibility in regulatory frameworks already existed. For example, the

461 European standard for release of nickel in artificial perspiration (BS EN 1811, 2011) has
462 also been incorporated into Europe's Classification, Labelling And Packaging of
463 Substances and Mixtures Regulation (CLP); this regulation stipulates that Ni-containing
464 alloys be classified according to the amount of nickel released using this method (EC,
465 2008). Another example is the restriction of 19 metals in consumer articles that can be
466 mouthed by children based on the use of EN71.3 (EC, 2013). In the United States, the
467 soluble (bioaccessible) cadmium in surface coatings of children's jewelry is also
468 restricted (US CPSC, 2008; ASTM, F963).

469

470 As evidenced by the number of recent publications on this topic, a variety of fluid
471 compositions and protocols for performing bioaccessibility testing exist. While these are
472 generally similar in nature, it was important in this inter-laboratory study to establish one
473 SOP that could be followed by each of the participating laboratories. The methods and
474 simulated fluids were selected based on their relevance to oral, inhalation and dermal
475 exposure; those previously published by Stopford et al. (2003) served as the basis of
476 developing the SOP.

477

478 With regards to gastric fluid, the protocol of ASTM D5517 (2007) was employed for the
479 estimation of metal solubility in the stomach. Synthetic gastric fluid extractions such as
480 this one have been compared with the *in vivo* solubility of lead silicates in the stomach of
481 rats (Ruby et al., 1999) and more recently with the acute oral toxicity in rats exposed to
482 nickel compounds (Henderson et al., 2012). While additional compartments such as
483 saliva and intestinal fluids can be informative in assessing the bioavailability of some

484 metals, these fluids were not included in the present validation program. The ASTM
485 D5517 (2007) protocol was also followed for extractions with simulated interstitial and
486 lysosomal fluids; with the interstitial fluid closely matching Gamble's solution. The
487 interstitial fluid represents lung fluid and uses citrate in place of proteins while acetate is
488 used to represent organic acids. The interstitial fluid has been used to compare the
489 pulmonary durability of inhaled man-made fibers (Ziotos et al., 1997; Leheude et al.,
490 1997). The solubility of substances that have been phagocytized and subsequently
491 released into the intracellular environment has been estimated using lysosomal fluid (de
492 Meringo et al., 1994; Theolahn et al., 1994). This fluid includes glycine, a variety of salts
493 of organic acids, and citric acid. Citric acid and other organic acids in lysosomal fluid are
494 known to form complexes with metals, resulting in increased release of metals (Hedberg
495 et al., 2010; Hedberg et al., 2011; Hillwalker and Anderson, 2014). Finally, the synthetic
496 perspiration fluid cited in standard EN 1811 (2011) and approved by the European
497 Committee for Standardization (CEN) in 1998 was used here to simulate the release of
498 soluble metal onto skin. Other compositions for artificial perspiration have also been
499 tested (e.g., Stefaniak et al., 2014). Hillwalker and Anderson (2014) compared the
500 bioaccessibility results from a variety of alloys (Stainless steels AISI 304 and 316,
501 Inconel, Monel) in fluids with slightly different compositions and concluded that Ni and
502 Cr absolute releases from alloys are especially sensitive to fluid composition and
503 extraction time.

504

505 In the current study, analyses of repeatability measures using two different approaches
506 ($s_{R:S_f}$ ratios and RSD) show that the within-laboratory variability was generally

507 satisfactory for all treatment conditions with the exception of some metals in interstitial
508 fluid (Tables 5 and 6). However, variability between laboratories was found to exceed
509 accepted criteria, the extent of which depended on whether the $s_R:s_F$ ratios or the RSD
510 approaches were used. Using the ratio of $s_R:s_F$, the inter-laboratory concordance for
511 synthetic perspiration was found to be poor overall (ratios >6 ; see Table 5). Testing in
512 gastric and 168h lysosomal fluids resulted in fair agreement between labs (ratios = 3-6),
513 while testing in interstitial and 24h lysosomal fluids resulted in good agreement in
514 variability within labs (ratios <3). Similarly, while RSD analysis showed better
515 agreement between laboratories overall, higher inter-laboratory than within-laboratory
516 variability was observed.

517

518 A study aimed at evaluating analytical procedures among labs was conducted prior to
519 initiating the present round robin bioaccessibility study. Samples of interstitial fluid
520 spiked with known metal concentrations (blank, Co, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Zn) were provided
521 (in blind fashion) to each of the laboratories to determine the analytical concentrations.
522 After eliminating outliers, the statistical analysis resulted in an $s_R:s_F$ ratio of about 6,
523 indicating a lack of harmonization among laboratories (data not shown). As a result of
524 this analytical exercise, several recommendations for improving reproducibility were
525 subsequently implemented in the SOP utilized in the bioaccessibility inter-laboratory
526 exercise.

527

528 Still, careful comparison of each of the laboratory reports for the round robin revealed
529 that the SOP might not have been precise enough for some parameters (e.g., buffering

530 method). A systematic comparison between the SOP and the reports from the 5 labs also
531 identified a number of methodological differences. For interstitial fluid, the method of
532 CO₂ buffering varied widely among all 5 labs including equipment, location (headspace,
533 fluid, or chamber), and moisturizing gas, etc. Although this is a potential major source of
534 variation, and even though all labs performed this step differently, no clear association
535 between the results for this fluid and any specific lab was identified. Another difference
536 observed between labs was the incidence of evaporation in some fluids. Lab E reported
537 evaporation at 24h in interstitial fluid while Labs A, B, C, and E reported evaporation
538 over time and difficulty measuring/maintaining pH in this fluid. Also in interstitial fluid,
539 Lab A noted precipitation with Ni compound and Pb from leaded brass alloy and Lab B
540 reported precipitation with Ni compound. This precipitation may have been due in part
541 to the evaporation taking place in the vessels. Control of pH, particularly in the
542 lysosomal fluid, also presented challenges. This issue was also noted in the Unified
543 BARGE Method (UBM) study, which concluded that tighter control of pH was critical in
544 gastric fluid (Wragg et al., 2011). Finally, when measurements approach the limit of
545 determination (e.g., <25 µg/g; but even <100 µg/g), the reproducibility outcomes
546 worsened.

547

548 Several lessons can be learned from this exercise. The SOP used in this study had too
549 many degrees of freedom as written, and as such, additional details should be
550 incorporated into future drafts. Substances that are being compared (e.g., Cu metal and
551 Cu alloy) should always be tested side-by-side or at least in the same lab. The choice of
552 particle loading is crucial to minimize effects such as agglomeration and abrasion

553 (Hedberg et al., 2010; Henderson et al., 2012; Stopford et al., 2003; Turner, 2011). On
554 the other hand, it is possible that higher sample loadings could overcome the variability
555 associated with low metal releases close to the LOD. In all cases, realistic conditions
556 need to be considered. It might also be useful to measure metal releases over time (e.g.,
557 $\mu\text{g/g/h}$) that can better define the kinetics of metal release (Herting et al., 2008; Hedberg
558 et al., 2010; Hillwalker and Anderson, 2014; Stefaniak et al., 2014; Hedberg et al., 2013).

559

560 Limiting longer exposure times when complicating factors such as CO_2 buffering are
561 introduced may reduce inter-laboratory variability. For example, metal complexation and
562 precipitation and difficulties in maintaining the pH may provide an explanation for the
563 change in repeatability observed between 24 and 168 hours in some fluids. In particular,
564 this is an example of why longer time points (168h) may be pushing the limitations of
565 experimental methods where pH, precipitation, changes in volume, buffering, etc. can all
566 introduce variation. Improvements to the SOP are clearly needed to obtain better within
567 and between laboratory agreements. Recommendations for refining the SOP include
568 better defining pH control measures, CO_2 buffering technique, and agitation methods, and
569 ways to minimize evaporation. This is especially true for the interstitial fluid, which
570 stands out as a fluid that requires the most improvement.

571

572 It is useful to compare the results of the current study to those of similar inter-laboratory
573 validation studies of specific bioelution methods. In the study of Drexler and Brattin
574 (2007) an *in vitro* relative bioaccessibility leaching procedure (RBALP) designed to
575 mimic oral Pb exposure conditions was performed by three laboratories on 19 different

576 test materials. The results of each lab were subsequently compared to *in vivo* relative
577 bioavailability (RBA) measures. The authors reported that the intra- and inter-laboratory
578 *in vitro* results were “highly reproducible” with a coefficient of variation (e.g., RSD)
579 equal to 6% and 4%, respectively, and concluded that the RBALP method could reliably
580 estimate Pb RBA *in vivo*. Another round-robin study looked at a different
581 physiologically-based method for estimating the bioaccessibility of Pb, as well as Cd and
582 As, from soils (Wragg et al., 2011). The UBM method, which includes synthetic saliva,
583 gastric and intestinal fluids, was used to assess metal release from As, Cd, and Pb
584 samples. Measurements from seven laboratories were compared to *in vivo* RBA data and
585 the overall outcomes were evaluated based on a set of four benchmark criteria. Results of
586 the UBM method were reported to have met the inter-laboratory criteria for As (RSD =
587 7.43% for stomach phase and 15.72% for stomach + intestine phase). However,
588 compliances for the stomach phase only for Pb (RSD = 22.78%) and stomach plus
589 intestine phases for Cd and Pb (RSD = 35.35% and 81.39%, respectively) were above the
590 benchmark criteria (ie, RSD \leq 20%). The authors suggested that tighter control of gastric
591 pH may be helpful and noted that a follow up inter-laboratory study would be needed.

592

593 Using the same RSD criteria the results of the current study appear to be in line with
594 those of Wragg and colleagues (2011), with the possible exception of interstitial fluid at
595 24h (Table 6). In the context of some other studies of similar characteristics it is possible
596 that the criteria used here (RSD \leq 10% and \leq 20% for intra- and inter-laboratory
597 variability, respectively) may be too stringent. An RSD of 30% or even 40% may be a
598 more realistic cut-off for determining acceptable variation between laboratories. For

599 example, in one study using a saliva migration test for organic plasticizers, where 15 labs
600 performed validation of the SOP, an RSD of 30% was found to be the best obtainable
601 reproducibility (EUR 19826 EN, 2001). Similarly, in a study to validate a method for
602 environmental assessment of metals, Skeaff et al. (2011) reported that the inter-laboratory
603 variability ranged according to analysis by CV% (similar to % RSD). In this study, 12/37
604 measurements had CV% values between 25-56% and 10/37 had values $\geq 57\%$. If an RSD
605 of 30% or 40% had been used as the standard for the current study, all between
606 laboratory reproducibility would have been deemed acceptable for all metals and
607 treatment conditions, with the exception of Cr from Inconel alloy in 168h perspiration
608 fluid and Zn from leaded brass alloy in 24h interstitial fluid.

609

610 The above discussion applies exclusively to estimates of absolute metal release.
611 However, for most applications, only measures of relative metal release from two or
612 more forms of the same metal are needed, diminishing the requirement for high inter-
613 laboratory reproducibility in absolute metal releases. The high within-laboratory
614 repeatability supports the use of these methods for the assessment of relative metal
615 release and calculation of effective concentration of metals in complex materials where a
616 matrix effects can be present.

617

618 In the current exercise we included two alloy samples (Inconel and leaded brass alloys)
619 but we did not include the pure metal components of these alloys (e.g., Cr, Fe, Ni in case
620 of Inconel) as reference materials. Thus effective concentrations of metals in these alloys
621 cannot be calculated based on the data from the present round robin. However, two

622 laboratories that participated in this study previously tested the same sample of a Ni metal
623 powder in lysosomal fluid (Mazinanian et al., 2013; KMHC, 2010). Based on the Ni
624 releases from Ni metal and Inconel alloy in 24h lysosomal fluid, the effective
625 concentration of Ni in Inconel alloy can be calculated as 0.05 and 0.2%, for Mazinanian
626 et al. (2013) and KMHC (2010), respectively (calculations not shown). Using different Ni
627 metal and Inconel samples, an effective concentration of Ni in Inconel of 0.4% was
628 calculated, based on bioaccessibility data in lysosomal fluid at 72 hours reported by
629 Hillwalker and Anderson (2014). In summary, three different laboratories calculated
630 similar effective concentrations of Ni metal in Inconel alloy (relevant to the inhalation
631 route of exposure) even when using different alloys and nickel metal samples and with
632 slightly different absolute releases. The effective concentration of Ni in a SS316 alloy
633 has been recently shown to be a better predictor of *in vivo* inhalation toxicity than its
634 content (Stockmann-Juvala et al., 2013).

635

636 In general, this approach could be applied for the classification of alloys based on
637 classifications of their constituent metals. The relative bioaccessibility in gastric,
638 perspiration and lysosomal fluids could allow the calculation of effective concentration of
639 classified metals in alloys and permit more toxicologically relevant classifications when
640 effective concentrations are compared to classification cut-off limits for mixtures. A
641 similar approach could be applied to other complex materials, such as ores and
642 concentrates, where matrix effects are suspected.

643

644

645 **5. Conclusion**

646

647 In conclusion, the outcome of this inter-laboratory validation exercise for bioelution
648 testing of metals demonstrates overall satisfactory within-laboratory variability in
649 bioaccessibility data for synthetic gastric fluid, lysosomal fluid, interstitial fluid, and
650 perspiration for all treatment conditions. With regards to between laboratory agreement,
651 a higher inter-laboratory than within-laboratory variability in bioaccessibility results was
652 observed for most metals and treatment conditions suggesting that, for the methods
653 tested, the absolute bioaccessibility results in some biological fluids may not always be in
654 line among different laboratories. There are a number of potential sources of variation
655 that may have contributed to this outcome. The most reproducible results were typically
656 observed with shorter extraction times. The inter-laboratory exercise suggests that the
657 degrees of freedom within the SOP need to be addressed to achieve better concordance in
658 absolute metal releases. However, for hazard and risk assessment applications, the use of
659 these methods to generate relative release data for read-across purposes or to calculate
660 effective concentration of metals in alloys and other complex materials appears to be
661 acceptable.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the following individuals for their help with data analysis and/or manuscript preparation: Dr. Wendy Hillwalker (OSU) and Dr. Jon Urban (ToxStrategies).

The project was supported by the following: the Nickel Producers Environmental Research Association, Inc. (Durham, NC, USA), the Cobalt Development Institute (Guildford, Surrey UK), the International Zinc Association (Brussels, Belgium), the European Copper Institute (Brussels, Belgium), Eurometaux (Brussels, Belgium) and the Food Safety and Environmental Stewardship Program at OSU.

References (1430 words)

ASTM (American Society for Testing and Materials), 2007. Standard test method for determining extractability of metals from art materials. In: ASTM, Annual Book of ASTM Standards, vol. 06. 02, D5517–03. ASTM, Philadelphia.

ASTM (American Society for Testing and Materials), 2011. Standard Consumer Safety Specification for Toy Safety. In: ASTM, Annual Book of ASTM Standards, vol. 15. 11, F963-11. ASTM, Philadelphia.

Ashley, K, Shulman, S.A., Brissonb, M.J., Howe, A.M., 2012. Interlaboratory evaluation of trace element determination in workplace air filter samples by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry. *J. Environ. Monit.* 14(2), 360-367.

Brock, T., and Stopford, W., 2003. Bioaccessibility of metals in human health risk assessment. Evaluation of risk from exposure to cobalt compounds. *J Env. Monit.* 5, 71N-76N.

BS (British Standard) EN 1811, 2011. Reference test method for release of nickel from all post assemblies which are inserted into pierced parts of the human body and articles intended to come into direct and prolonged contact with the skin.

BS (British Standard) EN 71-3, 2013. Safety of toys. Migration of certain elements

Cordeiro, F., Baer, I., Robouch, P., Emteborg, H., Got, J.C., Kortsen, B., de la Calle, B., 2012. IMEP-34: Heavy metals in toys according to EN 71-3:1994; Interlaboratory Comparison Report. JRC Scientific and Policy Reports. EUR 25380 EN.

de Meringo, A., Morscheidt, C., Thélohan, S., Tiesler, H., 1994. *In vitro* assessment of biodurability: Acellular systems. *Environ. Health Perspectives.* 102 Suppl 5, 47-53.

Drexler, J.W., Brattin, W.J., 2007. An in vitro procedure for estimation of lead relative bioavailability: with validation. *Hum. Ecol. Risk Assess.* 13, 383–401.

EC (European Council), 2006. Regulation (EC) No. 1907/2006 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 December 2006 Concerning the Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and Restriction of Chemicals (REACH). Official Journal of the European Union L396: L136/133-L136/280.

EC (European Commission), 2008. Regulation (EC) No. 1272/2008 on Classification, Labelling and Packaging (CLP) of Substances and Mixtures.

EC (European Commission), 2013. Toy Safety Directive 2009/48/EC.

ECHA (European Chemicals Agency), 2008. Guidance on Information Requirements and Chemical Safety Assessment. Chapter R. 6: QSARs and grouping of chemicals. ECHA, Helsinki.

ECHA (European Chemicals Agency), 2013. Guidance on the Application of the CLP Criteria. version 4.0 ECHA, Helsinki.

ECHA (European Chemicals Agency), 2014. Available from: http://echa.europa.eu/view-article/-/journal_content/title/rac-and-seac-agree-on-restrictions-and-authorisations. Last accessed April 9, 2014.

Ellickson, K.M., Meeker, R.J., Gallo, M.A., Buckley, B.T., Liroy, P.J., 2001. Oral

bioavailability of lead and arsenic from a NIST standard reference soil material. *Arch. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* 40, 128–135.

EUR 19826 EN, 2001. Validation of methodologies for the release of di-isonoylphthalate (DINP) in saliva simulant from toys.

Gray, J.E., Plumlee, G.S., Morman, S.A., Higuera, P.L., Crock, J.G., Lowers, H.A., Witten, M.L., 2010. In vitro studies evaluating leaching of mercury from mine waste calcine using simulated human body fluids. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 44, 4782–4788.

Guney, M., Zagury, G.J., 2014. Bioaccessibility of As, Cd, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Sb in Toys and Low-Cost Jewelry. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 48, 1238–1246.

Hamel, S.C., Buckley, B., Liou, P.J., 1998. Bioaccessibility of metals in soils for different liquid to solid ratios in synthetic gastric fluid. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 32, 358–362.

Hedberg, Y., Gustafsson, J., Karlsson, H.L., Möller, L., Odnevall Wallinder, I., 2010. Bioaccessibility, bioavailability and toxicity of commercially relevant iron- and chromium-based particles: in vitro studies with an inhalation perspective. Part. *Fibre Toxicol.* 7, 23.

Hedberg, Y., Hedberg, J., Liu, Y., Odnevall Wallinder, I., 2011. Complexation – and

ligand-induced metal release from 316L particles – importance of particle size and crystallographic structure. *Biometals* 24, 1099–1114.

Hedberg, Y., Hedberg, J., Odnevall Wallinder, I., 2012. Particle characteristics and metal release from natural rutile (TiO₂) and zircon particles in synthetic body fluids. *J. Biomater. Nanobiotechnol.* 3, 37-49.

Hedberg, Y., Mazinanian, N., Odnevall Wallinder, I., 2013. Metal release from stainless steel powders and massive sheet – comparisons and implications for risk assessment of alloys. *Environ. Sci. Processes Impacts*, 65: 135-146

Hedberg, Y., Odnevall Wallinder, I., 2013. Metal release and speciation of released chromium from a biomedical CoCrMo alloy into simulated physiologically relevant solutions. *J. Biomed. Mater. Res. B Appl. Biomater.* 102(4), 651–895.

Henderson, R.G., Cappellini, D., Seilkop, S.K., Bates, H.K., Oller, A.R., 2012. Oral Bioaccessibility Testing and Read-Across Hazard Assessment of Nickel Compounds. *Regul. Toxicol. Pharmacol.* 63(1), 20-28.

Herting, G., Wallinder, I.O., Leygraf, C., 2008. Metal release rate from AISI 316L stainless steel and pure Fe, Cr and Ni into a synthetic biological medium-a comparison. *J. Environ. Monit.* 10, 1092–1098.

Hillwalker, W.E., Anderson, K.A., 2014. Bioaccessibility of metals in alloys: Evaluation of three surrogate biofluids. *Environ. Pollut.* 185, 52-8.

Jiang, T., Odnevall Wallinder, I., Herting, G., 2012. Chemical stability of chromium carbide and chromium nitride powders compared with chromium metal in synthetic biological solutions. *ISRN Corrosion 2012*, Article ID 379697.

KMHC (Kirby Memorial Health Center), 2010. Kirby Memorial Health Center Compiled Analysis Reports to NiPERA, Inc. for 15 Nickel Substances: Solubility in Simulated Fluids.

Lehuede, P., de Meringo, A., Bernstein, D.M., 1997. Comparison of the chemical evolution of MMVF following inhalation exposure in rats and acellular *in vitro* dissolution. *Inhal. Toxicol.* 9(6), 495-523.

Mazinanian, N., Hedberg, Y., Wallinder, I.O., 2013. Nickel release and surface characteristics of fine powders of nickel metal and nickel oxide in media of relevance for inhalation and dermal contact. *Regul. Toxicol. Pharmacol.* 65, 135–146.

Midander, K., Pan, J., Leygraf, C., 2006. Elaboration of a test method for the study of metal release from stainless steel particles in artificial biological media. *Corrosion Science* 48(9), 2855–2866.

Midander, K., de Frutos, A., Hedberg, Y., Darrie, G., Wallinder, I.O., 2010.

Bioaccessibility studies of ferro-chromium alloy particles for a simulated inhalation scenario: a comparative study with the pure metals and stainless steel. *Integr. Environ. Assess. Manag.* 6, 441–455.

ISO (International Organization for Standardization) 5725-2, 1994. Accuracy (trueness and precision) of measurement methods and results, Part 2: Basic method for the determination of repeatability and reproducibility of a standard measurement method. International Organization for Standardization, Geneva.

Oller, A.R., Cappellini, D., Henderson, R.G., Bates, H.K., 2009. Comparison of nickel release in solutions used for the identification of water-soluble nickel exposures and in synthetic lung fluids. *J. Environ. Monit.* 11, 823–829.

Ruby, M.V., Schoof, R., Brattin, W., Goldade, M., Post, G., Harnois, M., Mosby, D.E., Casteel, S.W., Berti, W., Carpenter, M., Edwards, D., Cragin, D., Chappell, W., 1999. Advances in evaluating the oral bioavailability of inorganics in soil for use in human health risk assessment. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 33, 3697–3705.

Skeaff, J., Adams, W.J., Rodriguez, P., Brouwers, T., Waeterschoot, H., 2011.

Advances in Metals Classification Under the United Nations Globally Harmonized System of Classification and Labeling. *Integrated Environ. Assess. Manag.* 7(4), 559–576.

Stefaniak, A.B., Duling, M.G., Geer, L., Virji, M.A., 2014. Dissolution of the metal sensitizers Ni, Be, Cr in artificial sweat to improve estimates of dermal bioaccessibility. *Environ. Sci. Process Impacts* 16(2), 341-51 .

Stockmann-Juvala H, Hedberg Y, Dhinsa NK, Griffiths DR, Brooks PN, Zitting A, Wallinder IO, Santonen T., 2013. Inhalation toxicity of 316L stainless steel powder in relation to bioaccessibility. *Hum. Exp. Toxicol.* 32(11), 1137-1154.

Stopford, W., Turner, J., Cappellini, D., Brock, T., 2003. Bioaccessibility testing of cobalt compounds. *J. Environ. Monit.* 5, 675–680.

Tomlin, J., Brown, N., Ellis, A., Carlsson, A., Bogentoft, C., Read, N.W., 1993. The effect of liquid fibre on gastric emptying in the rat and humans and the distribution of small intestinal contents in the rat. *Gut* 34, 1177–1181.

Turner, A., 2011. Oral bioaccessibility of trace metals in household dust: a review. *Environ. Geochem. Health* 33, 331–341.

Twining, J., McGlenn, P., Loi, E., Smith, K., Gieré, R., 2005. Risk ranking of bioaccessible metals from fly ash dissolved in simulated lung and gut fluids. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 39, 7749–7756.

US CPSC (United States Consumer Product Commission), 2008. Consumer Product Safety Improvement Act, Public Law 110-314.

Vasiluk, L., Dutton, M.D., Hale, B., 2011. In vitro estimates of bioaccessible nickel in field-contaminated soils, and comparison with in vivo measurement of bioavailability and identification of mineralogy. *Sci. Total Environ.* 409, 2700–2706.

Wang, S.W., Lu, K.Y., Chen, S.M., Young, T.K., 2001. Gastric emptying and intestinal transit of liquid and solid markers in rats with chronic uremia. *Chin. J. Physiol.* 44, 81–87.

Wragg, J., Cave, M., Basta, N., Brandon, E., Casteel, S., Denys, S., Gron, C., Oomen, A., Reimer, K., Tack, K., Van de Wiele, T., 2011. An inter-laboratory trial of the unified BARGE bioaccessibility method for arsenic, cadmium and lead in soil. *Sci. Total Environ.* 409, 4016–4030.

Zoitos, B.K., de Meringo, A., Rouyer, E., Thelohan, S., Bauer, J., Law, B., Boymel, P.M., Olson, J.R., Christensen, V.R., Guldberg, M., Koenig, A.R., Perander, M., 1997. In vitro measurement of fiber dissolution rate relevant to biopersistence at neutral pH. An interlaboratory round-robin. *Inhal. Toxicol.* 9(6), 525–540.

Figures – each 1.5 to 2-column fitting images

Figure 1. Within-laboratory variability. All fluids except interstitial fluid have fairly low within-lab variability (<4%) for the time point shown (2 h, gastric; 24 h, all others). %RSD = percent relative standard deviation.

Figure 2. Between-laboratory variability. Results varied between laboratories depending on the metal and fluid tested. As shown here, gastric and lysosomal fluids had more reproducibility than other fluids at the time point shown (2 h, gastric; 24 h, all others). %RSD = percent relative standard deviation.