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# High-throughput migration modelling for estimating exposure to chemicals in food packaging in screening and prioritization tools

Alexi S. Ernstoff<sup>a\*1</sup>, Peter Fantke<sup>a</sup>, Lei Huang<sup>b</sup>, Olivier Jolliet<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Quantitative Sustainability Assessment Division, Department of Management Engineering, Technical University of Denmark, Bygningstorvet 116, 2800 Kgs. Lyngby, Denmark

<sup>b</sup> Environmental Health Sciences & Risk Science Center, School of Public Health, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 48109-2029, United States of America

<sup>\*</sup>Corresponding author: Email: <u>AlexiErnstoff@gmail.com</u>

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# Abstract

3 Specialty software and simplified models are often used to estimate migration of potentially toxic chemicals 4 from packaging into food. Current models, however, are not suitable for emerging applications in decision-5 support tools, e.g. in Life Cycle Assessment and risk-based screening and prioritization, which require rapid 6 computation of accurate estimates for diverse scenarios. To fulfil this need, we develop an accurate and rapid 7 (high-throughput) model that estimates the fraction of organic chemicals migrating from polymeric packaging 8 materials into foods. Several hundred step-wise simulations optimised the model coefficients to cover a range 9 of user-defined scenarios (e.g. temperature). The developed model, operationalised in a spreadsheet for future 10 dissemination, nearly instantaneously estimates chemical migration, and has improved performance over 11 commonly used model simplifications. When using measured diffusion coefficients the model accurately

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Present address: Quantis International, EPFL Innovation Park, Bât. D, 1015 Lausanne, Switzerland <u>Alexi.Ernstoff@Quantis-intl.com</u>

predicted (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.9, standard error (S<sub>e</sub>) = 0.5) hundreds of empirical data points for various scenarios. Diffusion coefficient modelling, which determines the speed of chemical transfer from package to food, was a major contributor to uncertainty and dramatically decreased model performance (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.4, S<sub>e</sub> = 1). In all, this study provides a rapid migration modelling approach to estimate exposure to chemicals in food packaging for emerging screening and prioritization approaches.

Keywords: risk; life cycle assessment; low-tier; exposure modelling; product intake fraction; food contact
materials

#### 19 **1. Introduction**

Food contact materials (FCM) are a source of consumer exposure to potentially hazardous chemicals, 20 such as bisphenol A, phthalates and fluorinated compounds (Begley et al. 2005b; Tittlemier et al. 21 2007; Apelberg et al. 2007; Cao 2010; Geens et al. 2012). In addition, thousands of other chemicals 22 23 are legally acceptable in FCM and can lead to human exposure (Geueke et al. 2014; FDA 2015a). 24 Concern over consumer risks are bolstered by data gaps in FCM safety assurance as well as recent hazard information generated by in silico and in vitro high-throughput toxicity and bioactivity 25 screening studies (Biedermann and Grob 2013a; Neltner et al. 2013; Muncke et al. 2014; Price and 26 Chaudhry 2014; Evans et al. 2016; Karmaus et al. 2016). To estimate potential risks posed by 27 chemicals in FCM, hazard and exposure must be quantified. Empirical exposure data, however, are 28 29 scarce and analytically challenging to obtain (Rudel et al. 2011). Modelling the migration of chemicals from materials into food is therefore critical to fill empirical data gaps and quantify exposure. 30

Chemicals in food packaging in particular have been a major focus of consumer exposure assessments
that build on migration modelling. The *Cumulative Estimated Daily Intake* (CEDI) database of the

33 United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA 2015a) and the Flavourings, Additives, and food Contact materials Exposure Tool (FACET) (Oldring et al. 2014b) of the European Commission's Joint 34 35 Research Center (JRC) are recent large-scale advances to estimate realistic exposure to chemicals in food packaging, for 1,302 and 6,499 chemicals, respectively (although only 5 chemicals are pre-36 installed in FACET as of May 2017). In both cases, exposure estimates (expressed in mg/kg/d) are a 37 function of undisclosed data e.g. based on an annual country-specific market survey. By fixing 38 exposure estimates based on undisclosed market-wide occurrences of a chemical in package-food 39 40 combinations combined with a food consumption estimate, CEDI and FACET cannot be used to estimate exposure to chemicals in packaging per unit(s) of product use, such as one packaged food 41 consumed by one person. Comparing different unit(s) of product use or unit(s) of chemical use (e.g. 42 kilogram of chemical used as a plasticizer in many different polymers) is a main application of 43 emerging exposure screening tools such as SHEDS-HT (Isaacs et al. 2014), ECETOC TRA (Delmaar et al. 44 45 2013), USEtox (Rosenbaum et al. 2008), and the PiF framework (Fantke et al. 2016). A per-unit assessment structure facilitates comparing products on a per use basis (regardless of total market 46 volume), or comparing extrapolated uses (e.g. to the entire population or a company-specific 47 production volume). Therefore, in order to be coupled or incorporated within emerging assessment 48 tools, a chemical exposure model for food packaging should have the flexibility to assess various units 49 50 of packages used by consumers. A major research gap remains, as no peer reviewed tool or method exists to facilitate high-throughput, transparent and flexible estimation of exposure to chemicals in 51 52 food packaging to support applications in screening and prioritization tools.

53 With millions of product-chemical combinations on the market, screening has emerged as a resourceful approach to prioritize chemicals and/or products that require further scrutiny. High-54 Throughput Risk-based Screening (HTRS), and environmental Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) are distinct 55 screening and prioritization tools that can consider potential impacts on human health related to 56 chemical exposure. HTRS combines low-tier high-throughput exposure modelling with risk-based 57 indicators, such as high-throughput screening bioassays (Wambaugh et al. 2013; Isaacs et al. 2014; 58 59 Wetmore et al. 2015; Shin et al. 2015; Karmaus et al. 2016). LCA is an established sustainability 60 assessment framework that combines multiple modelling approaches to screen product systems and their potential impacts on human health, ecosystems, and natural resources (Hauschild 2005; Hellweg 61 and Milà i Canals 2014). Both HTRS and LCA rely on practical, high-throughput models that require 62 limited parameterization and computational capacity. Exposure models can thereby be designed for 63 both tools despite their different applications (Wambaugh et al. 2013; Shin et al. 2015; Huang et al. 64 65 2017a).

High-throughput models, compatible with LCA and HTRS, to estimate exposure to chemicals in food 66 packaging are specifically needed to complement fast-paced advances towards sustainability and 67 68 resource management targets. Concern over chemicals in food packaging is a barrier to the rising interest in circular economy and use of recycled or re-used materials (Biedermann and Grob 2013b; 69 Lee et al. 2014; European Bureau for Conservation and Development 2015; FDA 2015b; Leslie et al. 70 71 2016). Furthermore, bio-based packaging designs (Yuan et al. 2016), or designs to reduce food waste (Siracusa et al. 2014), can also influence packaging materials, their contained chemicals, and their 72 73 environmental impacts. LCA is extensively used to inform decision making regarding more sustainable

food packaging design (Hunt and Franklin 1996; Flanigan et al. 2013). However, LCA methods
traditionally only consider *environmental* exposure pathways, and not indoor exposure pathways
related to product use, such exposure to chemicals that have migrated from a package into a food. .
To address this inconsistency, there are recent modelling efforts to make LCA more comprehensive
and include exposure to chemicals in products (Shin et al. 2012; Jolliet et al. 2015a; Fantke et al. 2016;
Ernstoff et al. 2016; Csiszar et al. 2016b; Huang et al. 2017a), although LCA-compatible models do not
yet exist to estimate exposure through food packaging.

81 The objective of this study is thereby to develop a high-throughput (HT) modelling approach for estimating migration of chemicals from packaging into food for emerging applications in screening 82 and prioritization tools, such as LCA and HTRS. The main criteria for our HT approach was to design a 83 84 rapid, accurate, and accessible migration model—meaning nearly instantaneous computation, representative of the average and not the worst-case, and easily applicable to existing exposure 85 assessment frameworks. To maximize future applicability, the HT model should be valid across 86 chemical-package-food scenarios sensitive to packaging type, thickness, the food type and quantity, 87 and the time and temperature of contact between the package and the food. Archetypal scenarios 88 89 can be defined in an assessment framework to minimize required user inputs. As a first step we focus on organic chemicals in a single layer of polymeric packaging directly contacting food. Our goals are to 90 1) analyze commonly used migration models to identify needs for high-throughput approaches, 2) 91 92 develop a new HT approach for predicting migration for chemical-food-packaging scenarios (e.g. 93 characteristics of package and food, and contact time and temperature) defined by users, 3) and test

94 the developed approach against other models and empirical migration data available from the United
95 States Food and Drug Administration (US FDA).

96 **2. Methods** 

97

#### 2.1 Product intake fraction framework

98 To quantify exposure to chemicals in food packaging in LCA and HTRS, we propose using the product intake fraction metric (PiF - Jolliet et al. 2015a)—defined as the mass of a chemical taken in by all 99 100 exposed persons versus the mass of chemical in a product after manufacturing. PiF has been applied to several other groups of consumer products and HT approaches (Shin et al. 2015; Jolliet et al. 2015a; 101 102 Fantke et al. 2016; Csiszar et al. 2016a; Ernstoff et al. 2016). Assuming that the majority of exposure 103 to chemicals within a manufactured food package occurs via migration into food and not through other pathways (e.g. dermal uptake through contact with package or inhalation via releases into 104 indoor air), PiF =  $f_c \times f_t$ , where  $f_t$  is the time-dependent fraction of the initial mass of chemical in the 105 packaging that has transferred (i.e. migrated) into food, and  $f_c$  is the fraction of food consumed (e.g. 106 107 not wasted). In the case of food packaging, PiF is specific for each chemical in a given package-food scenario, where a scenario is specified by packaging (material type, thickness, and amount) and food 108 (type and amount) characteristics, and the contact duration and temperature (e.g. according to 109 110 pasteurization and/or storage).

111 Values for  $f_c$  can be estimated through studies quantifying consumer food waste,  $f_w$ , where  $f_c = 1 - f_w$ . 112 Various country-specific studies have found consumer-level wastes between 9-45% depending on the 113 food category (Beretta et al. 2013; Buzby et al. 2014). Accounting for food waste could be especially

114 important in assessments of packaging designs that result in different food spoilage rates (Williams and Wikström 2011; Williams et al. 2012). This study will focus on providing methods to estimate the 115 second parameter  $f_t$  through mathematical modelling for various chemical- package-food 116 combinations and scenarios, as  $f_t$  is not a value that can be typically obtained from prior studies. 117 2.2 Analysis of migration model behaviour and needs for a high-throughput model 118 119 Various migration models exist to estimate migration of a chemical from FCM into food. Models tend 120 to be computationally complex, require empirical input data for parameterization, or only be valid for specific scenarios (Pocas 2008; Piringer and Baner 2008; Pocas et al. 2012). We focused on widely 121 used migration models that have also been empirically validated and require a limited amount of 122 empirically-derived input parameters (Begley et al. 2005a; Piringer and Baner 2008; Oldring et al. 123 124 2014b, a; Hoekstra et al. 2015; FDA 2016). The most commonly used migration model is derived from 125 a mass-balance equation based on Fick's second law (Crank 1975). Arranging the terms to solve for the fraction of the initial chemical mass  $m_{i,0}$  that has migrated from a package into a food after a 126 contact duration of t results in 127

128 
$$f_t = \frac{m_{i,t}}{m_{i,o}} = \left(\frac{\alpha}{1+\alpha}\right) \left[1 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2\alpha(1+\alpha)}{1+\alpha+\alpha^2 q_n^2} \exp\left(-D_p t_d \frac{q_n^2}{d_p^2}\right)\right] (1)$$

129 where

130

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{K_{P,F}} \frac{V_F}{V_P}.$$

131 Migration of chemical *i* is modelled as a function of the partition coefficient  $K_{P,F}$  between package and 132 food; the ratio of food to package volumes  $V_F/V_P$  (cm<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>) the diffusion coefficient for a chemical in a package,  $D_P$  (cm<sup>2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>); the duration of food-package contact,  $t_d$  (s); the thickness of the package,  $d_P$ 

134 (cm); and the infinite solutions of  $q_n$ , where  $q_n$  are the positive roots of the transcendental equation

135 
$$\tan(q_n) = -\alpha q_n$$
.

The complexity of eq (1) requires specialty software or model simplification which can lead to over or underestimation. A common approach is to obtain values of  $q_n$  from a look-up table of 6-50 solutions for pre-specified values of  $\alpha$  (Crank 1975; Piringer and Baner 2008; Hoekstra et al. 2015). Another common approach is using short-term diffusion-dominated and long-term partitioning-dominated models, respectively eq (2) and eq (3), where

141 
$$f_{t,s} = \frac{m_{i,t}}{m_{i,o}} = 2/d_p \times (D_p t_d / \pi)^{1/2}$$
(2) and

142 
$$f_{t,l} = \frac{m_{i,t}}{m_{i,o}} = \frac{\alpha}{1+\alpha}$$
(3)

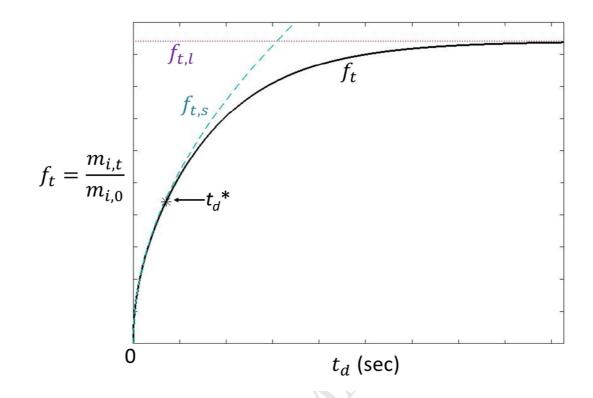
The parameters are defined above with eq (1). Eq (2) and (3) are computationally simple, but only 143 valid for restricted timescales, for example eq (3) is valid when  $D_p t_d/d_p^2 >> 0.001$  (Piringer and Baner 144 2008). To apply eqs (1)-(3), the parameters are either fixed or estimated. For example, regulatory 145 models often fix  $K_{P,F} = 1$  as a claimed "worst-case" scenario, and fix the volume of food to 1000 mL (1 146 kg) in Europe or 10 g of food in the US. When applying the formulas in regulatory settings, the 147 packaging volume is determined by the typical reference surface area of 6 dm<sup>2</sup> in Europe and 1 in<sup>2</sup> the 148 US, and assuming packaging thickness generally between 0.001-0.1 cm (Oldring et al. 2014b; Hoekstra 149 et al. 2015; FDA 2016). Regardless of the input parameters, eq (2) always surpasses eq (1) at a food-150 package contact duration referred to in this study as the *deviation time*,  $t_d^*$ . Using eq (2) beyond  $t_d^*$ 151

152 can result in surpassing the ultimate equilibrium value achieved according to eq (3), and grossly overestimating migration. Quantification of when  $t_d^*$  occurs has not been to our knowledge defined, and 153 changes according to the model input parameters. 154 We programmed simulations in Matlab R2015a to elucidate the behaviour of eq (1) in order to 155 understand the needs for operationalizing HT models. To begin, we investigated the feasibility of 156 using eq (1) and associated simplifications for HT modelling. Specifically, we elucidated the 157 consequences on the model behaviour when simulations of eq (1) were performed a) with a limited 158 159 number of  $q_n$  roots or b) using a fixed value for input parameter  $K_{P,F}$ . We also compared the 160 behaviour of eq (1) with eq (2) and eq (3). Figure 1 is a generic representation of the model system

with a sufficient number of  $q_n$  roots to achieve eq (1) with accuracy; the required number of  $q_n$  roots

162 as well as the shape of the  $f_t$  curve and values on the X and Y axes will differ depending on input

163 parameters.



164

Figure 1. Representation of model behaviour through an undefined package-food contact duration. Eqs (1)  $f_t$  (solid line) with sufficient  $q_n$  roots, (2)  $f_{t,s}$  (dashed line), and (3)  $f_{t,l}$  (dotted line), are demonstrated. The point at which the short term simplification deviates from the model with >99% accuracy,  $t_d^*$ , is indicated with a star.

169 Preliminary simulations demonstrated that the number of  $q_n$  roots needed to estimate eq (1) with 170 high accuracy (e.g. up to 99%) cannot easily be predetermined; in addition to the relationship 171  $D_p t_d / d_p^2$  (Piringer and Baner 2008), the number of  $q_n$  roots required to accurately estimate eq (1) is 172 also dependent on  $\alpha$ . We found as  $\alpha$  decreases the number of roots required to obtain eq (1) increases 173 (Figure S1A-B). The number of roots and thus iterative calculations affected the required computation 174 time. We found generally when  $\alpha$  was high (> 10) computation time was rapid and few roots were

needed (e.g. 5 - 50,000). For very low  $\alpha$  (< 0.001) even 1 million roots resulted in several orders of 175 magnitude overestimation during short time scales (i.e. in the first 24 hours). Taking 1 million roots 176 substantially lengthened the computation time. Restricting the number of  $q_n$  values to rapidly solve 177 eq (1) always led to overestimation of the model  $f_t$  at short time scales (supporting information (SI), 178 Figure S1A-B), typically by several orders of magnitude. This suggests using a limited number of  $q_n$  can 179 be appropriate for safety assessments, but does not provide a realistic estimation, especially at short 180 time scales and for low values of  $\alpha$ . In all, using eq (1) is not practical for rapid and accessible HT 181 182 methods that are operational across all time scales and values of  $\alpha$ . Iterative calculation steps can 183 lengthen computation time and furthermore poses a computational barrier to pragmatically coupling of the model to spreadsheet-based tools. 184

The partition coefficient between packaging and food for a migrant,  $K_{P,F}$ , is an important parameter 185 influencing the behaviour of eq (1) and eq (3). When  $K_{P,F}$  is high the chemical has higher affinity for 186 the package, and when  $K_{P,F}$  is low (e.g.  $K_{P,F} < 1$ ) the compound has higher affinity for the food 187 (Tehrany and Desobry 2004; Ozaki et al. 2010). When analysing model behaviour to inform method 188 development we found *no evidence* that the simplification of  $K_{P,F} = 1$  is a "worst-case" scenario as 189 claimed by regulatory documents and publications (e.g. Brandsch et al. 2002; Begley et al. 2005a; 190 Hoekstra et al. 2015). We found that setting  $K_{P,F} < 1$  can lead to migration estimates greater than the 191 model outcome when  $K_{P,F} = 1$ , especially when the food and packaging volume are of similar 192 193 magnitude.  $K_{P,F} < 1$  have also been observed empirically (Tehrany and Desobry 2004; Piringer and Baner 2008; Ozaki et al. 2010). Quantitatively,  $K_{P,F} = 1$  corresponds to the chemical concentration 194 195 being equal in the package and the food. Our simulations demonstrated that setting  $K_{P,F} = 1$  can

underestimate the migrated chemical mass at equilibrium, e.g. by a factor of  $\approx 2$  when  $K_{P,F} \le 0.1$ 196 when the volumes of food and packaging material are equivalent (SI Figure S2A versus S2B when  $K_{P,F}$  = 197 1), and this factor increases if the ratio between the package and food increases above 1. Therefore, 198 in situations when the mass of packaging material approaches the mass of the food (e.g. for small 199 candies, capsules, and single-serving condiments) and equilibrium can be approached or reached— 200 201 e.g. due to a long contact time, small package thickness, and/or due to rapid diffusion  $-K_{P,F}$  cannot be set to 1 to obtain a realistic or worst-case value for chemicals with  $K_{P,F} < 1$ . Using the default 202 203 regulatory values for the amounts of packaging and food, the assumption  $K_{P,F} = 1$  provides *nearly* an 204 upper-bound (worst-case) estimate of eq (1) (SI Figure S2B). There is substantial empirical evidence that chemicals in polymers can have  $K_{P,F} < 1$ , and < 0.01, (Mercea 2008), however, we cannot 205 206 determine the frequency such chemicals occur in situations where packaging and food volumes are similar. Nevertheless, we recommend that regulatory documents and other publications do not state 207 208 that  $K_{P,F} = 1$  is a "worst-case" scenario. Instead, we recommend stating that setting  $K_{P,F} = 1$  is a 209 pragmatic approximation of a worst-case scenario when the volume ratio of food to package is >100. Moreover analysing the consequence of setting  $K_{P,F} = 1$  points to a need for a model to estimate  $K_{P,F}$  to 210 be used in HT estimates of realistic exposure, as setting  $K_{P,F} = 1$  can overestimate exposure when  $K_{P,F} >$ 211 1, and underestimate exposure when  $K_{P,F} < 1$ . 212

To summarize, analysing the behaviour of existing modelling approaches demonstrated that using too few  $q_n$  roots can lead to drastic overestimation of eq (1), but that using more  $q_n$  roots slows computation times; eq (2) is a simple and accurate method suitable for HT estimates of migration for short timescales (<  $t_d$ \*), but this timescale is not well defined; and setting K<sub>P,F</sub> = 1 does not provide

217	either representative or worst-case estimates for all scenarios. These findings informed the research
218	needs for developing an HT model that can rapidly provide representative migration estimates across
219	all timescales and for a variety of chemical-package-food combinations. Specifically, the identified
220	needs are to 1) design a model that does not require iterative calculations based on $q_n$ roots, 2)
221	identify package-food contact duration, $t_d^*$ , where eq (2) is no longer valid and 3) more accurately
222	estimate K <sub>R</sub> c.

#### 223 **2.3 Development of a high-throughput model for migration estimation**

224 To address these three needs, we aimed to develop a parsimonious approach valid for all time-scales

and a large range of input parameters.

First we defined  $t_d^*$  (Figure 1) as the contact duration between package and food when the solution 226 to eq (2) deviates from the solution of eq (1) by more than >1% of the ultimate equilibrium value. At 227 228 contact durations  $< t_d^*$  eq (2) is valid, compares well with eq (1) (R2 $\approx$  1) and thus eq (2) can be directly used for HT approaches in this time range. To determine  $t_d^*$  as an explicit function of main 229 parameters, we hypothesized that it is a function of  $\alpha$ ,  $D_P$ , and  $d_P$  due to the influence of these 230 parameters on the function behaviour. To test this hypothesis we obtained  $t_d^*$  from several hundred 231 simulations for random permutations of the input parameters  $D_P$  (10<sup>-10</sup>, 10<sup>-20</sup> cm<sup>2</sup>/sec),  $\alpha$  (values 232 randomly generated between  $10^{-6}$  and  $10^{-5}$ ), and  $d_P$  (0.01, 0.1, 1 cm), using up to 1 million roots in eq. 233 (1) to ensure high accuracy. Next, we plotted the resulting values of  $t_d^*$  as function of  $\alpha$ ,  $D_P$ , and  $d_P$ 234 and used the Matlab 2015a Curve Fitting Toolbox™ to determine an explicit function of these 235 variables and enabling prediction of  $t_d^*$  with reasonable accuracy. 236

After determining a predictive function for  $t_d^*$ , we aimed to develop an HT migration model valid 237 after  $t_d^*$ . The model theory is based on recent work by Huang & Jolliet (2016) where a parsimonious 238 model was developed for HT prediction of volatile organic compound releases from solid materials. 239 This approach demonstrated a Fickian-based differential equation requiring the infinite sum of  $q_n$ 240 roots, similar to eq (1), can be approximated as a two-term exponential decay model (Huang and 241 Jolliet 2016). The first exponential term captures short-term diffusion-dominated behaviour and the 242 second exponential term captures long-term partitioning-dominated behaviour (Chang and Guo 243 244 1992). A model of this form relates the mass transferred (lost from the material) through time, m(t), 245 as a function of the initial mass, m<sub>0</sub>, in the material multiplied by an exponential decay with constant k, m(t) =  $m_0 e^{-kt}$ . When estimating the fraction of chemical mass initially in the material (i.e. the 246 package) that has transferred (i.e. into the food) this results in the form 1- e<sup>-kt</sup>. We therefore 247 hypothesized that a 2-term decay model in the form of 1-  $e^{-kt}$  could capture the behaviour of eq (1). 248 249 Furthermore, since the shape of eq (1) through time is determined by input parameters  $\alpha$ ,  $D_P$ , and  $d_P$ , 250 likewise the exponential shape parameters (analogous to the decay constant) could be predicted as a function of  $\alpha$ ,  $D_P$ , and  $d_P$ . We found that one exponential term sufficed (R<sup>2</sup>>0.99) when  $\alpha \approx >10$  and 251 there were no partitioning constraints (given infinite time nearly all of the chemical will have 252 transferred from package to food), however, in order to obtain high values of R<sup>2</sup> (R<sup>2</sup>>0.97) when 253 254 comparing the simplification to eq (1) across values of  $\alpha$  two exponential terms were needed (SI Figure S3) (eq 4). We therefore followed a two exponential form in order to provide a model valid for 255 all values of  $\alpha$ . The resulting model form for all contact durations and values of  $\alpha$  was determined as 256

257 
$$f_{t,p} = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{d_p} \times (D_p t_d / \pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} eq(2) & \text{if } t_d \le t_d^*, else \\ y_{t_d} + \left(\frac{\alpha}{1+\alpha} - y_{t_d}\right) \times \left(A \times (1 - e^{-B \times \beta \times (t_d - t_d^*)}) + (1 - A) \times (1 - e^{-C \times \beta (t_d - t_d^*)}) \right), \end{cases}$$
(4)

258 where 
$$\beta = \frac{D_p N_{t_c}}{d_p^2}$$

and where A, B, and C are varying coefficients discussed further below; slope factor  $N_{t_d}$  is the derivative of eq (2) at the contact duration  $t_d^*$  to train the slope towards the slope of eq (2) at that point;  $y_{t_d}$  is the vertical shift to begin the double exponential model at contact duration  $t_d^*$  and is equal to the value of eq (2) at  $t_d^*$ ; other equation parameters are defined within eq (1).

To operationalize eq (4), coefficients A, B, C, must be determined as explicit function of main 263 parameters. Based on observations from the initial simulations, we hypothesized each coefficient is 264 interdependent and a function of  $\alpha$ . To test this hypothesis, we ran simulations of  $f_t$  as well as the 265 predicted function  $f_{t,p}$  using random permutations of input parameters to cover range of potential 266 migration scenarios, i.e. for  $D_P(10^{-10}, 10^{-20} \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec})$ ,  $\alpha$  (values randomly generated between  $10^{-6}$  and 267  $10^{5}$ ) and d<sub>P</sub> (0.01, 0.1, 1 cm) with up to 1 million roots to ensure accuracy. These simulations were 268 used to develop predictive models for the coefficients A, B, and C, applying the following stepwise 269 procedure to iteratively restrict noise due to interactions between these parameters: 270

The first step was to investigate values of A, B, and C as a function of  $\alpha$  as completely "free" variables, optimised by minimizing the residual squares between eq (4) and eq (1) using the Matlab 2015a preexisting function *fminsearch*. From this exercise we observed that values of A were being optimised to force the equation towards a 1-exponential (e.g. A approaches 1) when  $\alpha \approx>10$ . We then fixed A as a

275 piece-wise function of  $\alpha$  and ran simulations to predict values of B and C. Again seeing that B was

- 276 forced towards 1 at high values of  $\alpha$ , we then also fixed B as piece-wise functions of  $\alpha$  to finally obtain
- a predictive function of C.
- Finally we tested the accuracy of eq (4) at estimating  $f_t$  eq (1) when using the final resulting predictions of t<sub>d</sub>, A, B, and C. Because  $f_{t,s}$  eq (2) and  $f_{t,l}$  eq (3) model short and long-term behaviour, we also compared our modelling approach to a simple approach using  $f_{t,s}$  until it is equal to  $f_{t,l}$  and then switching to  $f_{t,l}$ . Nine simulations were run to cover the range of  $\alpha$  from (10<sup>-4</sup>-10<sup>3</sup>), where the
- simulation time for low values of  $\alpha$  was extensive due to the number of  $q_n$  roots required.

#### 283 2.4 Model parameterization

Chemical diffusion coefficient: Chemical diffusion is influenced by material and chemical properties
(e.g. molecular size) as well as the ambient temperature. Diffusion coefficients are commonly
estimated using eq (5) (Brandsch 2000; Mercea 2000; Begley et al. 2005a; Hoekstra et al. 2015)

287 
$$D_P = D_o \exp\left(A_P - 0.1351MW^{\frac{2}{3}} + 0.003MW - \frac{10454}{T}\right) \left(\frac{cm^2}{s}\right)$$
(5)

288 where 
$$A_P = A'_P - \frac{\tau}{\tau}$$
,  $D_o = 1 \text{ m}^2/\text{s} = 10^4 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$  and  $R = 8.3145 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ .

Molecular weight (MW g/mol) is specific to the migrant;  $A_P$  is a dimensionless polymer-specific diffusivity parameter that is sensitive to the ambient temperature, T (K) of the food-material system;  $\tau$  and the constant 10,454 are polymer-specific and account for the diffusion activation energy (where 10,454 is the reference constant for polyethylene) (Barnes et al. 2006). When applying this model in regulatory settings typically "worst case" values of  $A_P$  are used. LCA compatible models do not

typically estimate worst case scenarios but aim to estimate average scenarios, therefore to estimate 294  $A_P$  we used average values (not 'upper-bound' or worst case) of  $A_P^{'}$  (a standard polymer-specific 295 diffusivity parameter) which we calculated from data listed in Begley et al. 2005a as listed in SI Table 296 S1. The diffusion coefficient is highly sensitive to  $A'_P$  where a 10% change in  $A'_P$  can lead to a 300% 297 change in the diffusion coefficient. The full model, eq (1), however, is less sensitive to changes in the 298 299 diffusion coefficient (e.g. a 10% change in the diffusion coefficient leads to a <5% change in model output), where the level of sensitivity depends on the contact duration and if this is in the diffusion-300 dominated timescale. 301

**Package-food partition coefficient:** As discussed in Section 2.2 the partition coefficient  $K_{P,F}$  influences 302 model behaviour after contact duration  $t_d^*$  and  $K_{P,F}$  cannot be set to a fixed value to obtain realistic 303 estimates. Therefore, we focus on developing HT methods to estimate  $K_{P,F}$  for various scenarios. 304 Previous works (Tehrany and Desobry 2005; Tehrany et al. 2006; Ozaki et al. 2010) to this aim have 305 306 developed correlations of  $K_{P,F}$  with the chemical and food lipophilicity, where the octanol-water partition coefficient, K<sub>ow</sub>, is used as a the chemical proxy and the simulant ethanol-equivalency EtOH-307 eq is used as the food proxy.  $K_{P,F}$  is also temperature sensitive but the relationship is not known to be 308 309 easily predictable (Tehrany and Desobry 2004). In this study we do not attempt to predict the 310 temperature-dependency of  $K_{P,F}$ . We build on more recent empirical work by Ozaki et al. 2010 correlating K<sub>P,F</sub> with a range of chemical log K<sub>ow</sub>s and across a range of food EtOH-eqs. The FACET 311 project (Seiler et al. 2014) also built on this work and performed experiments to extend the 312 correlation range of  $K_{P,F}$ , but the experimental data and subsequent correlations are not available to 313 314 our knowledge.

315 Therefore, we developed a method to estimate  $K_{P,F}$  as a function of a chemical  $K_{ow}$  and food EtOH-eq by generalizing the three log-log linear EtOH-eq correlations in Ozaki et al. 2010 to all potential 316 combinations of EtOH-eq and Kow. We assumed the gradient between the slopes of these log-log 317 linear curves would be uniformly distributed across EtOH-eqs and therefore follows the format 318  $\log K_{P,F} = m(\text{EtOH} - \text{eq}) \times \log(K_{ow}) - b$ , with m a linear function of EtOH-eq. The solver add-in in 319 Microsoft Excel 2010 was used to optimize the parameters of a log-log linear model while minimizing 320 the residual error between our predicted values and the measured values from Ozaki et al. 2010. We 321 322 restricted the applicability range of the  $K_{P,F}$  correlations according to the  $K_{ow}$  values empirically

323	measured in Ozaki et al. 2010, e.g. data were not available for chemicals with log $K_{ow}$ >~5, 8, 18 when
324	the EtOH-eq is $\approx$ 10, 50, 95% respectively. Finally, to test the accuracy of our modelling approach by
325	external validation, we obtained a separate dataset of 163 different experiments that measured
326	partition coefficients between LDPE and HDPE polymers and 13 different foods at ambient
327	temperature 296 K (Mercea 2008). We assigned these 13 different foods to EtOH-eq according to SI
328	Table S2.
329	2.5 Applying the high-throughput estimation approach – external validation
330	We ran the developed HT model to predict migration for various chemical, package, and food

combinations that have empirical data available. The empirical data were provided by request from
 the US FDA (FDA 2016). These requested data are used to provide industrial guidance for pre-market
 submissions, and the data set contains 12,773 independent measurements for migration.

Most of the migration measurements in the database also included the parameters needed for 334 335 modelling, e.g. according to eq (4), specifically the tested chemical's MW and  $K_{ow}$ , the food or simulant tested, the polymer tested and its thickness, the duration and temperature of the test. 336 337 Entries reporting a "0" starting concentration of a chemical in a polymer, or reporting that the final 338 migrated mass into a simulant or food exceeded the initial mass in the tested material (perhaps due to experimental uncertainty) were disregarded. Diffusion coefficients are also provided for each 339 experiment in the spreadsheet. Several parameters required for modelling were also not reported in 340 the database, for example  $A_{P}$  which is required to model the diffusion coefficient, and EtOH-eq of the 341 342 food or simulant which is required to model the partition coefficient. We therefore matched the database to the available polymer-specific average  $A_{P}^{'}$  (Section 2.4.1; SI Table S1) and a list of EtOH-eq 343

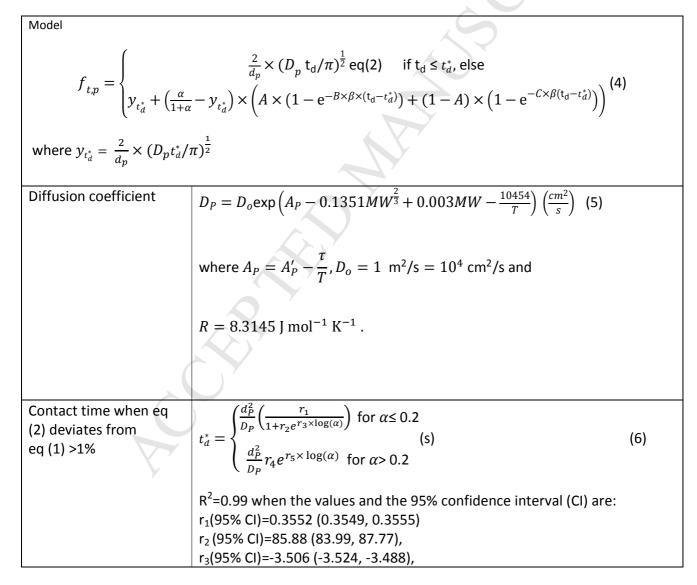
344	matched to food or simulants (SI Table S2) in order to simulate each applicable experimental value.
345	4,492 applicable experimental values remained with available $A_{P}^{'}$ , and EtOH-eq. Migration modelling
346	was then performed using three different approaches: A) the HT model (Table 1) and using measured
347	diffusion coefficients from the database, B) applying the HT model (Table 1) and using modelled
348	diffusion coefficients estimated with eq (5), and finally C) using a combination of eq (2) (diffusion-
349	dominated model) and (3) (partition denominated model) and taking the minimum value, i.e. the
350	value of eq (2) until it intersects with eq (3), and then the value of eq (3) The two first modelling
351	approaches A and B were employed to elucidate the contribution of the estimated diffusion
352	coefficient to model uncertainty. The final approach C, is the most simple and was tested against the
353	first two approaches A and B.

#### **354 3. Results and discussion**

3.1 Development of an accurate model for high-throughput migration modelling 355 Model development: The operationalised form of the HT migration model eq (4), including estimates 356 for  $t_d^*$ , A, B, and C is compiled in Table 1. Predicting  $t_d^*$  first is important for knowing the contact 357 duration after which the simplified diffusion eq (2) is no longer valid, and also to serve as input for eq 358 359 (4). To avoid over-estimating  $t_d^*$ , which would jeopardize the predictive ability of the model, we determined two equations to predict  $t_a^*$  as a function of  $\alpha$ , i.e. one for  $\alpha \le 0.2$  and one for  $\alpha > 0.2$  as 360 described by eq (6) in Table 1, with a high accuracy (R<sup>2</sup>≈1, Figure S4C). The coefficients A, B, and C of 361 362 the HT migration model are obtained as a direct function of alpha as defined by equation (8a,b,c) of 363 Table 1 and the stepwise procedure to determine these is further detailed in SI Figure S5.

 $t_d^*$  is proportional to the ratio  $d_P^2/D_p$  which we have defined as a characteristic time of migration (CTM (s), see SI Figure S4) as a function of the thickness of the diffusive path length and the diffusion coefficient. . CTM can range from a few hours to thousands of years depending on the packaging thickness and diffusion coefficient (Figure 2).  $t_d^*$  may only be a small fraction of CTM, and the fraction lessens as  $\alpha$  and the equilibrium value decrease.

#### 369 Table 1. Final high-throughput estimation model and required parameters.



	r₄(95% Cl)=8.495 <sup>E</sup> -3 (8.375 <sup>E</sup> -3, 8.616 <sup>E</sup> -3)	
	r <sub>5</sub> (95% CI)=4.458 (4.445 <i>,</i> 4.47).	
Slope factor ( $\beta$ ), approximation of the slope (derivative) of eq (2) at time t <sub>d</sub> *	$\beta = \frac{1}{d_P} \sqrt{\frac{D_P}{\pi t_d^*}} \times \left( \frac{\alpha}{\underbrace{\frac{1+\alpha}{eq(3)}}} - \underbrace{\frac{2}{d_p} \times (D_p t_d^*/\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}}}_{eq(2) \text{ at } t_d^*} \right)^{-1} (s^{-1})$	(7)
Coefficients A, B, and C	$A(x_{1}) = \begin{cases} 0.7 \text{ for } x_{1} < 0.7 \\ 1 \text{ for } x_{1} > 1 \\ x_{1} \text{ elsewhere;} \end{cases} \text{ where } x_{1} = 10^{0.12 \log(\alpha) + \log 0.8} \text{ (8a)}$ $B(x_{2}) = \begin{cases} 0.3 \text{ for } x_{2} < 0.3 \\ 0.9 \text{ for } x_{2} > 0.9 \text{ where } x_{2} = 10^{0.22 \log(\alpha) + \log 0.5} \text{ (8b)} \\ x_{2} \text{ elsewhere;} \end{cases}$ $C(x_{3}) = \begin{cases} 0.004 \text{ for } x_{3} < 0.3 \\ 1 \text{ for } x_{3} > 1 \\ x_{3} \text{ elsewhere;} \end{cases} \text{ where } x_{3} = 10^{0.7 \log(\alpha) + \log 0.08} \text{ (8c)}$	
Partition coefficient	$\log K_{P,F} = m \times \log(K_{ow}) - b$	(9)
between package and		
food.	where $m = -0.0085 \times \text{EtOH} - \text{eq} + 0.876$ , and b= 1.05. <sup>#</sup>	

<sup>#</sup>Data were not available for chemicals with log  $K_{ow} > \approx 5$ , 8, 18 when the EtOH-eq is  $\approx 10$ , 50, 95%

respectively, and the model accuracy in this range is thus unknown.

HT Model performance: Figure 2 demonstrates the resulting model performance across a wide range of permutations of  $\alpha$ ,  $D_P$ , and  $d_P$ , where the model behaviour is specific to combinations of  $\alpha$  and CTM, within a feasible contact duration between package and food (i.e. <30y). Simulations were chosen within realistic values of  $\alpha$  and CTM based on observed ranges of partition coefficients,

diffusion coefficients and packaging thicknesses (Piringer and Baner 2008). Figure 2 is organised in

377 rows and columns, where alpha decreases from the first to third column, and where the CTM

increases from first to third row. When alpha is large the potential migrated fraction approaches 1,

and as alpha decreases (see first to third column) so does the migrated fraction. As CTM increases

380 between the first and third rows, the time to reach full migration (seen as the curve flattening at a

381	plateau) also increases. For each CTM (see first to third column for each row) the model plateaus at
382	earlier contact times when there is a lower $\alpha$ value which corresponds to a lower equilibrium value.
383	For each CTM (rows) the model plateaus earlier with low $\alpha$ values and subsequent equilibrium value
384	(columns). Figure 2 also demonstrates that the HT model (in red) fits very well the original model (in
385	black) with R <sup>2</sup> between 0.97 and 1, across a wide range of relevant time scales from a few minutes to
386	30 years and input parameter combinations. The HT model represents a substantial improvement
387	compared to the combination of the minimum value of the short-term diffusion dominated model (in
388	green) and the long-term equilibrium value (pink dotted line) that may over-estimates $f_t$ by a factor of
389	3 (Figure 3). The points plotted in the figure represent the maximum over-estimation which always
390	occurs when eq (2) intersects eq (3) (also see Figure 1). SI Table S3 provides example combinations of
391	$D_P$ , and $d_P$ (infinite combinations are possible) to obtain the CTMs that were simulated.

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 e combinations are posse

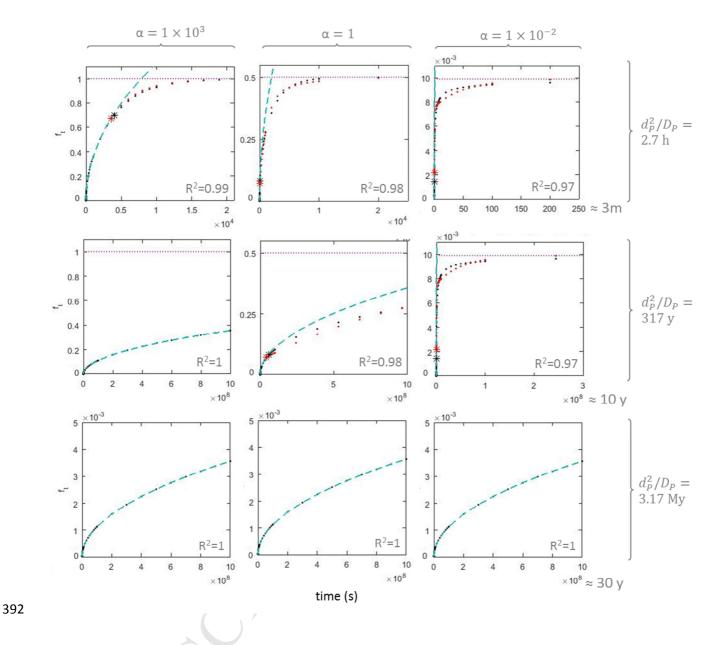


Figure 2. Comparison between the migrated fraction,  $f_t$ , predicted by the HT model (Table 1) after the deviation point,  $t_d^*$  (red solid line), with  $f_t$  predicted by the original model, eq (1) (black solid line). A range of combinations of  $\alpha$  and characteristic times  $(d_P^2/D_p, \text{ converted to relevant units, where My is}$ millions of years) were simulated to cover a feasible span of scenarios and R<sup>2</sup> were obtained. The diffusion-based model, eq (2) (turquoise dashed line), and the equilibrium-based model, eq (3) (pink

dotted line) are also shown. Eq (2) and eq (1) are >99% equal until  $t_d^*$  (black asterisk); the red asterisk is the predicted  $t_d^*$  where the double exponential form begins.

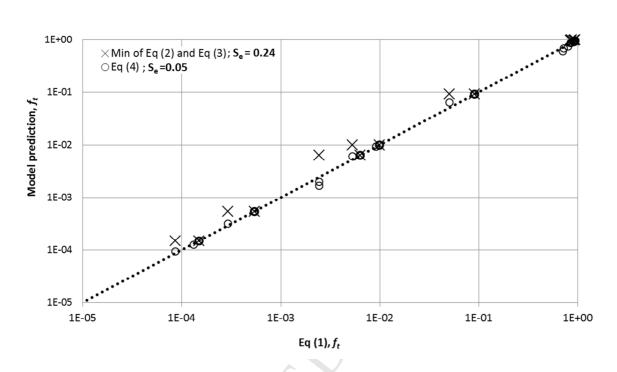


Figure 3. Comparison between the migrated fraction  $f_t$  predicted by the detailed model eq (1), by the HT model (Table 1) and by taking the minimum of the diffusion-based model eq (2) and the equilibrium-based model eq (3). Standard error, S<sub>e</sub>, on the logarithmic scale is indicated with the legend.

406	3.2 Model parametrization
407	Determination of the diffusion and partition coefficients, $D_P$ and $K_{P,F}$ , are essential to model migration
408	and key parameters in all model eqs (1) to (3) and in the HT model described in Table 1. For $D_P$ we
409	used the established equation presented by Begley et al. (2005) as shown in equation (5), but when
410	available a measured value or more precise model should be used for this parameter. Eq (9), Table 1,
411	provides the model to estimate the log-log linear approximation of $K_{P,F}$ . SI Figure S6 compares this
412	approximation with the empirical data reported in Table 2 of Ozaki et al. 2010 (Table 2),
413	demonstrating a good resulting correlation. The performance of the model on the log-scale was
414	described by standard error ( $S_e$ ), the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ), and the squared geometric
415	standard deviation (GSD <sup>2</sup> ); assuming with a log-normal distribution of uncertainty around the
416	modelled value, the product of the modelled value and GSD <sup>2</sup> is equal to the 97.5%-ile and the
417	quotient of the modelled value and GSD <sup>2</sup> is equal to the 2.5%-ile of the expected data uncertainty
418	distribution (Heijungs and Frischknecht 2004).

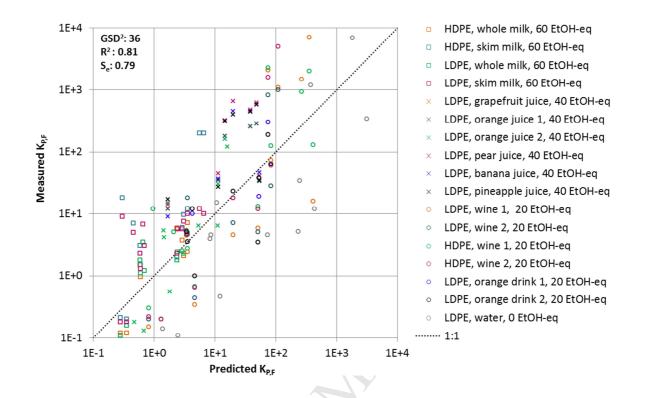


Figure 4. Comparison of the predictions of partition coefficients  $K_{P,F}$  by the HT model with empirical data from Mercea 2008; dotted line is the 1:1 diagonal; the squared geometric standard deviation (GSD<sup>2</sup>), standard error (S<sub>e</sub>) and coefficient of determination (R<sup>2</sup>) are evaluated on the log-scale.

419

Figure 4 demonstrates an external validation of the developed  $K_{P,F}$  model compared with empirical data for 17 chemicals from Appendix II Piringer & Baner (2008) (Mercea 2008) with various food types and two polymers at 23 °C (Figure 4). The considered chemicals' MWs ranged from 94 to 220 g/mol and from log K<sub>ow</sub> 1.3 to 5.2. The performance of the  $K_{P,F}$  model was reasonable for both LDPE and HDPE, likely because these polymers have similar properties influencing partitioning (e.g. polarity) (Ozaki et al. 2010). The applicability of the model for polymers other than LDPE and HDPE is unknown at this time and should be explored in future work. The influence of  $K_{P,F}$  uncertainty can be

430	understood by examining the influence of $\alpha$ on the ultimate equilibrium value, where $\alpha$ is a function
431	of $K_{P,F}$ and the volumes of food and packaging material. The sensitivity of the equilibrium value to $\alpha$
432	depends on the magnitude of $\alpha$ . Since equilibrium is determined as $\alpha$ / (1 + $\alpha$ ), eq (3), there is
433	maximum a factor 2 difference between the equilibrium values of any $\alpha >= 1$ (which range between
434	0.5 and 1). This means uncertainty of $K_{P,F}$ becomes less important as the equilibrium value increases.
435	When $\alpha <=0.1$ the sensitivity of the equilibrium value is mirrored, where a factor 10 difference in $\alpha$ (or
436	$K_{P,F}$ holding all else constant) results in nearly a factor 10 difference in the equilibrium value. This
437	means when equilibrium is low the uncertainty on $K_{P,F}$ is more important.
438	3.3 High-throughput migration modelling – external validation
439	The calculation speed for the HT migration model developed in this paper and listed in Table 1 is
440	nearly instantaneous, and the full model was programmed in a spreadsheet. Of the 4,492 FDA data
441	points with data available for parameterization 1,428 were excluded due to high $K_{ow}$ outside of the
442	range of the empirical data used for determining $K_{P,F}$ . We first applied the HT model (Table 1) with the
443	measured diffusion coefficients reported in the FDA database (SI Figure S6), considering all data
444	points (GSD <sup>2</sup> = 24, $R^2$ = 0.6, $S_e$ = 0.7). Two sets of data points from one experimental data set referred
445	to as "Models for the Migration of Low Molecular Weight Additives in Polyolefins. National Bureau of
446	Standards. Report NBSIR 81-2264, April, 1981.", corresponding to experiments for a chemical called

448 reported diffusion coefficients caused an unexplainable vertical shift (SI Figure S7) from the trend

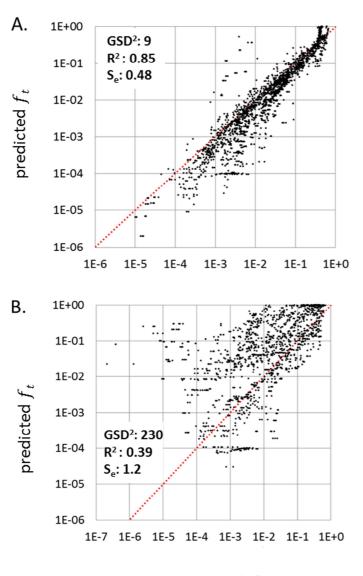
BHT in DEHP migration to corn oil and ethanol and dotriacontane in corn oil were clear outliers. The

observed for the rest of the data, including other data for the same chemicals, polymers and

447

450 simulants, suggesting analytical issues from this experimental dataset. We therefore also removed

451 these 744 points for these two chemicals of this dataset. Screening was finally performed for the 452 remaining 2,320 data points (Figure 5) and when using measured data for the diffusion coefficient 453 (Figure 5A), the uncertainty was minimal ( $GSD^2=8$ ,  $R^2=0.87$ ,  $S_e=0.48$ ).



measured  $f_t$ 

455	Figure 5A-B. Prediction of $m_{i,t}/m_{i,0}$ using the developed HT model (Table 1) compared to empirical
456	data from US FDA, where either the measured (Figure 5A) or modelled $D_P$ , eq (5) was used (Figure
457	5B). Dotted red line represents the 1:1 diagonal; the squared geometric standard deviation (GSD <sup>2</sup> ),
458	standard error ( $S_e$ ) and coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) values are evaluated on the log-scale.
459	Using eq (2) and eq (3) to model these points yielded the same results as applying the approach in
460	Table 1, because the experiments in the FDA study were all in the short-term contact duration
461	range—and in fact are reasonably estimable by only eq (2). The US FDA empirical dataset provides
462	estimated diffusion coefficients, therefore experiments were likely intentionally restricted to be in the
463	range of diffusion-dominating behaviour. To our knowledge there is no available empirical dataset to
464	test the model that covers a full range of measured values shifting from diffusion-dominated to
465	partition-dominated behaviour (as experiments are usually designed to obtain either of these
466	parameters).
467	When the HT model (Table 1) was applied with <i>modelled diffusion coefficients,</i> eq (5), the 95 <sup>th</sup>

percentile distribution increased by more than an order of magnitude on either side of the modelled point and the goodness of fit fell (Figure 5B) ( $GSD^2 = 230$ ,  $R^2 = 0.49$ ,  $S_e = 1.2$ ). This dramatic increase in uncertainty is thereby directly attributable to the diffusion coefficient model. To reduce the uncertainty of diffusion modelling, topological molecular descriptors (e.g. molecular volume) are an area of interest (Fang and Vitrac 2017); however, more accurate models using topological input parameters have not yet been operationalised for rapid HT modelling. Therefore, improving HTcompatible modelling of the diffusion coefficient, for example through quantitative property-property

475 relationship modelling (Huang et al. 2017b), is necessary for future HT models estimating migration of
476 chemicals from packaging into food.

Eq (1) and the resulting HT approach is mathematically valid when the matrix of the food poses no 477 resistance to diffusion and is continuously mixed, e.g. valid for fluids, which is the most studied and 478 479 empirically validated scenario (Pocas 2008; Piringer and Baner 2008). Most of the empirical data used to validate the model is from liquid foods (e.g. beverages) and only several experiments were 480 481 available for non-liquid foods, mayonnaise and chocolate. Given these limited data, there was also good agreement between the model and the estimates of the migration of chemicals from packaging 482 into foods (SI Figure S9). Further work would be required to develop and test the model against solid 483 and dry foods; applying a multiplying ratio of the diffusion coefficients between food and polymer 484 485 may be useful in future approaches to adjust the model (Piringer and Baner 2008).

#### 486 **4. Conclusion**

High-throughput (HT) modelling approaches were developed to estimate the fraction of an organic 487 488 chemical migrating from a polymeric food contact material into a food. The primary aim was to operationalize migration modelling, e.g. eqs (1)-(3), to be suitable for decision-support tools that 489 require rapid calculation of best-estimates of migration. Setting the partition coefficient between 490 packaging and food equal to one (which we found was not a universal "worst-case" scenario) can lead 491 492 to grossly misestimating the equilibrium value. Therefore, we also developed methods to estimate 493 the partition coefficient to ensure more accurate HT methods. A main outcome was furthermore, a method to more precisely determine the timespan for which an existing simple, diffusion-based 494 495 model, eq (2), is valid. We determined this simple model is valid when the contact duration between

the food and package is less than the developed prediction for  $t_d^*$  (eq 6, Table 1), which can range from fractions of a second to several years depending on the input parameters and can be predicted as a function of  $\alpha$  and CTM – the characteristic time of migration.

By providing a method to determine  $t_d^*$ , the timespan where eq (2) is valid, and additionally 499 500 developing a method to estimate migration after  $t_d^*$ , the developed HT model (Table 1) is valid over all relevant timespans. The new HT model also showed good agreement with eq (1) over a full range 501 502 of input parameters and agreement improved as the parameter  $\alpha$  increased (meaning the equilibrium concentration in food increased). The developed HT model offers substantial improvement compared 503 to the combination of the minimum value of the diffusion-based model eq (2), and the equilibrium 504 value eq (3), that may otherwise over-estimate  $f_t$  by a factor of 3 after  $t_d^*$  and before equilibrium is 505 506 achieved. Additionally, our model was more accurate by several orders of magnitude than using eq (1) 507 with a limited number of tabulated roots at short time scales; therefore the developed HT model is 508 preferred to eq (1) for comparative assessments that aim at average rather than conservative estimates. Furthermore, the model demonstrated good agreement with measured data, especially 509 when using a measured diffusion coefficient. When a modelled diffusion coefficient was used, there 510 was a drastic increase in uncertainty, underscoring the importance of improving diffusion coefficient 511 512 modelling.

The developed model, as well as eq (1), rely on  $\alpha$  which is a direct function of the partition coefficient between a polymer and a food,  $K_{P,F}$ . The model we developed, eq (9), to estimate  $K_{P,F}$  as a function of the chemical  $K_{ow}$  and the food's assigned ethanol-equivalency, EtOH-eq, also had good agreement with the empirical data (R<sup>2</sup>=0.81) which are limited to LDPE and HDPE polymers. The approach is

similar to other models (Seiler et al. 2014), however, we additionally provide the equation to support
application in future uses.

The developed model is intended for future use in decision support tools that consider exposure to 519 chemicals in food packaging materials in a variety of scenarios, for example in Life Cycle Assessment 520 521 (LCA) or high-throughput risk-based screening (HTRS) (Shin et al. 2015; Jolliet et al. 2015b). In such decision support assessments the model could be combined with the initial chemical mass in a food 522 523 packaging material in order to estimate the migrated mass and subsequent exposure. Furthermore, in order to estimate risk exposure estimates can be combined with toxicity information, e.g. if available 524 through high-throughput screening (Karmaus et al. 2016) and relevant dosimetry adjustments 525 (Wetmore et al. 2015). The initial concentration of chemicals in various consumer products are 526 527 becoming increasingly available through databases (Goldsmith et al. 2014); however, concentrations 528 of chemicals in packaging are not yet available. Future research is required to fill this concerning data gap, e.g. through rapid analytical identification methods or function-based chemical concentration 529 modelling, as has been recently performed for cosmetics (Isaacs et al. 2016). 530

The model was specifically designed to address the need for estimating the product intake fraction (Jolliet et al. 2015a) (Section 2.1) of food contact materials in LCA. Recent studies have underscored trade-offs between environmental impacts of food packaging systems and exposure to potentially toxic chemicals in food packaging materials (Lee et al. 2014; Yuan et al. 2016; Leslie et al. 2016). Considering exposure to chemicals in packaging within LCA could, for example, help ensure that system or packaging designs aiming to minimize environmental impacts (e.g. greenhouse gas emissions or resource use) do not unintentionally increase exposure to hazardous chemicals in

- packaging, and vice versa that system or product designs to minimize migration and exposure to
  hazardous substances do not increase environmental impacts.
- 540 In all, this study presents a rapid method to provide best-estimates of migration of chemicals from
- 541 packaging with a first focus on organic chemicals in polymeric food packaging. Future work could
- 542 extend this approach to other food contact materials (e.g. paper and board) and chemical types (e.g.
- 543 nanoparticles or inorganic chemicals). Future focus on diffusion coefficient modelling, for polymers
- and other material types, should also be a priority to improve the accuracy of migration modelling in
- 545 general. Additionally, future work should focus on identifying data availabilities that will be required
- 546 for application of the model in decision support tools, such as the initial chemicals in packaging and
- 547 toxicity of these chemicals.

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- 552

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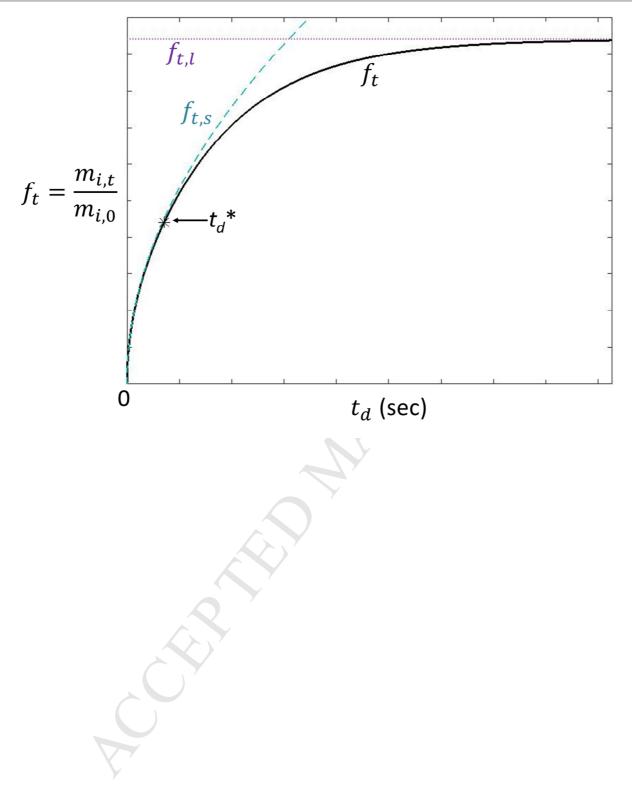
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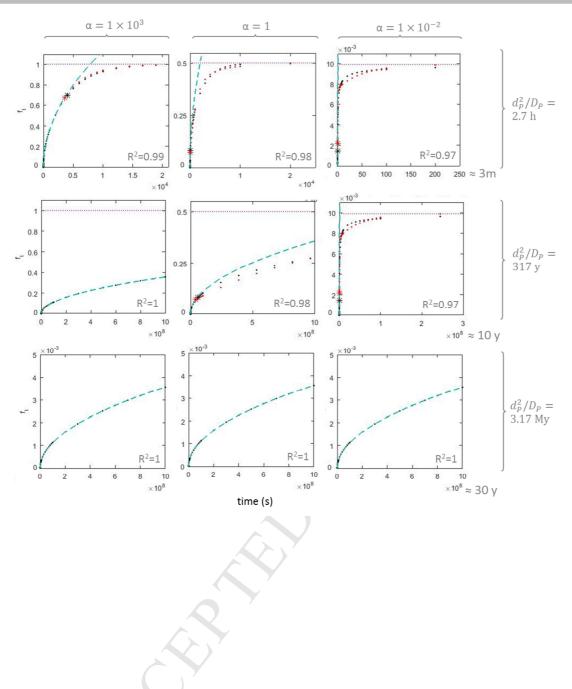
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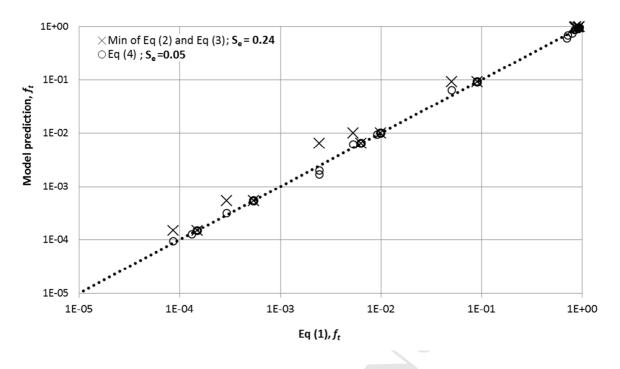
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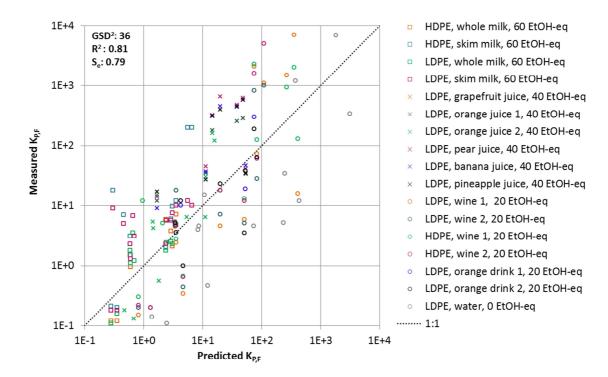
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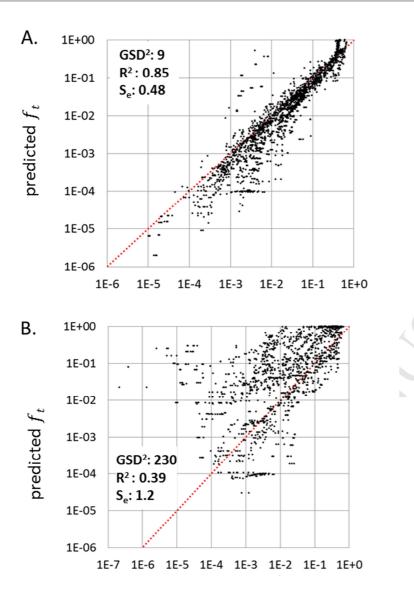




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# Highlights

- A rapid and accurate migration model for chemicals in food packaging was developed for exposure screening and assessment.
- The model estimates the product intake fraction due to transfer of organic chemicals in polymeric packaging to food.
- The model is a function of packaging, food, and chemical aspects, as well as time and temperature.
- The model performs well when compared to empirical data, but the diffusion coefficient estimation leads to uncertainty.
- The model is available for dissemination in a spreadsheet to facilitate application in prioritization and screening tools.

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