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Determination of the bioaccessible fraction of cupric oxide nanoparticles in soils using an *in vitro* human digestibility simulation.

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24 **Abstract**

25 This study investigated the bioaccessible fractions (BAFs) of Cu from copper-based
26 nanomaterials present in soil to humans using an *in vitro* artificial simulation of the stomach;
27 followed by the simulation of the small intestinal environment. The work compared the
28 behaviour of coated and uncoated cupric oxide nanoparticles (CuO NPs) with CuSO₄ and the
29 equivalent bulk CuO, and earthworms as a potential surrogate of human bioaccessibility. The
30 calculated BAFs for the BGS 102 reference soil and the LUFA 2.2 soil (no added Cu) were ≤
31 40%. In contrast, the LUFA 2.2 Cu-dosed soils measured statistically significant higher mean
32 BAFs (ANOVA, $p < 0.05$); in general all above 60%. The calculated BAFs in the gastric phase
33 did not differ statistically amongst the materials tested, both at low and high Cu dosing
34 (ANOVA, $p > 0.05$). In the gastro-intestinal conditions, at the 200 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil concentration,
35 the calculated BAFs for CuSO₄, bulk and nano CuO were 76.6%, 72.7% and 83.4%,
36 respectively, and also did not differ statistically (ANOVA, $p > 0.05$). At the 1000 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil
37 concentration, only the coated CuO NPs measured BAFs > 80%; with the COOH- and PEG-
38 coated CuO NPs significantly more bioaccessible (ANOVA, $p < 0.05$) than all the other Cu-
39 based materials. In terms of human health risks from ingested soil, this study did not show
40 significant differences between soluble and particulate forms of Cu, but Cu concentrations from
41 the gastro-intestinal phase digestion of soil were predicted by earthworm Cu concentrations.

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45 Keywords: engineered nanomaterials, earthworms, copper, soil, BARGE

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50 **Introduction**

51

52 Engineered nanomaterials (ENMs) acquire some of their novel properties from a typically high
53 surface area to volume ratio, which influences both the physical and chemical behaviours of the
54 materials.¹ Their unique properties at the nanoscale, including quantum chemistry and enhanced
55 reactivity, are underling innovations in nanotechnology; with a continual increase in the
56 manufacturing volumes of ENMs. Nanomaterials have found applications in new electronics,
57 industrial coatings, textiles, building materials, medicines, cosmetics, food packaging and in
58 chemical/biological remediation. In particular, copper-containing ENMs have been proposed as
59 additives in animal feeds² and as components of antifungal biocides for agriculture use.³

60 Inevitably, ENMs will enter the environment and the predicted concentrations in surface
61 waters are in the low $\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ range or less, depending on the type of material.⁴ However, an
62 important final sink for ENMs is the soil environment.⁵ ENMs may find their way into soils
63 directly through the application of nano-enhanced biocides or fertilisers, from atmospheric
64 deposition, leaching from streams, and also accidental releases. However, a main concern for the
65 fate of ENMs is the application of sewage sludge to agricultural soils; where environmental
66 concentrations of ENMs in sludge-amended soil are expected to be around the $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ range.⁶
67 Worse case predictions in the mg kg^{-1} range have also been reported for soils.⁷ Unfortunately, the
68 quantification of ENM release into the environment, especially in complex matrices such as soil,
69 is very challenging⁸ and there is a dearth of field measurements from natural soils to confirm any
70 predictions.

71 Soil quality is important to the health of terrestrial ecosystems, for agriculture, and for
72 human health with respect to food safety and the incidental ingestion of soil. Consequently, there
73 are guideline values for allowable total metal concentrations in soils. Some countries have set
74 guideline values for total copper (Cu) in soils (e.g., Canada, 63 - 91 mg Cu kg^{-1} , CCME⁹;
75 Finland, 100 – 200 mg Cu kg^{-1} , MEF¹⁰); but as yet there are no guideline values for nano forms
76 of Cu, despite some predicted concentrations (e.g., CuCO_3 ENMs, 32 – 100 $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$, Gottschalk
77 *et al.*¹¹). For Cu and other metals, the hazard to wildlife and human health from ingested soil is
78 not from the total metal content of the soil, but the bioavailable fraction that may be taken up
79 internally by the organism. From an environmental chemistry perspective, the dissolved metal in
80 the pore water and any labile metal easily removed from the soil grains might be regarded as

81 bioavailable. For ingested soil, the bioaccessible fraction is also considered. The precise
82 distinction between ‘bioavailable’ and ‘bioaccessible’ fractions of contaminants is debated (e.g.,
83 Semple *et al.*¹²), but the bioaccessible fraction can be defined as the fraction released in the gut
84 lumen during digestion that has the potential to be taken up by the organism.¹³ In the context of
85 human exposure to ingested soil, the bioaccessible fraction represents the maximum amount of
86 contaminant that is available for intestinal absorption. Regardless of the definitions, these
87 concepts were developed with the dissolved metal paradigm in mind, and as yet, it remains
88 unclear if these notions can also be applied to ENMs.

89 It is estimated that children ingest 100 mg of soil a day¹⁴, and this is a concern for human
90 health risk assessments. Thus for the predictions of 100 $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ of Cu ENMs in soil above, this
91 might represent a daily ingestion of 0.01 μg in the nano form. Copper is an essential nutrient,
92 with humans requiring 1 - 2 mg of Cu day⁻¹, and under these normal circumstances the
93 bioavailability of Cu salts is around 30 - 40% of the dose.¹⁵ However, the gut is a protective
94 barrier, and absorption declines exponentially with dose, so that only a few percent is
95 bioavailable across the gut in potentially toxic situations.^{15,16} Whether or not nano forms of Cu
96 behave in this way is unclear, but for TiO₂ particles at least, the metal uptake rates across the
97 vertebrate intestine are consistent with a bioavailable fraction of a few percent of the dose.¹⁷

98 Of course, it is not possible to conduct human oral exposure studies on contaminants, and
99 for risk assessment purposes data on uptake of ENMs has been collected using oral gavage
100 studies in rodents;¹⁸ or *in vitro* models such as Caco-2 cells¹⁹ and perfused intestines.¹⁷ Animal
101 studies should be limited in keeping with the ethical considerations of the 3Rs, but even the latter
102 *in vitro* approaches require considerable technical expertise and these methods have not yet been
103 standardised for regulatory toxicology. Alternatively, *in chemico* approaches that simulate the
104 digestive processes in the lumen of the human gut have been available for many years and
105 standardised with regulatory use in mind. The approach uses artificial saliva, gastric and
106 intestinal juices to mimic the human digestive system from the oral cavity through to the small
107 intestines; with adjustments of pH and additions of enzymes as appropriate for each region of the
108 gut.²⁰ The large intestine is not simulated in these models, as it is assumed that most of the
109 contaminant would be absorbed earlier in the digestive tract (an assumption not yet proven for
110 nano). Nonetheless, this approach also known as ‘*in vitro* digestibility’ by the nutrition discipline
111 has been used to study metal releases from food,²¹ and contaminated soils²² so that the

112 bioaccessible fractions can be estimated. However, the simulated human digestion of soil has
113 not been established for ENMs.

114 The aim of the present study was to determine the bioaccessible fraction of Cu from
115 copper sulfate (CuSO_4) compared to pristine cupric oxide (CuO) ENMs and a bulk CuO powder
116 in soil. In addition, the effect of surface coatings on the ENMs was investigated using a range of
117 coatings on the common CuO core to represent anionic (carboxylate, COOH), cationic
118 (ammonium, NH_4^+) and neutral ligands (polyethylene glycol, PEG). To add some environmental
119 realism, a natural soil was used that had been subject to bioturbation by earthworms prior to the
120 determination of the bioaccessible fractions in the soil. The unified bioaccessibility research
121 group of Europe (BARGE) method²³ was selected for this work and adapted for ENMs. The
122 method involved a two phase *in chemico* digestion process to simulate, (i) the mouth conditions
123 and the low acidic environment of the human stomach, and (ii) the ensuing human upper
124 intestinal with very mild acidic conditions.

125

126 **Methodology**

127

128 ***Soil preparation***

129

130 The exposure of the soils was conducted as part of an earthworm acute toxicity test using an
131 adaptation of OECD TG 207 for ENMs. The results of the earthworm ecotoxicity tests are
132 reported elsewhere,²⁴ and the focus here is on the soil chemistry. Briefly, the experimental design
133 included a control soil (no added Cu or ENMs), a metal salt control of Cu as CuSO_4 at 200 mg
134 Cu kg^{-1} dry soil weight, the uncoated CuO ENM, and those coated with $-\text{NH}_4^+$, $-\text{COOH}$ or $-\text{PEG}$
135 respectively. The precise details of how the coatings were synthesised and attached to the ENM
136 core is commercially sensitive information of the suppliers, but for clarity we use the term ' $-\text{NH}_4^+$ '
137 to mean an $-\text{NH}_3$ terminal ligand that has been ionised with H^+ ions to achieve positive
138 charge. The CuO ENMs were provided by PlasmaChem as part of the Nanosolutions EU project.
139 The microscale (bulk) CuO material was obtained from BDH Chemicals Ltd, UK, and the metal
140 salt ($\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$) from Sigma-Aldrich. The hypothesis was that the bioaccessibility potential of
141 the copper dosed in the soil may be affected by the material type (e.g., nano *versus* bulk material
142 or metal salt) and also coating-effects in case of the nanomaterials. For the ENMs, two test

143 concentrations were selected; a lower concentration of 200 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil representing around
144 three times the expected background concentration of total Cu in European soils (the latter, ~ 60
145 mg Cu kg⁻¹, Heijerick *et al.*²⁵). An upper concentration of 1000 mg Cu kg⁻¹ equivalent to that
146 suggested in the limit test for soil organisms according to OECD²⁶ was also used.

147 A standard sandy loam LUFA 2.2 (LUFA Speyer, Germany) soil was used with the
148 following composition (supplier's information, mean ± SD, dry soil, *n* = not specified): pH of 5.5
149 ± 0.2 (measured in 0.01 M CaCl₂ solution); organic carbon, 1.8 ± 0.2%; nitrogen content at 0.17
150 ± 0.02%; and cation exchange capacity, 10.1 ± 0.2 meq 100 g⁻¹). The water-holding capacity of
151 the soil was measured in-house and was 41.3 ± 3.0 g 100 g⁻¹ dry weight. The soil used for the
152 earthworm tests was sieved through a 2 mm mesh and air dried at 25 °C. The soil pH was
153 measured prior to the start and at the end of the experiment (in a 1:1 soil: water slurry, using a
154 glass combination electrode, Corning 420), in addition to the metal composition (see below).

155 The ENMs, bulk CuO and CuSO₄ were mixed into the soil as dry powders by hand to
156 ensure the test substance was evenly distributed, and the soils were then wetted to 50 - 55%
157 water holding capacity (WHC) with ultrapure Milli-Q water (18.2 Ω). Four replicate boxes of
158 soil *per* treatment were prepared and the soil was left to equilibrate with the moisture for one day
159 prior to adding the earthworms. Adult *Eisenia fetida* (Savigny, 1826) with a typical mean starting
160 wet weight of 5.5 ± 0.1 g (mean ± S.E.M, for a subsample of 12 of the initial earthworms) were
161 exposed in 4 replicates (*n* = 12 earthworms *per* box, *n* = 48 earthworms *per* treatment) at 20 ± 1
162 °C at 12:8 light:dark cycle.

163 After 14 days in the earthworm tests, approximately 30 g of wet soil was collected from
164 each box and weighed (Sartorius BP 210) into previously acid washed (5% (v/v) nitric acid,
165 Fisher, Primer Plus Trace Metals Analysis Grade) and deionised ceramic drying boats. The soil
166 samples were then dried to constant mass at 85 °C (Gallenkamp OV-160), allowed to cool to
167 room temperature, and sieved to < 250 µm. The particle size fraction was chosen to represent the
168 upper limit that is likely to stick to infants' hands.²⁷

169 In addition to the natural soils from the earthworm tests, BGS Guidance Material 102,²⁸
170 which is an ironstone soil from Lincolnshire, England was also used to validate the analytical
171 chemistry. This reference soil had not been used in the earthworm tests. In order to ensure
172 complete soil re-homogenisation, the BGS 102 soil sample bottle was shaken manually for a few
173 minutes before it was opened. The soil reference samples were digested and chemically analysed

174 strictly using the same approach applied to the LUFA 2.2 soil samples, but without any additions
175 of Cu materials.

176

177 *Characterisation of Nanomaterials*

178

179 The characterisation included measurements of the primary particles sizes, the dispersion of the
180 particles in ultrapure water and dialysis experiments to assess any dissolution of dissolved Cu
181 from the particles. The CuO NPs were first examined using transmission electron microscopy
182 (TEM, JEOL-1200EX II) for the primary particle size. Fresh stock suspensions, at 100 mg l⁻¹
183 nominal concentration, were prepared in Milli-Q water and sub-samples were examined visually
184 with $n = 60$ measurements of particle diameter *per* sample (conducted manually using ImageJ).
185 The particle size distribution of the ENMs in the stock dispersions were also measured by
186 nanoparticle tracking analysis (NTA) using a Nanosight LM 10 (Malvern Instruments, UK).
187 Three sub-samples from each of the fresh stock suspensions were vortexed for 10 s immediately
188 before analysis by NTA (Table 1).

189 Dialysis experiments were conducted in Milli-Q water at room temperature to measure
190 the degree of copper metal ion dissolution from all the ENMs. Dialysis bags were filled with 8
191 ml of the appropriate test suspension at 100 mg l⁻¹ nominal concentration, and suspended in a
192 600 ml beaker containing 492 ml of Milli-Q water (in triplicate beakers). Samples of 1 ml were
193 taken from the external compartment of the beaker at time zero, 30 min, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 12 and 24 h
194 for total Cu determination by ICP-OES or ICP-MS as appropriate. The data were subsequently
195 fitted to a rectangular hyperbola (using SigmaPlot 13), and the maximum initial dissolution rate
196 calculated from the maximum slope.

197

198 *Aqua regia acid digestion of the soils, earthworms and nanomaterials*

199

200 This was performed so that the total copper concentrations in the soil samples could be
201 determined in order to facilitate calculations of the percentage of bioaccessible fractions. Briefly,
202 *aqua regia* was prepared by adding 1 volume of > 68% concentrated nitric acid to 3 volumes of
203 concentrated ~37% hydrochloric acid; both acids were of trace metal analysis grade (Fisher).
204 This acidic mixture was allowed for a few minutes to develop into a golden coloured solution.

205 Then 10.0 ml of the *aqua regia* mixture was gently added into each 50 ml polypropylene tube
206 containing 0.3 g of accurately weighed dried, sieved soil ($n = 2$ technical replicates, in
207 accordance to INERIS²³) from each box ($n = 4$ boxes) *per* treatment or control exposure. Two
208 blank samples (without any soil) were analysed with every set of unknown samples. The tubes
209 were heated with gentle mixing for 15 hours in a water bath set at 50 °C. At the end of the
210 heating time, each tube was mixed and its contents were allowed to cool down. Afterwards, 1 ml
211 samples were taken from the clear upper part of each tube and diluted with 4 ml of 0.1 M nitric
212 acid.

213 Acid digestion of the earthworms following day 7 and day 14 soil exposure is described
214 elsewhere.²⁴ In addition, the original ENMs, bulk CuO and the equivalent metal salt, as dry
215 powders, were also acid digested to verify their metal content. A known amount of powder ($n =$
216 3) was accurately weighed into a 20 ml polypropylene tube; three additional empty tubes with no
217 material added to them were included as blanks. To each tube, 10.0 ml of the *aqua regia* mixture
218 was gently added, followed by the same acid digestion method (see above) used for the soil
219 samples.

220

221 ***Preparation of the synthetic gastro-intestinal digestive fluids***

222

223 All the reagents used for the copper bioaccessibility determination in soil were of analytical
224 grade, and are listed in Supplementary Table S1 for each type of synthetic fluid. The pH meter
225 (Thermo Scientific Orion 2-Star Plus meter fitted with a Russell combination electrode) was
226 precisely calibrated to pH 4.0, 7.0 and 10.0 at the start of each experiment. The synthetic
227 digestive fluids (saliva, gastric, duodenal, bile) were prepared using sterile glass distilled water
228 (distilled from ion-free ultrapure water, 18 M Ω resistance). The different fluid components
229 (inorganic and organic, respectively) were placed separately on a magnetic stirring (IKA-
230 WERKE R015) set at speed 3 for at least 3 h to ensure adequate mixing of each solution. Then,
231 each digestive fluid was prepared by combining 250 ml of the inorganic and 250 ml of the
232 organic components solutions, and with the addition of enzymatic components. Once the
233 digestive fluid components were all mixed together, the fluids were allowed to acclimatise and
234 stir for an hour at 37 °C before use. Fig. S1 shows the serial additions of each type of fluid in
235 relation to the steps in the digestion method.

236

237 ***Gastric phase and gastro-intestinal phase digestion***

238

239 An outline of the adapted *in vitro* gastro-intestinal digestion protocol from INERIS²³ is depicted
240 in Fig. S1. As for the *aqua regia* acid digestion method (see above), 0.3 g of dried, sieved soil
241 was used for each bioaccessibility digestion (gastric phase and gastro-intestinal phase,
242 respectively). The same order of statistical replication ($n = 2$ technical soil replicate samples for
243 each soil box) was also followed for each digestion phase, including the use of two blanks.

244

245 ***Total copper determination***

246

247 The total copper concentration in the samples following *aqua regia* digestion or the adapted
248 BARGE methods were determined by inductively coupled plasma optical emission
249 spectrophotometry (ICP-OES, Thermo Scientific, iCAP 7000 Series), or equivalent mass
250 spectrophotometry (ICP-MS, Thermo Scientific, X Series 2). The instrument detection limit for
251 the ICP-OES was 0.008 mg l⁻¹ Cu and for the ICP-MS was 0.003 mg l⁻¹ Cu. Briefly, samples
252 were acidified, matrix-matched to the ICP-OES/ICP-MS standard metal solutions used for
253 calibration, with 0.8 mg l⁻¹ yttrium as an internal standard. Sample blanks were included every
254 10 samples in each run of the instruments.

255

256 ***Calculation of the bioaccessible fractions***

257

258 The bioaccessible fraction (BAF) was calculated as a percentage of the total metal for each box
259 from the earthworm study, and for the BGS reference soil using Eq. (1);

260

$$261 \quad BAF [\%] = \frac{Cu_{bioaccessible} [mg\ Cu\ kg^{-1}\ soil]}{Cu_{total} [mg\ Cu\ kg^{-1}\ soil]} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

262

263 where $Cu_{bioaccessible}$ was the mean total copper concentration measured in the soil samples ($n = 2$
264 technical replicates within each soil sample from each box), following separately either the
265 gastric phase or the gastro-intestinal phase digestion, and Cu_{total} referred to the mean total

266 copper concentration measured from the *aqua regia* acid digestion ($n = 2$ technical replicates
267 within each soil sample from each box).

268

269 ***Statistical analysis***

270

271 The data are shown as mean \pm standard error of the mean (S.E.M). The coefficient of variation
272 (CV) was also calculated to describe the resultant percentage variability amongst the BAF values
273 determined from the separate soil boxes ($n = 4$ boxes *per* treatment). All statistical analyses were
274 carried out using IBM SPSS Statistics 22 and Microsoft Excel 2010. Following descriptive
275 statistics, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to assess the normality of the distribution of
276 data. Independent student *t*-tests and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA, Tukey *post hoc*
277 test) were used to check for significant differences amongst responses from within each test
278 material and treatments. In instances where the data was not normally distributed, the non-
279 parametric Mann-Whitney U test was used to assess differences between two independent
280 groups. Likewise, the Kruskal-Wallis test was used as an alternative to a one-way between-
281 groups analysis of variance. Figures were prepared using SigmaPlot 13.

282

283 **Results**

284

285 ***Particle characterisation and the total measured copper content in the test materials***

286

287 The total measured Cu concentration in the different test materials as original powders is
288 presented in Table 1, along with the details of purity, primary particle size and surface area of the
289 materials investigated. The primary particle sizes of the test materials, as measured by
290 transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images, were not found to exceed the manufacturer's
291 reported size range (10 - 20 nm). Following dispersion of the test materials in water, the mean
292 hydrodynamic diameter of the aggregates, as measured by nanoparticle tracking analysis were:
293 41 nm in the uncoated CuO NPs, 46 nm in the ammonium-coated CuO NPs, 121 nm in the
294 COOH-coated CuO NPs and 100 nm in the PEG-coated CuO NPs. The dialysis experiments
295 revealed some Cu dissolution from the different CuO NPs in ultrapure water. The dissolution
296 rate of the uncoated CuO NPs was low ($1.68 \mu\text{g Cu h}^{-1}$, Table 1), but in comparison, all the

297 coated CuO NPs had higher dissolution rates; greater than $18 \mu\text{g Cu h}^{-1}$ (Table 1). However, the
298 rates were still micromolar, and even the highest rates would only equate to around 6 – 9% of the
299 total metal being released every hour.

300 On a mass basis of each material, the Cu content of material varied according to the
301 proportion of mass attributed to the coating. As a result of their chemical composition, less total
302 Cu was measured in the coated ENMs relative to the uncoated form (Table 1). For the coated
303 CuO NPs, the NH_4^+ -coated NPs were found to contain the highest measured fraction of Cu
304 (0.52), followed by the COOH-coated NPs (0.43) and least Cu in the PEG-coated NPs (0.29).
305 Overall, the total Cu measurements in strong acid digests from the initial ENMs were reliable
306 with low coefficients of variations between replicates. Within-sample precision (triplicate
307 readings from the same sample) produced coefficient of variation values (CVs) ranging from
308 0.6% in CuSO_4 to 8.7% in the uncoated CuO NPs. The actual measured concentrations were
309 always a little less than the nominal concentrations. However, the calculated percentages, of the
310 actual measured concentrations relative to the nominal concentrations, for CuSO_4 , bulk- and
311 nano-CuO were all above 85%.

312

313 ***Total measured copper concentrations in soil***

314

315 The exposure was confirmed by the measured total copper following the *aqua regia* digestion of
316 the soil samples (Fig. 1). The results of precision testing following the *aqua regia* acid digestion
317 in soil are presented in Supplementary Table S2, and the reproducibility of measurements
318 between boxes of soil was good. The unexposed control soils, without any addition of copper
319 (LUF 2.2 soil and BGS 102 soil reference material), showed low Cu concentrations, as
320 expected (Fig. 1). All the Cu-dosed soils showed an increase in Cu concentration (Fig. 1) that
321 was consistent with the material types presented, and the relative proportions of Cu on a mass
322 basis expected in the different particle forms (Table 1). From correlation analysis (Fig. S2), a
323 positive relationship was also clear between the nominal and actual measured Cu concentrations
324 in soil following *aqua regia*, gastric and gastro-intestinal soil digestion. Furthermore, from all
325 soil extractions (Fig. 1), a statistical significant higher mean concentration of Cu in soil
326 (ANOVA, $p < 0.05$) was consistently measured in the *aqua regia* digests, as compared to the
327 gastric and the gastro-intestinal digests (milder digestion methods).

328 At the lower nominal 200 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil concentration (Fig. 1A), the measured
329 concentrations of Cu in the soil were not statistically different (ANOVA, $p > 0.05$) between the
330 gastric and the gastro-intestinal digests; with the exception of the uncoated CuO NPs dosed soils
331 that measured a higher mean concentration of Cu following the gastro-intestinal phase digestion.
332 At the 1000 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil concentration (Fig. 1B), the measured mean Cu concentrations from
333 bulk CuO and the uncoated CuO NPs in the soil digests, following the gastric phase and the
334 gastro-intestinal phase digestion did not differ (ANOVA, $p > 0.05$). In contrast, all coated CuO
335 NPs digests were found to have higher levels of Cu following the gastro-intestinal phase
336 digestion, in comparison with the gastric phase digestion.

337

338 ***Calculated bioaccessible fractions***

339

340 A relatively high Cu concentration measurement in soil was not found to necessarily represent a
341 greater bioaccessibility potential for that metal in soil, as evident from the gastro-intestinal
342 digestions (Fig. 2). At both the 200 and 1000 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil concentration, higher overall BAF
343 values were calculated from the gastro-intestinal phase relative to the gastric phase digestion
344 (Fig. 2, Table S3). However, in terms of the individual Cu-materials tested (Fig. 2) there were a
345 few statistical differences between the calculated gastric and gastro-intestinal BAFs (t -test, $p <$
346 0.05). Mean BAFs greater than 80% were only recorded in the gastro-intestinal phase digestion
347 (Fig. 2, Table S3) for the uncoated CuO NPs (low dose exposure) and in the COOH-, PEG- and
348 NH₄⁺-coated CuO NPs (high dose exposure).

349

350 ***Gastric phase digestion BAFs***

351

352 Following the gastric phase digestion, the calculated mean percentage BAFs for the control BGS
353 102 soil and the LUFA 2.2 soil (with no added copper) were 35.3% and 38.8% respectively
354 (Table S3, Fig. 2). These two mean BAF values were not significantly different (ANOVA, $p >$
355 0.05); whereas all LUFA 2.2 soils dosed with Cu were found to have much higher percentage
356 BAF values, ranging from a minimum of 53.5%, a maximum of 98.1% and a median value of
357 69.3%. Irrespective of the initial nominal soil input Cu concentration (low or high), all soil

358 treatments with CuO NPs, or with bulk CuO or copper sulfate in the gastric phase digestion (Fig.
359 2) did not differ significantly in their calculated percentage BAF (ANOVA, $p > 0.05$).

360

361 *Gastro-intestinal phase digestion BAFs*

362

363 The calculated Cu BAF values in soil following the gastro-intestinal phase digestion are in
364 general comparable to the outcome following the gastric phase digestion (Figs. 2A and B).
365 However, a greater distribution of the percentage BAF values was evident from the gastro-
366 intestinal phase digestion. Percentage BAFs ranged from a minimum of 38.7%, a maximum of
367 96.7% and a median of 73.4%. The mean Cu percentage BAFs determined for bulk CuO and the
368 uncoated CuO NPs in the gastro-intestinal phase digestion, did not differ statistically between the
369 low and high Cu dosage (ANOVA, $p > 0.05$); but higher mean BAF values were calculated at the
370 200 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil concentration (Figure 2A). The opposite was true for all coated CuO NPs,
371 where higher mean percentage BAFs resulted at the 1000 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil concentration (Fig.
372 2B).

373

374 *Calculated BAFs relative to metal dissolution and uptake in earthworms*

375

376 In Fig. 3, the concentration of total Cu in the soil (Fig. 3A) and the percentage of bioaccessible
377 fraction (Fig. 3B) for the gastro-intestinal phase were plotted against the maximum dissolution
378 rates of copper following dialysis experiments of the different test materials in Milli-Q water.
379 Dissolution rate was inversely related to gastro-intestinal phase Cu concentration, with the trend
380 most evident at the soil dose of 1000 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil (Fig. 3A). However, there was no clear
381 relationship between the percent of BAF and metal dissolution at the 200 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil
382 concentration (Fig. 3B). At the higher soil exposure dose, an increase in metal dissolution rate
383 coincided with higher measurements of gastro-intestinal BAFs, in the order of: uncoated CuO
384 NPs, NH₄⁺-coated CuO NPs, PEG-coated CuO NPs and COOH-coated CuO NPs (highest).

385 In contrast to the dissolution rate data, there was a clear correlation between the gastro-
386 intestinal phase Cu concentration and the Cu concentration in the earthworms (Fig. 3C), with an
387 r^2 value of 0.94 for all the data, regardless of exposure concentration. However, this relationship
388 was lost when the data were presented as the calculated gastro-intestinal BAFs and Cu

389 concentrations in the earthworms following 14 days of exposure (Fig. 3D). At the 200 mg Cu kg⁻¹
390 soil concentration, no clear pattern was evident between the calculated BAFs and earthworm
391 copper concentration. However, at the higher exposure dose in the soil (1000 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil
392 concentration). The measured BAF values for the COOH-, NH₄⁺-coated CuO NPs and the
393 uncoated CuO NPs were however inversely proportional to the measured Cu content in
394 earthworms. The order of measured metal concentration in the earthworms by coating also
395 coincided with the relative amount of copper in the different test materials (see Table 1).

396

397

398 **Discussion**

399

400 This study reports the BAF of Cu from cupric oxide nanoparticles with different surface
401 coatings, compared to the metal salt and bulk powder controls, using the *in vitro* human gastro-
402 intestinal BARGE method. Overall, the data shows that there is a bioaccessible fraction of Cu
403 (form unknown) from all the materials tested, and this broadly follows the notion of dose-
404 response with more total metal available at the higher nominal concentrations in the soil.
405 Crucially, there was a material-type effect that was also dependent on the phase of digestion. In
406 the gastric phase, the BAF were similar at around 70% of the total metal, regardless of the
407 material tested. However, in the gastro-intestinal phase some material-type effects were revealed;
408 with the CuO NPs sometimes having higher BAFs than the metal salt. While the BAF values
409 correlated well with the original total measured Cu concentrations in the soil, they were not
410 easily explained by the dissolved metal paradigm. For the nanomaterials, there was no
411 correlation between the BAF and the dissolution rate of the particles. Moreover, the
412 bioaccumulation pattern in earthworms from the same soils did not correlate easily with BAF
413 values either. Only when the absolute Cu concentration from the gastro-intestinal phase was
414 plotted against the Cu concentration in the earthworms was a correlation revealed; indicating that
415 metal concentration in earthworms might be a possible surrogate of the human health risks from
416 ingested soil for these nanomaterial.

417

418 ***Validation of the unified BARGE method for ENMs***

419

420 The unified BARGE method is a relatively well-standardised and validated method for
421 determining the bioaccessible fractions of metals in soils. The BARGE method was originally
422 devised with the concern for metal exposure associated with incidental soil ingestion in humans,
423 especially children, in mind.²² It has since been used to test a variety of soils for bioaccessible
424 metals.²⁹⁻³¹ However, it has not been specifically validated for ENMs. The current investigation
425 attempted to validate the BARGE method using several approaches including: (i) measuring the
426 BAF for Cu metal in a BGS 102 soil reference; (ii) determining the BAF for CuSO₄ in a well-
427 known LUFA 2.2 soil, and then, (iii) exploring the within sample and between sample
428 reproducibility of the BARGE method for CuSO₄ compared to the ENMs.

429 The performance of the BGS 102 soil reference material was considered first. This soil
430 already contains some naturally occurring Cu, and so no additional Cu amendments were
431 necessary. The measured total Cu in this soil was 17 mg kg⁻¹ in comparison to 26 mg kg⁻¹ from
432 Wragg²⁸ (see Table S2). In addition, the BAF values were 35% in the gastric phase and 40% in
433 the gastro-intestinal phase for Cu (Table S3). These BAF values are entirely consistent with
434 previous findings from Hamilton *et al.*³², with a mean reported Cu BAF of 33%. Furthermore,
435 measurements of the BGS 102 reference soil were within acceptable limits for a standard
436 method, with coefficients of variation being 10 % or much less (Table S3).

437 The LUFA 2.2 soil is also relatively well-known and has been widely used in soil
438 ecotoxicity testing with earthworms. Its natural mean Cu content is low (3 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil, Table
439 S2), in agreement with measured metal concentrations in uncontaminated soils.³³ Criel *et al.*³⁴
440 reported a background total Cu concentration in the LUFA 2.2 soil of 6 mg Cu kg⁻¹. In the
441 present work, the measured BAFs in the LUFA 2.2 soil (32 - 39%) were comparable with the
442 calculated BAFs of the soil reference BGS 102 soil (Fig. 2), and other studies from natural
443 uncontaminated soils.²⁹

444 Engineered nanomaterials do not behave in the same way as solutes,³⁵ and as ‘difficult to
445 handle’ substances, they present a number of challenges to the standard methods used in
446 regulatory testing (reviews, Handy *et al.*³⁶; Selck *et al.*³⁷). One concern is whether or not the sum
447 of the difficulties in maintaining the exposure, detailing the heterogeneous nature of the materials
448 in biologically-relevant matrices such as soil, and any losses during the analytical procedures for
449 detecting ENMs, etc., cause such high variation between replicates to the extent that the overall
450 attempt at standardisation fails. Of course, the notion of acceptable deviation in a standardised

451 method depends on the context. In this study, the LUFA 2.2 soil was amended with additions of
452 CuSO₄, bulk CuO and CuO NPs, respectively. The behaviour of Cu²⁺ ions in soil is relatively
453 well-known and the analytical methods for measuring total Cu in soil samples is established. The
454 between sample deviation reflected this with CVs ranging between 8 - 13% for the calculated
455 BAF values for CuSO₄ (Table S3). Furthermore, despite the challenges of handling ENMs, the
456 CVs for the particulate forms of Cu were in the same range (Table S3). The only exceptions were
457 the CuO-PEG NPs which showed variations as high as 26%, and the bulk CuO material with
458 CVs ranging between 7 - 26%. While these latter variations are not as low as one would prefer
459 (ideally, <10 %), they are not beyond acceptability from the view point of standardised protocols
460 for environmental testing. For example, the Organisation for Economic and Cooperation and
461 Development (OECD), allows a 20% deviation in the measured test concentrations in valid acute
462 ecotoxicity tests,³⁶ even greater deviations in test methods are allowed for ‘difficult to handle’
463 substances that are not miscible with water.³⁸

464

465 *The bioaccessibility of copper sulfate in soil*

466

467 There are many studies that use the BARGE method or similar approaches to measure
468 extractable Cu from metal-contaminated soils (review, De Miguel *et al.*³⁰). However, to our
469 knowledge, only the present study has specifically assessed bioaccessible fractions of Cu from
470 CuSO₄ dosing to the LUFA 2.2 soil using the BARGE method. Soil dosing with CuSO₄ at the
471 1000 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil concentration was not undertaken here, as the metal salt at such high doses
472 is known to be toxic to invertebrates, including earthworms.³⁹ At the 200 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil
473 concentration, as anticipated, the measured total Cu from CuSO₄ was close (99%) to the nominal
474 concentration (Table S2). The calculated mean BAF for the metal salt (Table S3, Fig. 2) did not
475 differ (*t*-test, *p* > 0.05) between the gastric (73%) and the gastro-intestinal phase digestion (77%).
476 These values are much higher than found by simpler CaCl₂-extractable Cu measurements in
477 contaminated LUFA 2.2 soil where only about 30% or less of the Cu is labile.⁴⁰ The fact that the
478 Cu from CuSO₄ was predicted as bioaccessible to both the stomach and the intestines is not
479 surprising given the solubility of the metal salt. However, the uptake of dissolved Cu by the gut
480 also depends on the anatomical locations of the necessary Cu transporters in the gut epithelium.
481 Pharmacological studies with gut preparations of vertebrate animals show it is the intestines, not

482 the stomach involved in Cu uptake, and that the uptake mechanisms include a luminal chloride-
483 dependent pathway.¹⁶ Similarly, *in vivo* studies with rodents using radiolabelled Cu show the
484 intestine as the main location for dietary Cu uptake.⁴¹ Thus for Cu, the BAF does not necessarily
485 indicate a hazard, only that the metal may become hazardous if the BAF is present in the
486 intestines where the Cu transporters occur.

487

488 *Are particulate forms of Cu more bioaccessible than CuSO₄?*

489

490 There have been some studies on the dissolution of ENMs in the presence of gastro-intestinal
491 fluids. For example, with Ag NPs,^{42,43} silica NPs⁴⁴ and CdSe QDs.⁴⁵ However, these studies were
492 more focused on the physico-chemical properties and aggregation behaviours of the ENMs in the
493 digestive juices. In the gastric phase, the calculated BAFs from all the test materials, including
494 the metal salt, were not statistically different and remained around 70% (Fig. 2). There was no
495 evidence of any difference between the particles and the metal salt that might infer a particle
496 size-effect, and no particle-coating effects (Fig. 2, Table S3). Arguably, this observation for the
497 stomach could be explained by the strong acid (pH < 1.5) simply dissolved the different
498 materials at similar rates; regardless of their surface areas or aggregate sizes (Fig. 1). The rapid
499 dissolution of Cu NPs at low pH has also been observed in studies with freshwater fish,⁴⁶ in acid-
500 extractions of soil during earthworm studies,²⁴ and at low pH in the physiological salines used
501 for oral gavage in rodents.⁴⁷ Thus, *in vivo* the Cu NP are likely transformed into soluble Cu in the
502 stomach, which is then absorbed in the intestine, and then can accumulate in the internal organs
503 and have toxic effects, albeit with some slight delay compared to oral gavage with the metal
504 salt.⁴⁷

505 However, the Cu bioaccessibility from soil was generally was similar for each substance
506 in both the acidic gastric phase and the neutral gastro-intestinal phase (Fig. 2, Table S3). There
507 was no metal salt and or nanomaterial effects, apart from the CuO-PEG material which showed
508 less bioaccessibility in the gastro-intestinal phase at the 200 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil concentration (Fig.
509 2A). The reduction was only a few % change, and one might argue that this is of limited
510 biological importance. However, the mechanism behind this effect for a PEG-coated material is
511 unclear. It might be that the PEG is more stable at neutral pH and vulnerable to some acid
512 degradation in the gastric phase. Regardless, this reduction in BAF is also consistent with the

513 same CuO-PEG material causing only moderate Cu accumulation in earthworms ingesting
514 contaminated soil compared to the other coatings after 14 days, and no appreciable mortality.²⁴

515 At the 1000 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil concentration, the BAF values were greater for the coated
516 CuO NPs in the gastro-intestinal phase relative to the gastric phase; and compared to the
517 uncoated CuO and the bulk material (Fig. 2B). This apparent effect of the coated materials to be
518 more accessible in the gastro-intestinal phase needs more investigation, but might be explained by
519 the nanoparticle coatings absorbing (electrostatic attraction in the case of -COOH) or becoming
520 associated with (e.g., by steric hindrance in the case of -PEG) macromolecules present in the
521 gut digestive juices such as proteins. This might, in theory, render their surfaces more
522 bioaccessible than that of the uncoated NPs, through the rapid initiation of a corona.⁴⁸ *In vivo*,
523 the CuO-COOH was the most toxic to earthworms in fresh soil,²⁴ in keeping with it also being
524 one of the more bioaccessible forms here in the soil. Unfortunately, as yet, there are no *in vivo*
525 studies with mammals to confirm if the coating-effects for CuO NPs observed in earthworms
526 might also apply to humans.

527

528 ***Conclusions and implications for human health risk assessment***

529

530 Human health risk assessment from soils considers the total and the bioaccessible fraction. The
531 BARGE approach used here gave the expected findings for reference soils and those spiked with
532 CuSO₄. The methodology also performed well for CuO-based NPs. This study has shown that
533 the bioaccessible fractions of Cu are similar for CuSO₄, the CuO bulk material and most of the
534 forms of the CuO NPs (Fig. 2); suggesting that the existing human health risk assessment for the
535 ingestion of Cu in soil may also be protective of particulate forms. For the coated CuO NPs, the
536 bioaccessible fraction was greatest at the high exposure concentration; implying that the BAF is
537 not fixed for nanomaterials, but dependent on dosimetry. The greatest hazard was arguably
538 presented in the gastro-intestinal phase at the highest concentrations of the different CuO NPs
539 used, where BAF values were around 70% or more (Fig. 2B). The BARGE method here is a
540 simulated digestion in the human gut without food, and therefore represents a worst case
541 scenario for potential uptake. It is also unfortunate that the greater bioaccessibility in the gastro-
542 intestinal phase is also coincident with the intestinal location of copper transporters involved in
543 absorption across the gut.⁴⁹ However, it is clear that the dissolved fraction of the metal from the

544 particles did not correlate easily with the BAF values in the present study. This strongly suggests
545 that the bioaccessible fraction includes a particulate load. Further work is needed to confirm
546 this and the gastrointestinal locations of any CuO NP uptake *in vivo*. Finally, the BARGE
547 method here is intended for human health risk assessment, and this might therefore be followed
548 by *in vivo* dietary studies on mammals when a concern for bioaccessibility has been identified.
549 From an animal welfare perspective, dietary toxicity tests on vertebrate animals are to be avoided
550 where possible. The alternative approach of using surrogate soil organisms such as earthworms
551 to predict the dietary bioaccessibility of metal in soil to humans has some merit. Button *et al.*⁵⁰
552 found that BAF values for arsenic in soils correlated with total As accumulation in earthworms.
553 Similarly in the present study, the measured Cu remaining in the soil following the gastro-
554 intestinal phase correlated with the Cu concentrations in the worms (Fig. 3C). However, care
555 must be taken with the choice of data as the Cu accumulation in the earthworms was not
556 predictive of the calculated gastro-intestinal BAF when expressed as percentages (Fig. 3B). Only
557 the measured concentrations should therefore be used in any read across attempt from
558 earthworms to humans for the human health risk assessment for soils.

559

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564

565 **Declaration of interest**

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723 **Table 1** Test materials characterisation from the original powders.

Test material (Supplier)	Manufacturer's information	¹ Measured primary particle size (nm)	² Measured hydrodynamic diameter in ultrapure Milli-Q water (nm)	³ Total measured copper concentration (mg l ⁻¹)	Between-replicate percentage CV (%)	⁴ Percentage of nominal concentration (%)	⁵ Measured copper fraction in coated CuO NPs	⁶ Metal dissolution rate in water (µg Cu h ⁻¹)
CuSO ₄ ·5H ₂ O, CAS 7758-99-8 (Sigma-Aldrich 31293, Lot SZBC0170V)	Purity, 99 - 102%	--	--	102.7 ± 0.4	0.6	100.8 ± 0.4	--	---
CuO Bulk, CAS 1317-38-0 (British Drug Houses Ltd)	Analar grade	---	---	285.0 ± 13.4	8.1	89.1 ± 4.2	--	---
[#] CuO NPs uncoated, CAS 1317-38-0 (PlasmaChem GmbH, Lot YF1309121)	99% purity; diameter, 10 - 20 nm; [§] surface area 42 ± 2 m ² g ⁻¹	12.00 ± 0.37	41 ± 28	287.1 ± 14.4	8.7	89.7 ± 4.5	--	1.68
[#] CuO NPs COOH-coated, CAS 1317-38-0 (PlasmaChem GmbH, Lot YF140114)	99% purity; diameter, 10 - 20 nm; [§] surface area, 7.4 ± 0.5 m ² g ⁻¹	6.45 ± 0.16	121 ± 91	154.3 ± 6.9	7.7	-	0.43 ± 0.02	69.12
[#] CuO NPs NH ₄ ⁺ -coated, CAS 1317-38-0 (PlasmaChem GmbH, Lot YF140114)	99% purity; diameter, 10 - 20 nm; [§] surface area, 6.1 ± 0.5 m ² g ⁻¹	9.53 ± 0.22	46 ± 36	185.9 ± 7.2	6.7	-	0.52 ± 0.02	18.6
[#] CuO NPs PEG-coated, CAS 1317-38-0 (PlasmaChem GmbH, Lot YF140114)	99% purity; diameter, 10 - 20 nm	7.46 ± 0.42	100 ± 36	105.0 ± 3.5	5.8	-	0.29 ± 0.01	52.02

[#]Supplied as dry powders, bespoke design and production of spherical particles for the NANOSOLUTIONS project *via* Alexei Antipov, PlasmaChem GmbH; [§]Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area values (mean ± one standard deviation, *n* = 3) from NANOSOLUTIONS project; ¹Based on transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of CuO ENMs from a 100 mg l⁻¹ Cu stocks in Milli-Q water where data are mean ± standard error of the mean (S.E.M) with *n* = 60 measurements; ²Particle size distribution measurements (mean ± one standard deviation, *n* = 3) by Nanoparticle tracking analysis (NTA) on 100 mg l⁻¹ Cu ENM stocks in Milli-Q water; ³Data are means ± S.E.M (*n* = 3 replicates) of total measured copper concentration by ICP-OES following *aqua regia* acid digestion of the dry powders, and after normalisation to an initial 0.02 g weight of material; Cupric oxide nanoparticles (CuO NPs); Coefficient of variation (CV); ⁴With a 0.25 fraction of copper by weight in CuSO₄·5H₂O, and 0.80 fraction of copper in both CuO bulk and uncoated CuO NPs; ⁵Relative to the measured copper content in the uncoated CuO NPs; ⁶Maximum slope from rectangular hyperbola function of curve fitting used to estimate the maximum rate of dissolution of copper from the dialysis experiments, in triplicate; - Not possible to calculate from the manufacturer's information on material composition; -- Data not applicable to the test material; --- Not measured.

725 Figure Legends

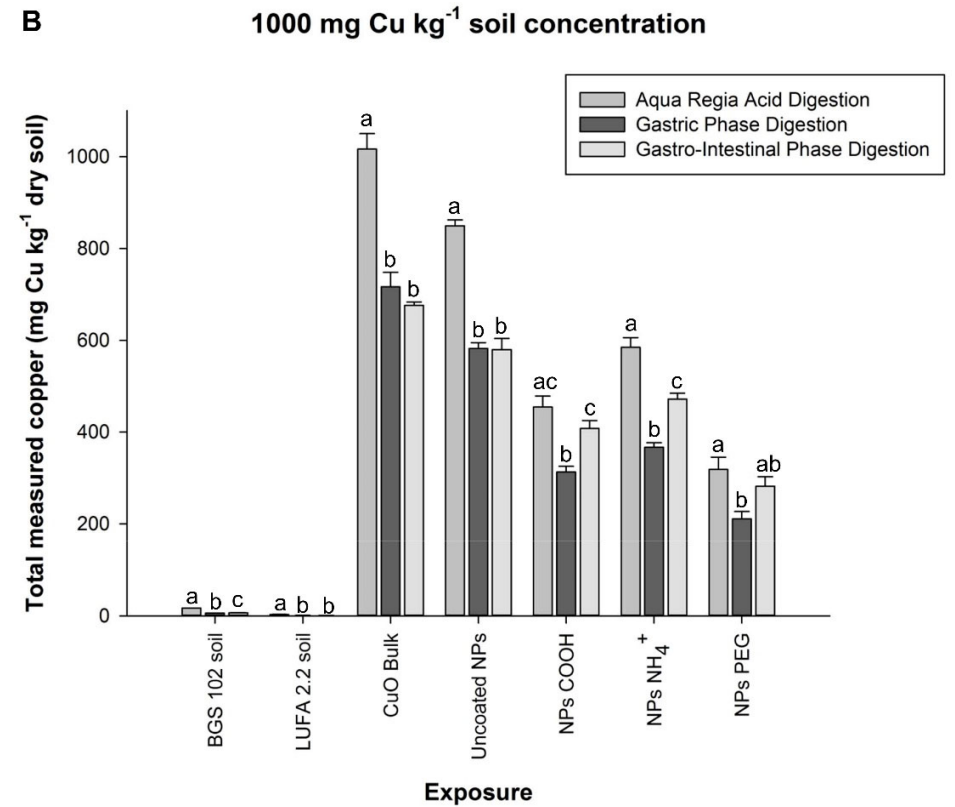
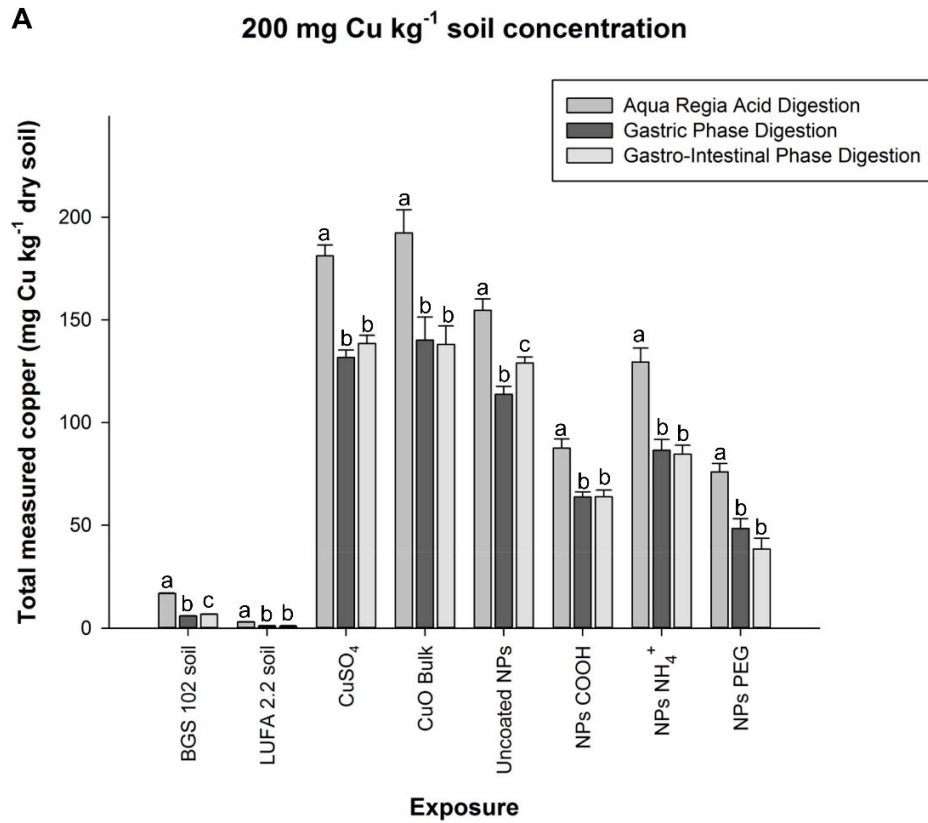
726 **Fig. 1** Total measured copper concentration (mg Cu kg⁻¹) in dry soil, from the different treatment
727 exposures at day 14 in the earthworm tests, following *aqua regia* acid digestion, gastric phase
728 and the gastro-intestinal phase digestion, respectively; (A) at the 200 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil initial
729 nominal dosing and (B) at the 1000 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil initial nominal dosing. Materials labelled as
730 BGS102 soil and LUFA 2.2 soil, refer to control soils (no added Cu or ENMs). The BGS 102
731 soil was not used in the earthworm tests, but solely included to validate the analytical chemistry.
732 Data are mean ± S.E.M ($n = 8$). Different letters indicate significant differences within each
733 material (ANOVA, $p < 0.05$). Observed differences in soil measured Cu amongst the test
734 materials, with varied initial relative mass proportion of Cu, are not identified with statistical
735 labels.

736 **Fig. 2** Calculated percentage bioaccessible fraction (BAF) from the different treatment exposures
737 at day 14 in the earthworm tests, following the gastric phase and the gastro-intestinal phase
738 digestion, respectively; (A) at the 200 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil initial nominal dosing and (B) at the 1000
739 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil initial nominal dosing. Materials labelled as BGS102 soil and LUFA 2.2 soil,
740 refer to control soils (no added Cu or ENMs). BGS 102 soil was not used in the earthworm tests,
741 but solely included to validate the analytical chemistry. Data are mean ± S.E.M from ($n = 4$)
742 separate soil boxes *per* treatment. Different letters in panel (A) or (B) indicate significant
743 differences amongst the relative tested materials (ANOVA, $p < 0.05$) in gastric or gastro-
744 intestinal phases, respectively. *, in panel (A) or (B) refers to a statistical significant difference in
745 calculated BAF between gastric and gastro-intestinal phases in that relative test material and
746 concentration (t -test, $p < 0.05$).

747 **Fig. 3** The relationship between the mean total measured copper concentration in the soil
748 following the gastro-intestinal digestion (left-hand panels), or the mean percentage of the gastro-
749 intestinal bioaccessible fractions (BAFs) of Cu (right-hand panels), plotted against the measured
750 copper dissolution rates of the ENMs in Milli-Q water (panels A and B), or the total mean copper
751 concentration in the earthworms at day 14 (panels C and D). Data on the y -axis are from $n = 4$
752 separate soil boxes, at either 200 or 1000 mg Cu kg⁻¹ soil concentration, and $n = 8$ earthworms
753 *per* treatment, except for NPs COOH at high dose where $n = 2$ as a result of high animal
754 mortality (x -axis).

755 **Fig. 1**

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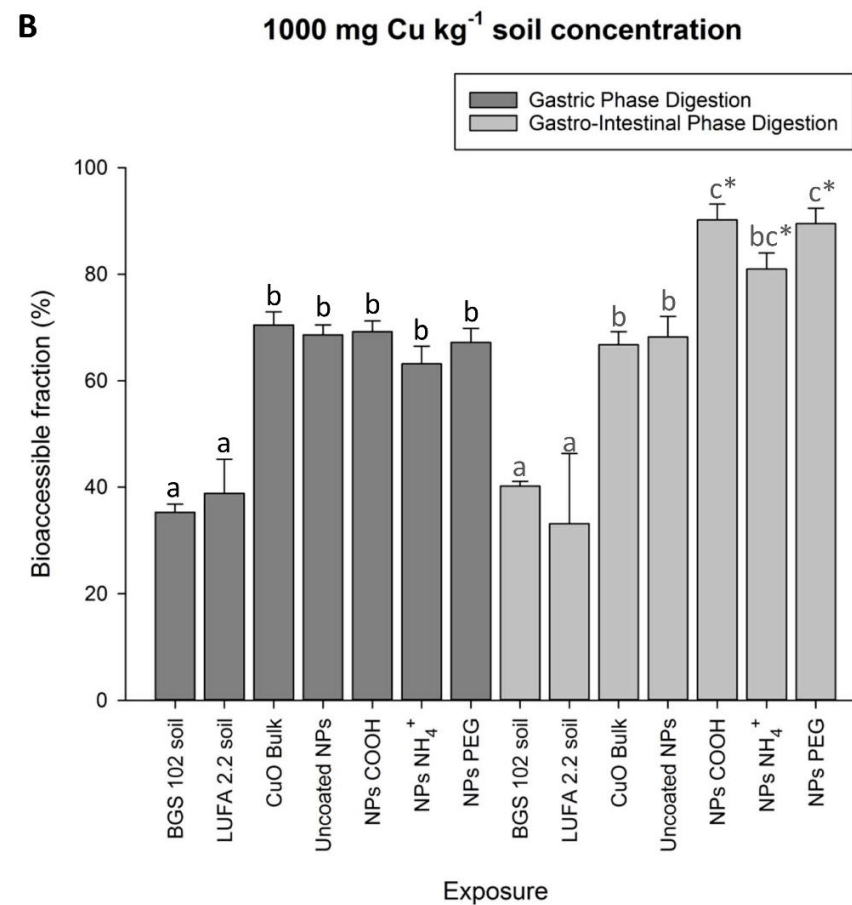
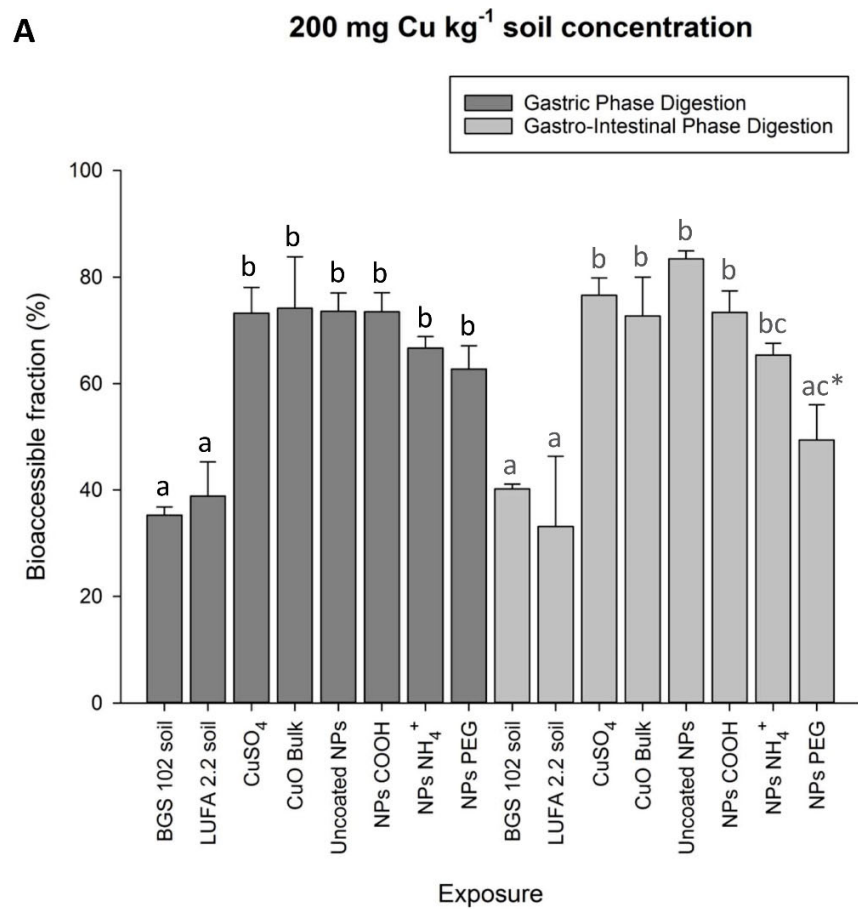


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759 **Fig. 2**

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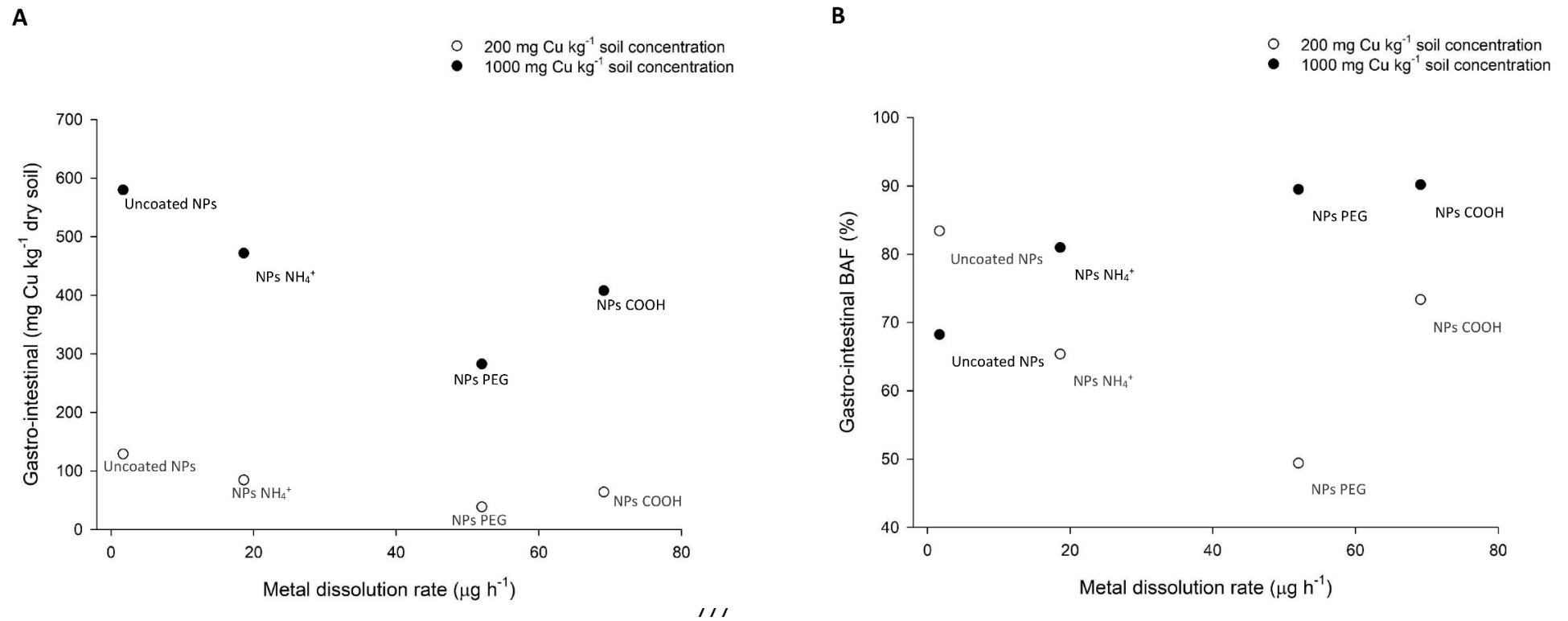
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764 **Fig. 3**

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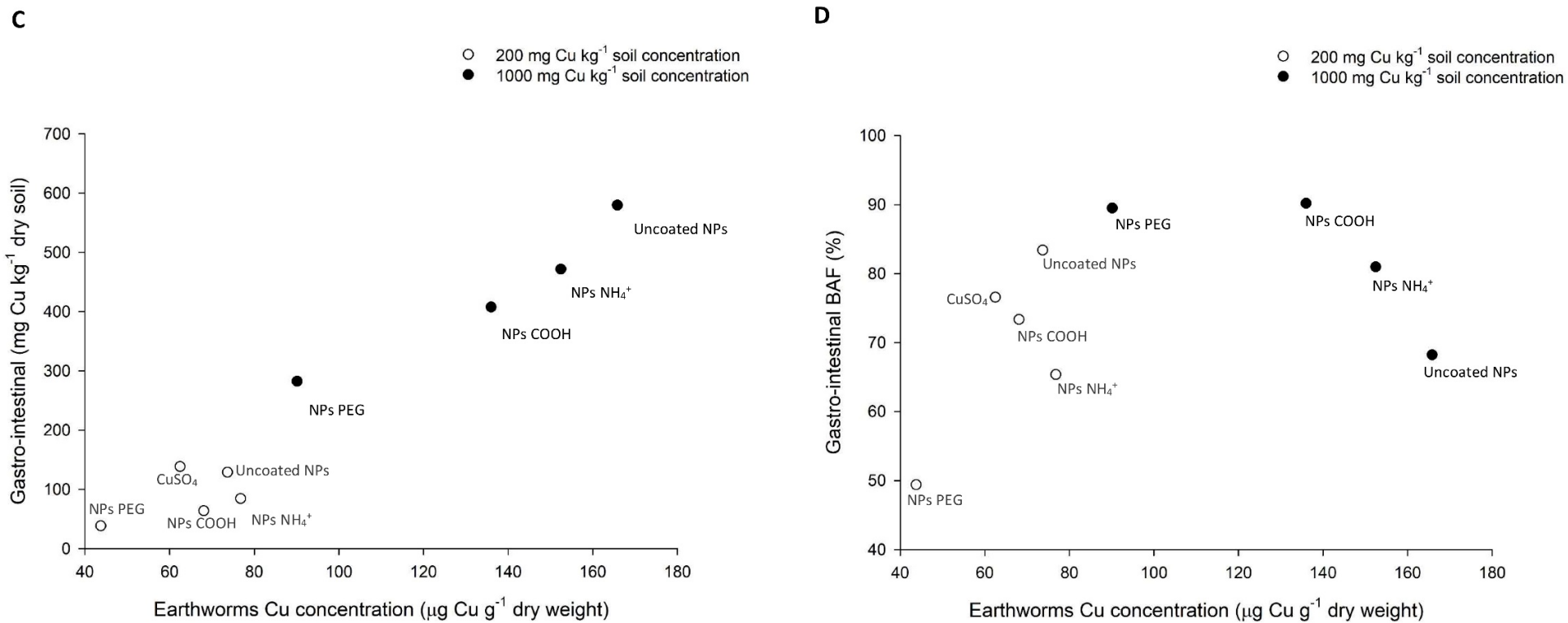
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782 **Fig. 3 cont.**

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