

1 An Integrated Approach to Testing and Assessment to  
2 support grouping and read-across of nanomaterials  
3 following inhalation exposure

4

5 *Hedwig M. Braakhuis<sup>1</sup>, Fiona Murphy<sup>2</sup>, Lan Ma-Hock<sup>3</sup>, Susan Dekkers<sup>1</sup>, Johannes Keller<sup>3</sup>, Agnes G.*

6 *Oomen<sup>1</sup>, Vicki Stone<sup>2</sup>*

7

8 <sup>1</sup>National Institute for Public Health and the Environment (RIVM), Bilthoven, The Netherlands

9 <sup>2</sup>Heriot Watt University, Edinburgh, UK

10 <sup>3</sup>BASF, Ludwigshafen am Rhein, Germany

11

12 [Short title](#)

13 IATA for grouping of nanomaterials

14

15 [Key words](#)

16 IATA, grouping, read-across, nanomaterials, inhalation exposure, testing strategy, case study

17

## 18 Abstract

19 Here we describe the generation of hypotheses for grouping nanoforms (NFs) following inhalation  
20 exposure and the tailored Integrated Approach to Testing and Assessment (IATA) with which each  
21 specific hypothesis can be tested. This is part of a state-of-the-art framework to support the  
22 hypothesis-driven grouping and read-across of NFs, as developed by the EU-funded Horizon 2020  
23 project GRACIOUS. Respirable NFs, depending on their physicochemical properties, may either  
24 dissolve in lung lining fluid, or in acidic lysosomal fluid after uptake by cells. Alternatively, NFs may  
25 also persist in particulate form. Dissolution in the lung is therefore a decisive factor for the  
26 toxicokinetics of NFs. This has led to the development of four hypotheses broadly grouping NFs as  
27 instantaneous, quickly, gradually and very slowly dissolving NFs. For instantaneously dissolving NFs,  
28 hazard information can be derived by read-across from the ions. For quickly dissolving particles, as  
29 accumulation of particles is not expected, ion toxicity will drive the toxic profile. However, the  
30 particle aspect influences the location of the ion release. For gradually dissolving and very slowly  
31 dissolving NFs, particle-driven toxicity is of concern. These NFs may be grouped by their reactivity  
32 and inflammation potency. The hypotheses are substantiated by a tailored IATA which describes the  
33 minimum information and laboratory assessments of NFs under investigation required to justify  
34 grouping. The GRACIOUS hypotheses and tailored IATA for respiratory toxicity of inhaled NFs can be  
35 used to support decision making regarding Safe(r)-by-Design product development or adoption of  
36 precautionary measures to mitigate potential risks. It can also be used to support read-across of  
37 adverse effects such as pulmonary inflammation and subsequent downstream effects like lung  
38 fibrosis and lung tumor formation after long-term exposure.

39

40

## 41 Abbreviations

42	ALI	air-liquid interface
43	AOP	Adverse Outcome Pathway
44	DCFH <sub>2</sub> -DA	dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate
45	DN	decision node
46	EPR	Electron Paramagnetic Resonance
47	ER	endoplasmic reticulum
48	ESR	Electron Spin Resonance
49	FRAS	Ferric Reduction Ability of Serum
50	GTTC	Genetic Toxicology Technical Committee
51	H-I-G	Hypothesis for Inhaled NFs that Gradually dissolve
52	H-I-I	Hypothesis for Inhaled NFs that Instantaneously dissolve
53	H-I-Q	Hypothesis for Inhaled NFs that Quickly dissolve
54	H-I-S	Hypothesis for Inhaled NFs that very Slowly dissolve
55	HSP	heat shock protein
56	IATA	Integrated Approach to Testing and Assessment
57	IT	intratracheal instillation
58	JRC	Joint Research Centre
59	KE	key event
60	LLF	lung lining fluid
61	MoA	mechanism of action
62	NF	nanofom
63	NM	nanomaterial
64	OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
65	8-OHdG	8-hydroxy-2-deoxyguanosine
66	PC	physicochemical

67	PLF	phagolysosomal fluid
68	POD	point of departure
69	ROS	reactive oxygen species
70	SbD	Safe(r)-by-Design
71	SOP	standard operating procedure
72	STIS	short-term inhalation study

## 73 1. Introduction

74 Manufacturing and functionalizing of materials at the nanoscale leads to an array of nanoforms (NFs)  
75 of each nanomaterial (NM), that may vary in physicochemical (PC) properties such as chemical  
76 composition, size, morphology and surface characteristics. The definitions of a NM and a NF as given  
77 by the European Commission are shown in the Supplementary materials (Table S1). Apart from  
78 expected benefits, modification of NFs may also pose a hazard to human health to a greater or lesser  
79 extent than the unmodified NF. Risk assessment requires comprehensive physicochemical  
80 characterization as well as sufficient exposure and hazard data for each NF, but testing every unique  
81 NF for their potential adverse effects would demand substantial resources including large numbers  
82 of animals.

83 Grouping and read-across are evolving into important tools in the safety assessment of chemical  
84 substances, including NFs. Formation of a group requires the properties of the grouped substances  
85 to be similar or follow a consistent trend. For chemical substances grouping is typically based on  
86 evidence of similar chemical structures, common functional groups, common precursors, or likely  
87 common breakdown products (REACH, Annex XI, 1.5 and OECD guidance) [1]. Read-across allows  
88 prediction of specific fate and hazard endpoints for one or more substances (target material(s)) in a  
89 group, by using data for the same endpoint from another substance in the same group for which  
90 more information is available (source material) [2]. This approach can be used to fill data gaps where  
91 hazard data is lacking thereby minimizing the need to perform additional *in vivo* studies for each  
92 group member. Grouping of NMs typically involves the grouping of different NFs of one chemical  
93 substance or the grouping of a nano- and a non-nanoform(s) of one chemical substance. It requires  
94 similarity in physicochemical parameters with known relevance for human and environmental  
95 hazard. Key intrinsic material characteristics as highlighted in the ECHA guidance for grouping NMs  
96 (Appendix R.6-1) include chemical composition, impurities and functionalization in addition to  
97 particle size, shape and surface area [3]. System-dependent properties governed by the

98 surroundings in which the NF is placed (e.g. dissolution rate in biological media, surface reactivity  
99 and dispersibility) should also be considered to support grouping [4].

100 In recent years, several scientific approaches for grouping and read-across of NFs have been  
101 developed [5-9]. The EU-funded Horizon 2020 project, GRACIOUS has taken these approaches a step  
102 further by developing a state-of-the-art framework to support the hypothesis-driven grouping of NFs  
103 and streamline the risk assessment process [10]. Read-across between NFs of the same group can be  
104 utilized as an efficient and effective tool to obtain toxicological information and fill data gaps without  
105 resorting to animal testing of individual NFs for hazard assessment, including for a regulatory setting.  
106 Within the GRACIOUS Framework a number of 'pre-defined' grouping hypotheses have been  
107 generated, based on clear toxicokinetic pathways or mechanisms of action (MoA). These allow the  
108 user to quickly recognize a potential hazard which may be applicable to the NF(s) under investigation  
109 [10].

110 GRACIOUS has also developed tailored Integrated Approaches to Testing and Assessment (IATA)  
111 which gather evidence in order to justify (or reject) grouping of a target NF and a source material.  
112 The IATA sets out a tiered testing strategy, which reflects the different information needed and  
113 levels of uncertainty acceptable for different grouping purposes. Here we propose a number of  
114 purposes for which the use of the inhalation IATA will be appropriate:

- 115 1. Grouping to guide and support the development of materials and NFs that are Safe(r) by  
116 Design (SbD).
- 117 2. Grouping to promote the adoption of precautionary measures for materials for which  
118 limited hazard data is available.
- 119 3. Facilitating the generation of a read-across argument for filling in a data gap to comply with  
120 regulations.

121

122 The substantiation of a grouping decision is underpinned by the demonstration of similarity between  
123 group members, which helps the user to assess whether a target NF is sufficiently similar to a source  
124 material to allow grouping and to assume the target NF will induce similar toxicity compared to the  
125 source material. For SbD, for the adoption of precautionary measures, and for screening if regulatory  
126 read-across could be possible, a qualitative similarity assessment based on expert judgement is  
127 sufficient. For regulatory read-across quantitative mathematical similarity assessment is necessary to  
128 compare the NF to the source material. Here we describe the generation of GRACIOUS ‘pre-defined’  
129 hypotheses for grouping NFs where inhalation exposure is a primary concern, and the tailored IATA  
130 to test each specific hypothesis. The use of the IATA, including qualitative similarity assessment, will  
131 be demonstrated using benchmark materials.

132

## 133 2. Grouping Hypotheses

134 Within the GRACIOUS framework, the user is first asked for basic information to identify the NFs  
135 under consideration and their potential uses in order to identify the most appropriate hypotheses to  
136 test [10]. In addition, the basic information gathers information needed in order to tailor the outputs  
137 of the grouping and read-across exercise to the purpose of grouping. According to the GRACIOUS  
138 Framework, the basic information therefore requires the user to identify: the purpose of grouping,  
139 basic physicochemical characteristics and the use/exposure scenarios.

140

141 Four hypotheses have been generated for grouping NFs with predicted similar fate and a subsequent  
142 assessment of similar hazard following the inhalation route of exposure (see Table 1). The  
143 hypotheses include both acute and repeated exposure.

144

145

146

147

148 Table 1: GRACIOUS 'pre-defined' hypotheses for inhalation exposure to NFs.

Short title	Hypothesis
Instantaneously dissolving NFs (H-I-I)	Respirable NFs with an instantaneous dissolution rate: Following inhalation exposure, the toxicity is driven by and is therefore similar to those of the constituent ions or molecules.
Quickly dissolving NFs (H-I-Q)	Respirable NFs with a quick dissolution rate: Following inhalation exposure both NFs and constituent ions or molecules may contribute to toxicity, but there is no concern for accumulation. Toxicity (also) depends on the location of the ionic or molecular release.
Gradually dissolving NFs (H-I-G)	Respirable NFs with a gradual dissolution rate: Following inhalation exposure both NFs and constituent ions or molecules may contribute to toxicity and there is some concern for accumulation. Toxicity (also) depends on the location of the ionic or molecular release.
Very slowly dissolving NFs (H-I-S)	Respirable NFs with a very slow dissolution rate: Following inhalation exposure, toxicity is driven by the NFs and accumulation of NFs in the lungs can lead to long-term toxicity.

149

150

## 151 2.1 Dissolution as a critical descriptor

152 Information on the use and most relevant exposure route of the NF is gathered as part of the basic  
 153 information at the start of the GRACIOUS framework and guides the user whether inhalation  
 154 exposure is expected [10]. Each of the four inhalation hypotheses are shortlisted within the  
 155 GRACIOUS Framework when the aerosolized NFs under investigation are within the respirable range  
 156 (< 4.2 µm) [11]. Upon deposition in the respiratory tract, NFs first come into contact with mucus in  
 157 the upper respiratory tract and lung lining fluid (pH7.4) in the deeper lung, respectively. Depending  
 158 on the PC properties of the specific NFs, they may either dissolve in mucous and lung lining fluid, or  
 159 in acidic phagolysosomal fluid (pH 4.5) after uptake by cells, or persist within the lung, interstitium or  
 160 lung-associated lymph nodes for an extended period of time. Deposited particles within the upper  
 161 respiratory tract and tracheobronchial tree are cleared by different mechanism including mucociliary  
 162 transport within the first hours [12]. Our grouping hypotheses are concerned with the fate and  
 163 potential hazard posed by NFs which reach the distal regions of the lung, where accumulation may



164 occur leading to chronic adverse effects in the local tissue as this context is considered the primary  
165 concern following inhalation exposure of NFs.

166

167 There are several approaches for grouping and read-across, which identify dissolution under  
168 simulated physiological conditions as a crucial criterion for grouping and subsequent read-across  
169 between NFs [5, 13-18]. Oberdörster and Kuhlbusch describe in their recent review that “because  
170 the *in vivo* dissolution rates of engineered nanomaterials can differ widely, it is too simplistic to  
171 group ENM just into soluble and poorly soluble materials” [19]. There are currently no scientifically  
172 sound cut-off thresholds to define groups according to dissolution rate as the transition from very  
173 slow to quick dissolution rate is continuous. However, here the following pragmatic thresholds are  
174 suggested to facilitate the preliminary grouping of NFs into broad categories:

- 175 1. **Instantaneously dissolving NFs:** threshold of  $t_{1/2} < 10$  minutes in lung lining fluid (H-I-I).
- 176 2. **Quickly dissolving NFs:** threshold of  $t_{1/2} < 48$  hours in lung lining or lysosomal fluid (H-I-Q).
- 177 3. **Gradually dissolving NFs:** threshold of  $t_{1/2} > 48$  hours and  $< 60$  days in lung lining or lysosomal  
178 fluid (H-I-G).
- 179 4. **Very slowly dissolving NFs:** threshold of  $t_{1/2} > 60$  days in lysosomal fluid (H-I-S).

180

181 In this article, we refer to instantaneously, quickly, gradually and very slowly dissolving NFs to  
182 describe the dissolution rate by which NFs release ions/molecules/atoms and thereby alter their  
183 (physical) state or entity.

184

185 The pragmatic thresholds are set to reflect the impact of dissolution within the biologically relevant  
186 timeframe for cell interaction and cellular clearance from the lungs e.g., ‘instantaneous’ dissolution  
187 within 10 minutes suggests NFs do not persist long enough to be phagocytosed by alveolar  
188 macrophages or translocate through the epithelial barrier, therefore particle-triggered hazard is  
189 negligible. Alternatively, a longer half-life in lung lining fluid indicates the potential for particle-cell

190 interactions and uptake of NFs into the lysosomal compartment of the resident pulmonary cells  
191 which may ultimately trigger particle-related toxicity. The grouping hypotheses, H-I-Q, H-I-G and H-I-  
192 S, address a number of biological outcomes which may result from differing half-lives within the lung  
193 lining fluid and/or acidic environment of the lysosome.

194

195 Quick dissolution (defined as a half-life of < 48 hours in lysosomal fluid) reflects a timeframe  
196 whereby NFs may be taken up by cells, in particular alveolar macrophages, but dissolve rapidly to  
197 constituent ions within the acidic environment of the lysosome [20]. This mechanism directly  
198 delivers potentially toxic ions to the intracellular environment, which may lead to specific toxic  
199 effects such as cell death or activation of pro-inflammatory pathways [21, 22]. Accumulation of  
200 particles is not likely due to their quick dissolution and so direct toxicity driven by ions will be most  
201 relevant.

202

203 Gradual dissolution considers both the particles and NFs which may persist in particulate form for  
204 some time but gradually degrade in either in the lung lining fluid or in the acidic lysosomal  
205 environment to their constituent components indicating a slow release of ions over time [23]. If  
206 exposure exceeds the dissolution and clearance rates of the particle components, NFs may  
207 potentially accumulate within the lungs [23, 24]. Thus, toxicity may be driven by both ion and  
208 particle effects and may incorporate both direct effects due to toxic ion release or highly reactive  
209 particle surface, as well as chronic effects due to slow release of ions over time. Therefore, for  
210 quickly and gradually dissolving NFs, the IATA considers both the dissolved and the particulate  
211 fraction of the NFs under investigation.

212

213 Very slow dissolution is defined by a threshold half-life > 60 days in lysosomal fluid, derived from the  
214 extensive literature on the biopersistence of poorly soluble particles in the rat lung [25-27].

215 Biopersistent NFs will remain as particles in the pulmonary environment over an extended period of

216 time and may accumulate in cells and tissue. Toxicity will be dictated by physical interactions  
217 between the NFs and cells, such as through excessive build-up of NFs [25, 28 ] or specific NF  
218 reactivity [29].

219

220 According to Geiser and Kreyling (2010), about 90 % of very small particles deposited in the alveolar  
221 region are cleared by alveolar macrophages, which are subsequently eliminated via mucociliary  
222 clearance. Other particle clearance pathways from the lung are via the interstitium and lymphatic  
223 system, through re-appearance of particles from the interstitium onto the epithelial surface and via  
224 translocation to the blood (potentially leading to accumulation in secondary target organs) [27, 30,  
225 31]. On repeated exposure to biopersistent NFs the clearance mechanisms can be overwhelmed,  
226 leading to NF accumulation and chronic inflammation, that might ultimately lead to fibrosis and/or  
227 cancer [25]. Therefore the targeted testing for these NFs differs significantly from those particles  
228 that instantaneously dissolve, by focusing on particle-triggered toxicity, including biopersistence,  
229 potential accumulation and long-term effects.

230

## 231 2.2 Biological reactivity as a critical descriptor

232 The mechanism of particle induced toxicity is not yet fully understood. The previously described  
233 concept of impaired clearance does not explain the different inflammatory potencies of different  
234 NFs. Current research shows that a range of intrinsic factors like shape, size, coating, composition,  
235 crystallinity, impurities [15, 32-34], and extrinsic factors such as pH, temperature, ionic strength and  
236 protein binding may modulate the surface reactivity of NFs. Thus, surface reactivity was considered  
237 as an essential parameter for building and justifying a grouping strategy for very slow, gradual and  
238 quick dissolution NFs.

239

240 Several approaches to grouping and read-across acknowledge surface reactivity, such as reactive  
241 oxygen species (ROS) production as a key parameter [5, 8, 9]. The imbalance between ROS

242 generation and ROS scavenging leads to elevated ROS levels within cells, non-selective oxidation of  
243 biomolecules [35, 36] and oxidative stress associated with endpoints such as cytotoxicity,  
244 genotoxicity or inflammation [37-41]. The induction of oxidative stress (via ROS induction and  
245 inflammation) is thought to play an essential role in the mechanism behind nanomaterial toxicity  
246 [42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49].

247

248 For grouping and read-across it is insufficient to assign NFs into either a 'not reactive' or 'reactive'  
249 category as the level of ROS production by NFs can differ greatly. It is therefore essential to take the  
250 potency of NFs into account to substantiate a read-across argument.

251

### 252 2.3 Inflammatory potential as critical descriptor

253 A key effect of NFs after inhalation is their ability to induce pulmonary inflammation [25, 50-53].

254 Inflammation is considered an important mechanism of action by which NFs may cause toxicity [54].

255 It is related to various adverse outcomes that have been associated with NF exposure, including  
256 pulmonary fibrosis and cancer [26, 55]. Inflammation is indicated *in vivo* mainly by an increase in  
257 neutrophils and pro-inflammatory cytokines in the bronchoalveolar lavage fluid or via  
258 histopathological examination. In *in vitro* lung models, inflammation is generally indicated by the  
259 induction of pro-inflammatory cytokines [15, 56].

260

261 Inflammation is a complex process involving many cell types, chemokines and cytokines. Also,  
262 depending on the exposure concentration and duration, inflammation can resolve over time. For NF  
263 exposure, the main concern is that repeated exposure might lead to chronic inflammation that does  
264 not resolve. Given the complexity of inflammation, it is not sufficient to categorize NFs into  
265 'inflammogenic' or 'non-inflammogenic'. Similar to reactivity, the potency of the target and source  
266 NFs in terms of inflammation potential should be compared to assess their similarity to allow  
267 grouping and the subsequent building of a read-across argument.

268

### 269 3. Integrated Approaches to Testing and Assessment

270 The GRACIOUS IATA is structured in a decision tree format which logically follows the fate of the NFs  
271 from the initial inhalation exposure to deposition along the respiratory tract and the subsequent  
272 potential for interactions with resident pulmonary cells which may lead to toxicity and disease  
273 pathogenesis. The decision tree uses a series of decision nodes (DNs) to generate the information  
274 needed for critical descriptors in order to selectively distinguish NFs which may be grouped  
275 according to the specific inhalation grouping hypotheses (Figure 1).

276

277 The hypothesis for instantaneously dissolving NFs (H-I-I), can be used to perform read-across to the  
278 molecular form. If the hypothesis is rejected because the NF does not meet the threshold of  $t_{1/2} < 10$   
279 minutes in lung lining fluid, then other hypotheses can be considered in which the location of the ion  
280 release will affect the toxicity (Figure 1).

281

282

283

284

285

286

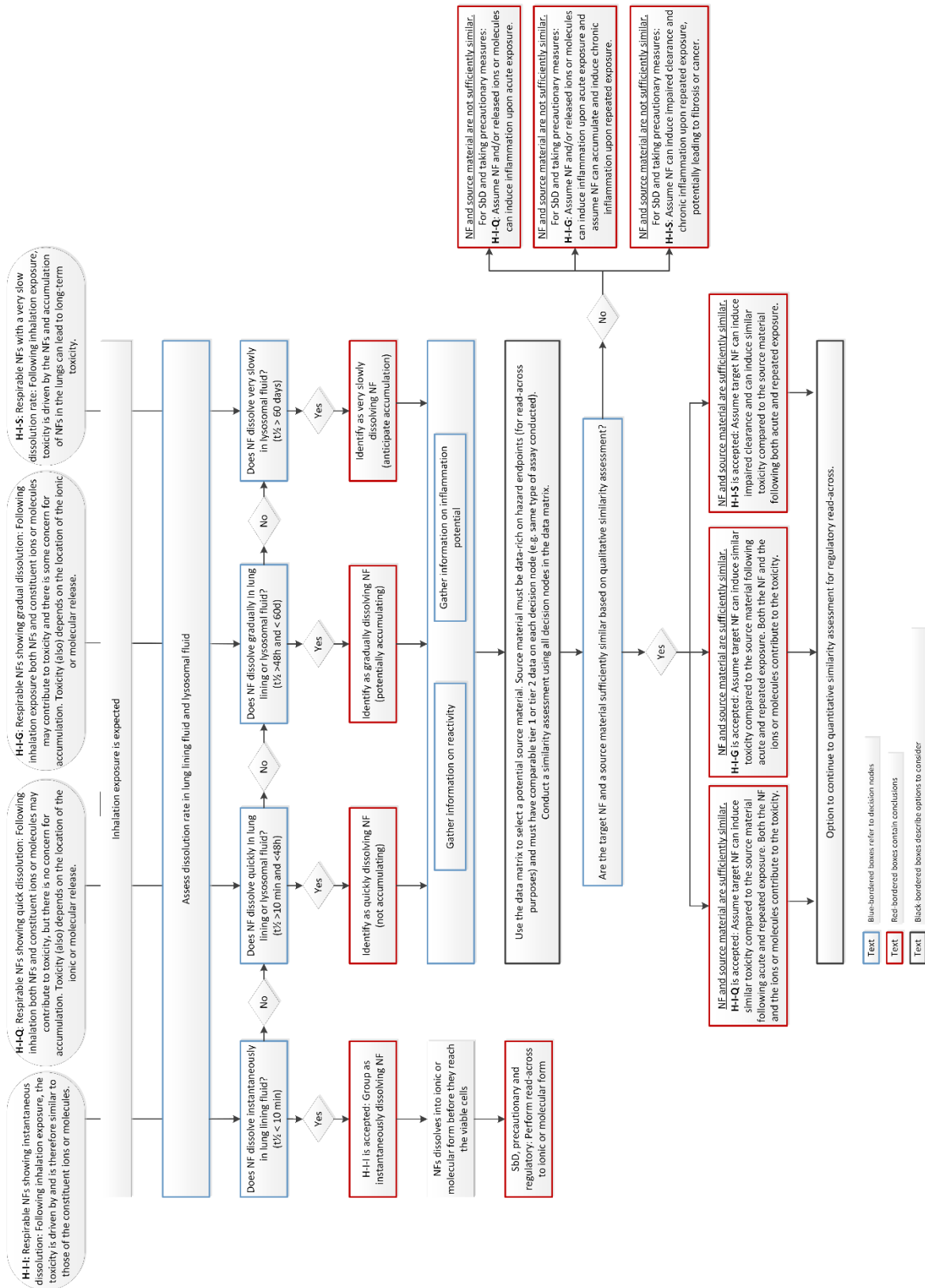


Figure 1. IATA decision tree for assessing whether a NF belongs to the group of instantaneously dissolving, quickly dissolving, gradually dissolving or very slowly dissolving NFs, including directions on the implications of grouping and subsequent options for read-across.

287

288 For NFs that quickly dissolve ( $t_{1/2} < 48$  hours) there is no concern for particle accumulation and  
289 toxicity can mainly be attributed to the ions. However, the particle aspect influences the location of  
290 the ion release. A benchmark material that fits into this hypothesis is ZnO (JRCNM01100a, formerly  
291 known as NM-110). For ZnO NFs, the particles can be taken up by cells leading to intracellular ion  
292 release [57] referred to as the Trojan horse effect [21, 22]. This leads to different effects compared  
293 to exposure to zinc salts [58-61].

294

295 For gradually dissolving NFs ( $t_{1/2} > 48$  hours and  $< 60$  days in lysosomal fluid), both the particle and  
296 the ions contribute to the toxicity, and the location of ion release affects toxicity. As the dissolution  
297 rate is not quick, particle accumulation cannot be discounted for upon repeated exposure. A  
298 benchmark material that falls into this hypothesis is synthetic amorphous silica, SiO<sub>2</sub> (JRCNM02000a,  
299 formerly known as NM-200) [24]. This material has a half-time of 3.6-4.5 days in lung lining fluid and  
300 29-35 days in phagolysosomal fluid and has been shown to induce inflammation after intratracheal  
301 instillation [62]. As toxicokinetics are important in this hypothesis, comparison to a source material  
302 of similar chemical composition to the NF(s) under investigation is needed for read-across.

303

304 Very slowly dissolving NFs ( $t_{1/2} > 60$  days) are of concern as they can accumulate and may induce  
305 long-term effects upon repeated exposure. Benchmark materials that fit into this hypothesis are  
306 CeO<sub>2</sub> (JRCNM02102a, formerly known as NM-212), DQ12 quartz silica, and TiO<sub>2</sub> (JRCNM01005a,  
307 formerly known as NM-105). The dissolution rate of these materials is very slow and they are known  
308 to induce long-term effects in rats upon repeated exposure. CeO<sub>2</sub> JRCNM02102a induced chronic  
309 inflammation and fibrosis after 90 days inhalation exposure [63]. DQ12 quartz induced chronic  
310 inflammation and fibrosis after 90 days inhalation exposure [64] and cancer after chronic 2-year  
311 inhalation exposure [65]. TiO<sub>2</sub> JRCNM01005a induced chronic inflammation and cancer after chronic  
312 2-year exposure [26, 28]. These long-term effects are related to impaired clearance in rats at high

313 exposure concentrations caused by extensive accumulation of the particles. Intensive discussions are  
314 ongoing about the human relevance of these effects. From a risk assessment point of view, the  
315 pulmonary toxicity needs to be considered relevant for human hazard assessment [25].

316

### 317 3.1 Tiered testing

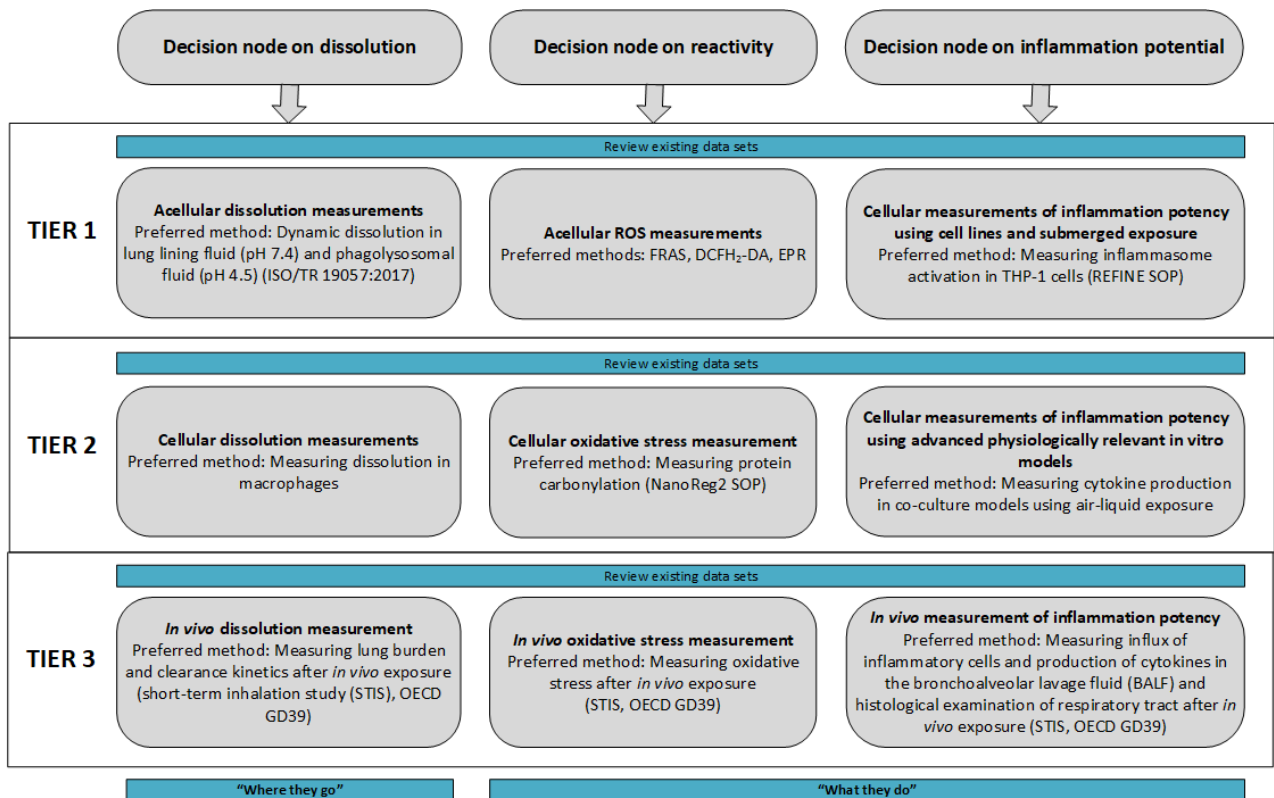
318 Each DN of the IATA is linked to a tiered testing strategy, which provides practical guidance on how  
319 to efficiently assess the target NF (Figure 2). The testing strategy is tiered to enable the burden of  
320 data gathering and testing to be tailored to the purpose of grouping, with higher tiers reflecting the  
321 greater information requirements to support a grouping decision with higher levels of confidence  
322 [10]. The choice of tier reflects the initial purpose for grouping, the associated level of uncertainty  
323 considered acceptable for the user's needs and sometimes the suitability of the recommended  
324 methods for the NF under investigation. Lower tier testing may facilitate rapid and cost-effective  
325 SbD decision making on whether to continue with a product development, despite the relatively  
326 high level of uncertainty with this grouping decision. On the other hand grouping and read-across for  
327 regulatory purposes may require a higher degree of scientific justification based on higher tier  
328 testing. When available, standardized methods (standard operating procedures (SOP) such as OECD  
329 TG or ISO protocols) are recommended for inclusion in the tiered testing strategy.

330

331 The tiered testing strategy provided in Figure 2 addresses particle induced hazard in the lung and is  
332 relevant to the IATA for hypotheses H-I-Q, H-I-G and H-I-S. It is less relevant to H-I-I, since this  
333 hypothesis is addressed by assessing the hazard of the constituent ions or molecules. The outcome  
334 of the tiered testing strategies provides the required information needed by the DNs of the IATA to  
335 identify which hypothesis is most appropriate for grouping the NFs under investigation. The  
336 following sections provide a more detailed description of each DN.

337





338

339 *Figure 2. Tiered testing for each decision node in the IATA for hypotheses H-I-Q, H-I-G, and H-I-S.*

340

### 341 3.2 Dissolution decision node

342 The first DN in the IATAs is on the dissolution rate of the NF. Tier 1 testing for this DN includes

343 assessment of the NFs dissolution in simulated lung lining fluid at pH 7.4 (LLF) and phagolysosomal

344 fluid at pH 4.5 (PLF) under static or dynamic conditions. Tier 2 testing for the dissolution DN includes

345 measurement of durability in cellular systems such as macrophages. Tier 3 consists of *in vivo*

346 measurement of lung burden and clearance kinetics.

347

348 Considering that living organisms are dynamic systems, static solubility tests do not reflect the *in*

349 *vivo* turnover of the respective physiological media. Testing NF dissolution in an acellular continuous

350 flow system is considered the preferred method in Tier 1, as the results of the continuous flow

351 system are consistent with data from short-term *in vivo* studies [66]. Standardized ISO protocols for

352 these flow-through or flow-by systems that mimic the non-equilibrium physiological conditions are

353 available (ISO/TR 19057:2017). Simulant media need to be sufficiently complex to offer oxidative,  
354 reductive and pH-driven dissolution pathways [67]. For inhalation exposure, both LLF and PLF are  
355 relevant media [68].

356

357 Tier 2 examines durability in cellular systems, which take into account a number of dynamic and  
358 physiologically relevant environments and pathways to NF degradation [69-71]. As cellular models to  
359 assess durability are not yet well standardized, there is currently no SOP available, however, studies  
360 have shown incubation with macrophages to be at least as predictive of biodurability as acellular  
361 assays for NFs [66] and useful to clarify the specific mechanism of particle degradation [72]. As such,  
362 progression to Tier 2 is envisioned to be only used in some cases where a more physiologically  
363 relevant cellular system is required to better understand mechanism.

364

365 The determination of biopersistence of NFs requires long-term *in vivo* assays and therefore is not  
366 required for initial grouping. Depending on the purpose of grouping, Tier 3 testing may be required  
367 to confirm whether acellular *in vitro* durability corresponds with an accumulation of NFs in tissues.  
368 For this a short-term inhalation study (STIS) can be used with a 5-day exposure period and a  
369 recovery time of e.g. 28 days for very slowly dissolving NFs. The updated OECD test guidelines for  
370 inhalation exposure now recommend lung burdens and clearance rate to be included as recorded  
371 endpoints [73, 74]. To support grouping of NFs at Tier 3 the IATA requires clearance rate to be  
372 included as an endpoint, to provide evidence of similarity in biopersistence. This information can be  
373 used in case available for the source material.

374

375 Application of the tiered testing strategy to assess dissolution allows the NFs to be placed into one of  
376 four groups: instantaneously dissolving, quickly dissolving, gradually dissolving and very slowly  
377 dissolving.

378

### 379 3.3 Reactivity decision node

380 For the reactivity DN, Tier 1 assessment relies on acellular measures of ROS generation, Tier 2  
381 includes measurement of ROS/oxidative stress in cells and Tier 3 includes *in vivo* measurement of  
382 oxidative stress.

383

384 A panel of several acellular tests considered appropriate as a starting point to assess reactivity are  
385 included at Tier 1. They include Ferric Reduction Ability of Serum (FRAS), Electron Paramagnetic  
386 Resonance (EPR) and Dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate assay (DCFH<sub>2</sub>-DA). The FRAS assay uses  
387 antioxidant components in human serum as reporter molecules, providing an indirect read-out of  
388 ROS generation. The assay has been demonstrated to be suitable for testing both metal-containing  
389 NFs and carbonaceous materials [75]. EPR spectroscopy, which is also called Electron Spin  
390 Resonance (ESR), measures the transition between electron spin states of paramagnetic molecules,  
391 and can be used to study species with at least one unpaired electron. Using different spin probes,  
392 spin traps, different types of ROS species can be quantified. EPR has the least interference with  
393 hydrophobic and colored substances, however, carbonaceous materials can interfere with the assay.  
394 DCFH<sub>2</sub>-DA assay can be used in Tier 1 to assess acellular ROS production. This assay has been widely  
395 used to assess the ROS production of particles and NFs [76]. DCFH<sub>2</sub>-DA assay is suitable for testing of  
396 carbonaceous materials [75].

397

398 Different approaches to Tier 1 assessment of surface reactivity may be taken dependent on the  
399 purpose of grouping. For example, for SbD purposes where the aim may be to compare similarity of  
400 surface reactivity across NFs of different chemical composition or NFs with the same core and a  
401 different coating, a combination of assays would be recommended for a broader assessment of  
402 reactivity. Conversely, for grouping NFs for regulatory purposes, such as the development of a read-  
403 across argument, comparison of surface reactivity of different NFs or non-NFs via a combination of

404 assays might add unnecessary complexity. Therefore, a single assay that is sensitive to the  
405 substance-specific reactivity should be selected [75].  
406  
407 Tier 2 involves cellular assessment of oxidative stress as a biological consequence of NF reactivity.  
408 More work is required to confirm the most appropriate tests to be incorporated into this tier.  
409 Currently assays such as cellular DCFH<sub>2</sub>-DA assay, protein carbonylation, Nrf2 antioxidant response  
410 pathway, Endoplasmic Reticulum (ER) stress, Heat Shock Protein (HSP) activation, glutathione  
411 depletion and lipid peroxidation are recommended for inclusion. Measuring protein carbonylation in  
412 cells has been shown to give a similar ranking of NFs compared to adverse reactions (such as  
413 inflammation) after short-term *in vivo* inhalation studies (STIS) [77]. Measuring glutathione  
414 depletion showed a correlation between *in vitro* and *in vivo* exposure for amorphous silica  
415 nanoparticles [78]. The disadvantage of measuring glutathione is that is easily is reduced during  
416 sample preparation making it difficult to assess the reduced and the oxidized form. An alternative  
417 method could be the use of antioxidants to assess whether specific endpoints (e.g. cytokine  
418 production) are oxidant mediated.  
419  
420 If Tier 3 *in vivo* studies are required to enable a grouping decision or to facilitate a read-across  
421 argument, measuring glutathione depletion and lipid peroxidation after short-term inhalation can be  
422 considered. In addition, endpoints such as oxidative DNA damage (by measuring 8-hydroxy-2-  
423 deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG)) may be included in the histopathological assessment of tissue to provide  
424 evidence of oxidative stress *in vivo* [39].  
425  
426 For NFs that are considered either gradually or quickly dissolving based on their dissolution rate, the  
427 relative contribution of the ion and particle components to the toxicity observed during hazard  
428 testing will need to be determined [79]. Also the potential for the particle and ion to interact to  
429 enhance toxicity should be considered [76].

430

### 431 3.3 Inflammatory potential decision node

432 The next step for grouping according to the IATA is to assess the potential of the NFs to elicit an  
433 inflammatory response compared to the source material. Endpoints for assessing the lung  
434 inflammatory potential should be informed by adverse outcome pathways (AOPs) relevant for  
435 pulmonary disease, to ensure the information gathered is targeted and can be interpreted in terms  
436 of disease relevance. Therefore the Tier 1 and Tier 2 *in vitro* assays could be selected based on the  
437 measurable Key Events (KE) outlined in the AOP [55]. Inflammatory potential can be tested in tiers  
438 from simple *in vitro* assays using cell-lines and acute endpoints (Tier 1), to more complex and  
439 physiologically-relevant *in vitro* models incorporating multiple cell types and using air-liquid  
440 interface (ALI) exposure (Tier 2). If necessary, Tier 3 recommends *in vivo* hazard assessment using a  
441 short-term inhalation study (STIS).

442

443 Starting at Tier 1, we recommend simple *in vitro* screening assays following well established  
444 protocols. The preferred assay measures inflammasome activation in the human monocyte cell-line  
445 THP-1 (SOP from REFINE (Vandebriel et al. submitted 2021)). NLRP3 inflammasome activation is an  
446 important step in the immune response to NFs [80], as it contributes to pulmonary diseases  
447 including asthma, COPD, fibrosis and cancer [80-82]. Inflammasome activation appears to regulate  
448 the balance between tissue repair and inflammation after inhalation of NFs [83] and is therefore key  
449 in understanding the inflammation potential of NFs. Several NFs have been shown to activate the  
450 NLRP3 inflammasome, including Ag, CeO<sub>2</sub>, CNTs, polystyrene, TiO<sub>2</sub> and SiO<sub>2</sub> [84]. Another suitable  
451 Tier 1 *in vitro* assay that can be used to assess macrophage activation and inflammatory potential of  
452 NFs is based on rat alveolar macrophages (NR8383). According to two recent publications, NR8383  
453 assay outcome showed reasonable predictivity to *in vivo* STIS for more than twenty NFs including  
454 AlOOH, BaSO<sub>4</sub>, different CeO<sub>2</sub>, Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, TiO<sub>2</sub>, different nano ZrO<sub>2</sub>, and ZnO, different amorphous SiO<sub>2</sub>  
455 and graphite nanoplatelets, and two nanosized organic pigments [85, 86].

456

457 Submerged exposure can greatly alter particle characteristics compared to the airborne state.

458 Therefore, at Tier 2 we recommend using an air-liquid interface (ALI) exposure to mimic inhalation

459 exposure more closely [87]. Several researchers have shown that using ALI exposure improves the

460 predictive value of *in vitro* systems [88-92]. Another way of enhancing predictivity is to better mimic

461 physiological relevance of the *in vitro* model by using co-cultures or tissue models cultured from

462 primary cells. The downside of these more complex models is that these methods have not been

463 validated or standardized and are undergoing constant optimizations to allow better predictions

464 [87]. SOPs and publications [91] [93] from the H2020 project PATROLS ([https://www.patrols-](https://www.patrols-h2020.eu)

465 [h2020.eu](https://www.patrols-h2020.eu)), provide useful information towards improved standardization of these methods.

466

467 As inflammation is a complex process, Tier 3 short-term inhalation studies (STIS) [94] might be

468 required to substantiate a read-across argument. If a target NF and a source material show similar

469 potency in a short-term study, this can be used to substantiate a read-across argument for the

470 hazards after repeated exposure from the source to the target NF. We recommend that if *in vivo*

471 studies are considered, inclusion of Tier 3 measurements for all DN (dissolution and reactivity) are

472 combined within one study to avoid additional *in vivo* testing for the other DN. STIS should be

473 performed following recommendation of OECD Guidance Document 39 [95]. Nose-only is the most

474 preferred exposure mode [96]. In case that a study according to OECD test guidelines [73, 74] is

475 required later on for regulatory purposes, the STIS data can assist the scientist to appropriately

476 design their regulatory study.

477

## 478 4. Demonstration of IATAs

479 Based on the information gathered on each DN, similarity can be assessed between the target NF  
480 and the source material. Depending on the purpose, this similarity assessment can be qualitative or  
481 quantitative.

- 482 • Qualitative: Use the IATAs to gather the evidence required to assess whether NFs are  
483 sufficiently similar to be grouped. Qualitative similarity assessment may be based on  
484 information from a variety of assays deemed appropriate to answer the IATA, justified by  
485 expert opinion. Qualitative similarity assessment based on expert judgement can help Safe-  
486 by-Design, and is the first step for regulatory read-across. Based on such qualitative  
487 similarity precautionary measures can be taken in workplace.
- 488 • Quantitative: Based on the outcome of the qualitative similarity assessment, perform a  
489 detailed quantitative similarity assessment employing mathematically derived limits of  
490 similarity between group members within each individual assay of a DN to support read-  
491 across to fill a data gap.

492

493 The IATA as presented here directs the collection of the minimum relevant evidence needed to  
494 conduct similarity assessment to confirm the proposed substances/NFs can be grouped, and to  
495 subsequently support any read-across arguments relevant to the hypothesis. Below, we focus on  
496 qualitative assessment of the similarity between NFs.

497

### 498 4.1 Selection of source materials

499 To form a preliminary group, a source material first needs to be selected against which the NF under  
500 investigation is compared. There are several considerations for selecting a source material (or  
501 materials), which depends on the purpose of grouping. For SbD and for adopting precautionary  
502 measures, less detailed information on similarity is needed. In this case, the target NF can be  
503 compared to a data-rich benchmark material such as the reference materials from the JRC

504 repository. These benchmark materials can also serve as positive and negative controls to indicate  
505 the maximum and minimum responses in an assay. To be considered acceptable for regulatory read-  
506 across a high level of similarity is needed to justify filling a data gap using information from a source  
507 material. In this case, the source material should be of similar chemical composition. For example,  
508 NFs that differ in morphology or coating can be compared, or the target NF can be compared to its  
509 bulk non-nano counterpart.

510

#### 511 4.1 Benchmark material for the IATA on very slowly dissolving NFs: CeO<sub>2</sub>

512 Cerium dioxide (CeO<sub>2</sub>) NFs are widely distributed as they are used as polishing materials, absorbents,  
513 exhaust catalysts, conductors and electrode materials. CeO<sub>2</sub> NFs are known to have a very slow  
514 dissolution rate. As a case study, we selected two well-characterized reference materials,  
515 JRCNM02102a (formerly known as NM-212) and JRCNM02101a (formerly known as NM-211),  
516 supplied by the Joint Research Centre (JRC). Both NFs of CeO<sub>2</sub> are uncoated and produced by  
517 precipitation, however these NFs of CeO<sub>2</sub> differ in size and morphology. Table 2 shows some key  
518 characteristics of JRCNM02102a and JRCNM02101a reported by the JRC [97]. JRCNM02102a in  
519 particular has been studied extensively, including long-term inhalation studies; such studies are  
520 lacking for JRCNM02101a. JRCNM02102a is known to have a half-life > 60 days [98]. Results from 90-  
521 day inhalation studies show that JRCNM02102a can accumulate in the lungs upon subchronic  
522 exposure leading to chronic inflammation and fibrosis, therefore as JRCNM02102a is considered a  
523 very slowly dissolving NF that can induce long-term effects. H-I-S was selected as the most  
524 appropriate pre-defined hypothesis for potentially grouping different NFs of CeO<sub>2</sub>.

525

526

527

528

529



530 Table 2. Particle characteristics of JRC materials JRCNM02102a and JRCNM02101a.

	<b>Primary particle size</b>	<b>Specific surface area</b>	<b>Morphology from TEM image</b>
<b>NM-211</b>	<10 nm up to 20 nm	27.8 ± 1.5 m <sup>2</sup> /g	Spherical with regular morphology
<b>NM-212</b>	<10 nm up to 100 nm	64.9 ± 4.1 m <sup>2</sup> /g	Polyhedral with irregular morphology and non-homogenous size distribution

531

532 The aim of the case study exercise was to assess whether the IATA can be used to support the

533 grouping of JRCNM02102a and JRCNM02101a on the basis of a common fate and hazard potential,

534 despite certain dissimilarities between the NFs as highlighted in Table 2. The potential IATA

535 outcomes for this case study are outlined in Box 1. Following IATA for the hypothesis on very slowly

536 dissolving NFs, data was gathered to address each DN (Table 3 and 4).

537

Box 1: Potential IATA outcomes

- Accept grouping hypothesis and use outcome for SbD of new NFs.
- Accept grouping hypothesis and use to design precautionary measures by assuming target NF will cause similar long-term effects compared to the source NF.
- Accept grouping hypothesis and then progress to building a read-across argument (the final similarity may still be unacceptable).
- Reject grouping hypothesis because the NFs dissolve at different rates with may lead to different toxicokinetics (and therefore different bioaccumulation and long-term effects)
- Reject the grouping hypothesis because one appears much more reactive (more potent) than the other or produces ROS/oxidative stress due to a different mechanism of action.
- Reject the grouping hypothesis because one appears much more inflammogenic than the other (more potent).

538

539 Table 3. Data matrix for JRCNM02102a as a benchmark material for very slowly dissolving NFs.

NM212			
Tier	Dissolution	Reactivity	Inflammation potential
1	Flask dialysis < 1 µg/L [97]. Static in PLF < 0.001 Wt % (recrystallizing) [98, 99]. Dynamic in PLF: <0.28 ng/cm <sup>2</sup> /h [99]. Half-time > 365 days (Wohlleben et al. 2021 in prep)	FRAS: 16.7 sBOD at 1000 m <sup>2</sup> /L.	Inflammasome activation: at 10 – 30 µg/cm <sup>2</sup> [100]. Submerged exposure: Increased TNF-α in NR 8383 at 22.5 µg/ml [85].
2		ALI exposure: No oxidative stress observed up to 3 µg/cm <sup>2</sup> [101]; Submerged in co-culture: No oxidative stress up to 10 µg/m <sup>2</sup> [101].	ALI exposure: No release of cytokines up to 5 µg/cm <sup>2</sup> [100]; ALI exposure: Increased IL-6 and IL-1β at 1-3 µg/cm <sup>2</sup> [101]; Submerged in co-culture: Increased IL-1β, IL-6, IL-8 and TNF-α at 10 µg/cm <sup>2</sup> [101].
3	5d and 28d study: T <sub>½</sub> 40 days at 0.5 mg/m <sup>3</sup> , T <sub>½</sub> > 200 days at >5 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [98]. Instillation: T <sub>½</sub> ~ 140 days at 1 mg/kg bw [102]. 28d study: No significant reduction of CeO <sub>2</sub> content in lung and extrapulmonary organs at 48h and 72h after exposure to 20 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [103]. 90d study: impaired clearance at 3 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [104]. 2-year study: T <sub>½</sub> 86, 114, 164 and 200 days at 0.1, 0.3, 1.0 and 3.0 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [105]	28d study: Oxidative stress (8-OH-dG) not demonstrated at 20 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [106]. 90d study: Increased expression of oxidative stress-related genes at 3 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [107], increased 8-OH-dG at 3 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [62].	5d study: increased neutrophils in lavage fluid at 0.5 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [98], 28d study: granulomatous inflammation at 5 and 25 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [98]; increased neutrophils at 2.5 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [106]. 90d study: neutrophilic infiltration and granulomatous inflammation at 3 mg/m <sup>3</sup> , progression to fibrosis [104].
<b>Evaluation</b>	<b>Very slowly dissolving <i>in vitro</i>; accumulation and very slow clearance <i>in vivo</i>.</b>	<b>No oxidative stress <i>in vitro</i> in cells; ambiguous results <i>in vivo</i>.</b>	<b>Induction of cytokines <i>in vitro</i> and inflammation <i>in vivo</i>.</b>

540

541

542 Table 4. Data matrix for JRCNM02101a to test the IATA for very slowly dissolving NFs.

NM211			
Tier	Dissolution	Reactivity	Inflammation potential
1	Flask dialysis < 1 µg/L. Static in PLF < 0.001 Wt % (recrystallizing)[98]. Dynamic in PLF: <0.73 ng/cm <sup>2</sup> /h [99]. Half-time > 365 days (Wohlleben et al. 2021 in prep)	FRAS:13 sBOD at 1000 m <sup>2</sup> /L.	Submerged: Increased TNF-α in NR 8383 at 22.5 µg/ml [85].
2			
3	5d and 28d study: High lung burden 3 weeks after exposure to 25 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [98, 108]. 28d study: No significant reduction of CeO <sub>2</sub> content in lung and extrapulmonary organs 48 h and 72 h after exposure to 10 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [103].	28d study: Oxidative stress (8- OH-dG) not demonstrated at 10 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [106].	5d study: increased neutrophils in lavage fluid at 0.5 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [98]. 28d study: increased neutrophils at 1.2 mg/m <sup>3</sup> [106].
<b>Evaluation</b>	<b>Very slowly dissolving <i>in vitro</i>; accumulation and very slow clearance <i>in vivo</i>.</b>	<b>Little information available. No oxidative stress observed <i>in vivo</i>.</b>	<b>Induction of cytokines <i>in vitro</i> and inflammation <i>in vivo</i>.</b>

543

544

545 Following the DN in the IATA, we can perform a qualitative similarity assessment to compare the two  
 546 CeO<sub>2</sub> NFs (table 5). From the available data it is clear that both NFs are very slowly dissolving and  
 547 have the potential to accumulate in lung tissues following inhalation exposure. This might lead to  
 548 long-term effects upon repeated exposure. A limited number of studies were identified reporting on  
 549 the reactivity of JRCNM02102a and JRCNM02101a, however from this data set neither NFs appears  
 550 to intrinsically produce high levels of ROS or induce significant oxidative stress *in vitro* or in short-  
 551 term *in vivo* studies. JRCNM02102a exposure however resulted in increased expression of oxidative  
 552 stress-related genes and increased 8-OH-dG after 90-day inhalation [62]. Both JRCNM02102a and  
 553 JRCNM02101a were shown to induce pro-inflammatory responses in simple *in vitro* assays which  
 554 was reflected in the development of acute and persistent inflammation *in vivo* after short-term  
 555 inhalation exposure [98, 106]. Therefore the hypothesis that both JRCNM02102a and JRCNM02101a

556 can be grouped as slowly dissolving NF with the potential to cause long-term toxicity in the lung can  
 557 be accepted.

558

559 Table 5. Comparison of JRCNM02102a and JRCNM02101a based on the IATA following the  
 560 hypothesis for very slowly dissolving NFs.

IATA DN	JRCNM02102a	JRCNM02101a
Dissolution	Very slowly dissolving <i>in vitro</i> ; accumulation and very slow clearance <i>in vivo</i> .	Very slowly dissolving <i>in vitro</i> ; accumulation and very slow clearance <i>in vivo</i> .
Reactivity	Little information available. No oxidative stress observed <i>in vivo</i> after 28d exposure, while oxidative stress was observed <i>in vivo</i> after 90d exposure.	Little information available. No oxidative stress observed <i>in vivo</i> after 28d exposure.
Inflammation	Induction of cytokines <i>in vitro</i> ; inflammation <i>in vivo</i> (5d and 28d exposure).	Induction of cytokines <i>in vitro</i> ; inflammation <i>in vivo</i> (5d and 28d exposure).
IATA OUTCOME	Accept hypothesis: Following chronic inhalation exposure, accumulation of NFs in the lungs can lead to long-term toxicity. Form Group, for SbD and for adopting precautionary measures: Assume NM211 can cause similar toxicity compared to NM212 upon long-term exposure.	

561

562

563 For the purpose of SbD or for adopting precautionary measures, the acceptance of the grouping  
 564 hypothesis supports the prediction that JRCNM02101a can induce impaired clearance and  
 565 granulomatous inflammation that can progress to fibrosis as reported for JRCNM02102a after 90  
 566 days inhalation exposure.

567

568 4.2 Benchmark material for the IATA on quickly dissolving NFs: ZnO

569 Zinc Oxide NFs (ZnO) was chosen as a case study material to exemplify the substantiation of the pre-

570 defined hypothesis, H-I-Q. We collected data relevant to each DN for a single specific ZnO NF,

571 JRCNM01100a (formerly known as NM-110).

572

573 Table 6: Data matrix for ZnO JRCNM01100a as a reference material for quickly dissolving NFs.

Tier	Dissolution	Reactivity	Inflammation potential
1	Static system: <0.05% dissolution in LLF, >90% dissolution in PLF [109]. Static system: 67% dissolution in PLF [99]. Dynamic system: $K_{diss}$ : 204 ng/cm <sup>2</sup> /h in PLF Complete dissolution confirmed after 7 days by TEM [99].	FRAS assay: intermediate reactivity [109].	Submerged: increased production of TNF- $\alpha$ and IL-8 in THP-1 [110]. Submerged: Increased IL-8 in Human hepatoblastoma C3A cells: [111]. Submerged: Increased IL-8 and MCP-1 in dHL-60 neutrophil cell [112]. Submerged: Increased levels of TNF- $\alpha$ production in HMDM [113].
2	Cellular: 51% dissolution after 24h in NR8383 macrophages [99]. Cellular: complete dissolution after 24h in THP-1 [110].	Cellular, submerged: Dose dependent decrease in reduced GSH and total glutathione antioxidant in human hepatoblastoma C3A cells [114]. p47 <sup>phox</sup> NADPH oxidase-mediated ROS formation in RAW 264.7 [115]. DCFH <sub>2</sub> -DA cellular: ROS release in 16HBE cells [113]. Cellular, submerged: Upregulation of heat-shock proteins genes (HSP) at 4h in THP-1 [116].	Submerged: Modifications of genes involved in inflammation, apoptosis and mitochondrial dysregulation at 4h in THP-1 [116]. Submerged: Severe tissue destruction at 10–1000 $\mu$ g/mL at 24h in rat precision-cut lung slices [117]. Molecular responses of A549 cells measured by multiple ‘omics’ platforms at 24h: metallothionein induction, depletion of antioxidants, repressed DNA repair, induction of apoptosis. Responses to NM110 similar to Zn <sup>2+</sup> ions, suggesting that the mode of action is mediated by dissolved metal ions rather than by the physical NF [118].
3	Intratracheal instillation (IT): No ZnO NM agglomerates observed inside the BAL macrophages after 24h [119].		IT in mouse: Increased total number, IL-6, LDH and protein in lavage fluid at 64 and 128 $\mu$ g/mouse [119]. IT in mouse: Increased acute-phase response at 11, 33 and 100 mg/kg bw [120].
<b>Evaluation</b>	<b>Quick dissolution in the low pH acellular assays. Evidence of quick dissolution within cells after uptake.</b>	<b>Reactive in acellular assays and cellular assays.</b>	<b>Induced pro-inflammatory signaling in vitro. Acute resolving inflammation in vivo.</b>

	<b>No accumulation in vivo.</b>		<b>Toxicity is driven by intracellular release of toxic ions rather than particle-driven.</b>
--	---------------------------------	--	---

574

575

576 Evidence of dissolution rate is sufficient to identify JRCNM01100a as quickly dissolving, and the  
577 reactivity and inflammatory data suggest toxicity is driven by the intracellular release of toxic ions  
578 rather than the NF itself. Data from studies conducted on other forms of ZnO NFs further support  
579 the conclusion that ZnO NFs can be considered quickly dissolving NFs with minimal potential for  
580 accumulation. Accordingly, hazard results from the intracellular dissolution of ZnO NFs to toxic ions  
581 have been demonstrated by both *in vitro* and *in vivo* models [57, 59]. Grouping via H-I-Q will  
582 therefore allow the similarity assessment between NFs to be framed by the likely relevant  
583 mechanism of action driving the potential hazard. Available *in vivo* data for JRCNM01100a consists  
584 of 2 intratracheal instillation (IT) studies. IT studies have major shortcomings as for example it is very  
585 difficult with IT to get a material spread evenly among the lung lobes and all material could end up in  
586 a single lobe and by-pass the upper respiratory tract. In addition, usually unrealistically high  
587 exposure doses are being used for IT leading to a bolus effect regardless of the toxicity of NFs [96].  
588 Therefore, IT is not considered a physiological route of exposure. However, NFs with high toxicity  
589 have been shown to induce persistent inflammation, while NFs with low toxicity induced only  
590 transient inflammation after IT. IT could be useful for screening for hazard of NFs [96].

591

## 592 5. Discussion

593 Here, we present a range of inhalation grouping hypotheses which are evidence based, employing  
594 knowledge from a wide range of published data. In addition, we present a novel tailored IATA  
595 supported by a tiered testing strategy to provide the evidence needed to support, reject or refine  
596 these grouping hypotheses. Each hypothesis takes into consideration the physicochemical  
597 characteristics of the NFs (what they are), the route of exposure and toxicokinetics (where they go)  
598 and their hazard (what they do). For the physicochemical characteristics, dissolution rate was found  
599 to be an efficient mechanism by which to group NFs, as this determines their biopersistence and  
600 their fate and behavior. Coupling the biopersistence with assessment of the hazard in terms of  
601 surface reactivity and pro-inflammatory potential allows further refinement of the group.

602

603 Thresholds were provided for the dissolution rate based on biologically relevant timeframes for cell  
604 interaction and cellular clearance from the lungs. Clearly particles which dissolve instantaneously  
605 ( $t_{1/2} < 10$  minutes) in lung lining fluid, will not persist for sufficient time to induce particle mediated  
606 effects. For this reason hypothesis H-I-I supports the argument to read-across from the ionic or  
607 molecular form of the same substance to a NF. In contrast, particles which are very slow to dissolve  
608 ( $t_{1/2} > 60$  days) may induce particle mediated toxicity and bioaccumulate (H-I-S) [25-27], with the  
609 potential to cause longer-term hazards. For the particles that have intermediary dissolution, the  
610 toxicity could be driven by particles and/or dissolution products. The rate of release of dissolution  
611 products will influence the rate at which these products are released in the cell and so their toxic  
612 potential, as well as the duration of particle persistence in the cell and so any biological effects  
613 imparted by the residual particles. We therefore set two thresholds, one for gradual dissolution with  
614 a half-life of greater than 48 hours in lysosomal fluid (H-I-G) for which accumulation cannot be  
615 discounted for, and one for quick dissolution with a half-life of less than 48 hours in lysosomal fluid  
616 (H-I-Q). However, these values are not strictly fixed. Values close to the thresholds can be supported  
617 by use of a similarity assessment.

618

619 The remaining wording of each hypotheses is less well prescribed, in order to allow flexibility.  
620 Instead, the evidence generated by use of the IATA provides the more precise details required to  
621 define a group, and can be tailored to support read-across for a specific hazard endpoint e.g.  
622 repeated dose toxicity following inhalation exposure. For example, the hypothesis for particles  
623 which dissolve quickly could be used to group particles with very low reactivity, or alternatively to  
624 group particles with relatively high reactivity. For regulatory purposes, the need to provide  
625 thresholds for such descriptors is prevented by incorporation of robust and quantitative methods of  
626 assessing similarity (White paper reference).

627

628 The IATA includes DN on reactivity and inflammation potential for assessing similarity between the  
629 target NF and a source material. Surface reactivity and inflammation potential are included as both  
630 are considered key toxicity parameters for NFs after inhalation exposure [5, 8, 9, 25, 50-53]. They are  
631 both associated with pathological outcomes; oxidative stress is associated with genotoxicity and  
632 inflammation [37-41], and inflammation with pulmonary fibrosis and cancer [26, 55]. A key toxicity  
633 parameter that is currently not included in the IATA is genotoxic potential. The main reason for not  
634 including this here is that current *in vitro* assays for testing genotoxic potential need modifications  
635 before they can be used to test NFs [121]. Experts from the Genetic Toxicology Technical Committee  
636 (GTTC) critically reviewed published data on genotoxicity assessment of NFs and found large  
637 variation in tests and systems used for *in vitro* assays. They concluded these results cannot be  
638 interpreted and first modifications of the current *in vitro* assays is needed [121]. In addition, the  
639 experts of GTTC conclude that it appears that genotoxicity by NFs is mainly induced via a secondary  
640 effect (such as via oxidative stress and/or chronic inflammation) and not via direct DNA interaction.  
641 Based on the recommendations by GTTC, a testing strategy for assessing the genotoxic potential of a  
642 NF is being developed. The here presented IATAs to support grouping and read-across of



643 nanomaterials following inhalation exposure can then be updated accordingly with a DN on  
644 genotoxicity.

645

646 Also, systemic toxicity in secondary organs and local toxicity within the upper respiratory tract are  
647 not specified in the IATA. As stated before, respirable particles are the focus of our IATA. However,  
648 the particles sizes of NFs usually cover a range and they will be deposited within the entire respiratory  
649 tract depending on the aerodynamic size distribution. At the deposited site, e.g. nasal cavity or  
650 larynx, NFs may cause local toxicity. For instantaneously, quickly and gradually dissolving NFs, the  
651 local toxicity of the released ions can be assessed by read-across to the ionic or molecular form.  
652 Potential particle-triggered toxicity at the upper respiratory tract may be assessed by particle  
653 surface-reactivity and inflammation potency. Finally, local toxicity to the upper respiratory tract can  
654 be assessed in Tier 3 STIS. Thus, this point is covered by the IATA.

655

656 Systemic toxicity can occur in the case of translocation of the NFs or their ions to the blood. For  
657 instantaneously, quickly and gradually dissolving NFs, the released ions might translocate to the  
658 blood. For these NFs, read-across to the ionic or molecular form can be performed for assessing  
659 systemic toxicity. For very slowly dissolving NFs, translocation of the particles depends strongly on  
660 their physical-chemical properties and the region of deposition. NFs deposited in the upper  
661 respiratory tract will be cleared via mucociliary transport and are subsequently swallowed and  
662 cleared via the gastro-intestinal tract. NFs that deposit in the alveoli might translocate to the blood.  
663 The translocation and systemic toxicity in secondary organs can only be assessed in *in vivo* inhalation  
664 studies. Because the existing data of repeated dose inhalation studies with very slowly dissolving NFs  
665 did not give indication for any systemic toxicity in secondary organs, and there were no established  
666 Tier 1 and Tier 2 tests available, we decided not to include systemic toxicity in our IATA.

667

668 IATAs have been proposed by the OECD for streamlining of information gathering and testing for  
669 hazard assessment of chemicals. In the context of GRACIOUS, we have used them to streamline the  
670 evidence identification and generation to test specific grouping hypotheses. We assessed the  
671 suitability of the hypotheses and the IATA through application of case studies. The case studies  
672 included CeO<sub>2</sub> JRCNM02102a, CeO<sub>2</sub> JRCNM02101a and ZnO JRCNM01100a, for which much data is  
673 available and which we propose as benchmark materials. Such benchmark materials will be useful  
674 for comparison to the NF of concern or for identifying the range of biological relevance (maximal or  
675 minimal biological response) for a particular descriptor. The data identified via the IATA was  
676 gathered into a matrix, providing insight into data gaps for these benchmark materials. The IATA  
677 starts with a DN addressing dissolution in order to identify the most relevant of the hypotheses. The  
678 CeO<sub>2</sub> NFs have a very slow dissolution rate, relevant to H-I-S, while ZnO exhibits quick dissolution,  
679 relevant to H-I-Q. Regarding dissolution, sufficient data was available for Tier 1 to assess the relevant  
680 thresholds, but little data is available on Tier 2 assays (dissolution in cells). Such Tier 2 methods are  
681 quite laborious and do not provide much added value compared to the dynamic acellular dissolution  
682 assay. We therefore suggest that in many instances the Tier 1 assays are sufficient for assessment of  
683 dissolution in relation to grouping. A Tier 2 assessment of dissolution may be more relevant to the  
684 hypotheses where gradual or quick dissolution intracellularly is relevant (H-I-Q and H-I-G).

685

686 For the other DNs, sufficient data was observed for Tier 1 assays and for Tier 3 *in vivo* studies, while  
687 there is limited data available for Tier 2 assays. The proposed Tier 2 assays are generally of higher  
688 complexity than Tier 1 assays, plus they are relatively innovative and therefore lack standardization.  
689 During application of the IATA during grouping, Tier 3 *in vivo* data might be lacking for some NFs.  
690 Tier 2 data could therefore be needed to provide the data required for a similarity assessment  
691 between NFs within the group. Innovative Tier 2 assays such as co-cultures, primary cells and/or  
692 exposure at the air-liquid interface, may be more predictive due to a higher physiological relevance,  
693 or by allowing identification of the mechanism triggering toxicity. For example, some ALI models

694 show a better correlation to *in vivo* data than submerged models [88-92]. The disadvantage of more  
695 complex models, at this time, is that optimizations are ongoing and therefore standardization is  
696 currently lacking. For grouping purposes, it would be ideal to have an assay that is simple and  
697 predictive at the same time. Tier 2 assays will require optimization to deliver this need. In future as  
698 Tier 2 assays are validated and evidence builds to demonstrate such assays are suitably and reliably  
699 predictive of hazard, the waiving of Tier 3 *in vivo* testing may be justified reducing the reliance on  
700 animal testing for NM hazard.

701

702 As described above, once the data is collected into a matrix a qualitative or quantitative similarity  
703 assessment can be conducted. Qualitative approaches can be used to inform the SbD of NFs, or for  
704 adopting precautionary measures. For regulatory read-across, a quantitative similarity assessment  
705 between group members is needed. For the purpose of read-across to fill a data gap for regulatory  
706 hazard assessment, such as extrapolation of the 90-day inhalation study point of departure (POD)  
707 from JRCNM02102a to JRCNM02101a, a read-across argument will need to be built. This will require  
708 a quantitative similarity assessment to compare the potencies of the target (JRCNM02101a) and the  
709 source NF (JRCNM02102a), based on the available data gathered using the IATAs. Several methods  
710 of quantitative similarity assessment have been generated and will form the basis of a White Paper  
711 and a further 12 publications to be published in NanoImpact (to be submitted by June 2021). A full  
712 description of these methods is therefore beyond the scope of this paper.

713

714 The grouping approach and IATAs presented here will be integrated in the overall GRACIOUS  
715 framework [10]. The GRACIOUS framework will guide the user through the different steps to  
716 hypothesis selection and subsequent IATA testing to allow grouping [5-9]. The GRACIOUS framework  
717 will be available as a guidance document and also as a software “blueprint” tool (to be published  
718 Sept 2021). Linked to NM databases (e.g. eNanoMapper), the open-access blueprint will facilitate  
719 the rapid identification of potential group members or potential source materials and provide a

720 user-friendly interface to facilitate the use of the IATA to support grouping and subsequent read-  
721 across.

722

723 Grouping approaches are necessary to perform risk assessment based on limited data. The  
724 GRACIOUS approach presented here provides an intuitive way to group NFs based on hypotheses  
725 and using an IATA that guides the user to an outcome. We believe this approach is a step forward to  
726 streamline hazard assessment of NFs and hope it will be expanded in the future to allow growth of  
727 safe nanotechnology.

728

## 729 [Acknowledgements](#)

730 This research was funded by EU-project GRACIOUS funded by European Union's Horizon 2020  
731 research and innovation programme under grant agreement 7608640, with co-funding by the Dutch  
732 Ministry of Infrastructure and Water Management. We would like to thank Dr. Josje Arts and Dr.  
733 Yvonne Staal for critically evaluating the manuscript.

734

## 735 [Author Disclosure Statement](#)

736 No competing financial interests exist.

737

## 738 References

- 739 1. OECD, *Guidance on grouping of chemicals, second edition*. 2014, OECD Environment, Health and  
740 Safety Publications, Series on Testing and No. 194: Paris, France.
- 741 2. ECHA, *Read-Across Assessment Framework (RAAF)*. 2017, ECHA: Helsinki, Finland.
- 742 3. ECHA, *Guidance on information requirements and chemical safety assessment*  
743 *Appendix R.6-1 for nanoforms applicable to the Guidance on QSARs and Grouping of Chemicals*. 2019: Helsinki.
- 744 4. Park, M.V., et al., *Development of a systematic method to assess similarity between nanomaterials for*  
745 *human hazard evaluation purposes - lessons learnt*. *Nanotoxicology*, 2018. **12**(7): p. 652-676.
- 746 5. Arts, J.H., et al., *A decision-making framework for the grouping and testing of nanomaterials*  
747 *(DF4nanoGrouping)*. *Regul Toxicol Pharmacol*, 2015.
- 748 6. Giusti, A., et al., *Nanomaterial grouping: Existing approaches and future recommendations*.  
749 *NanoImpact*, 2019. **16**: p. 100182.
- 750 7. Sayes, C.M., P.A. Smith, and I.V. Ivanov, *A framework for grouping nanoparticles based on their*  
751 *measurable characteristics*. *Int J Nanomedicine*, 2013. **8 Suppl 1**: p. 45-56.
- 752 8. Oomen, A.G., et al., *Grouping and Read-Across Approaches for Risk Assessment of Nanomaterials*. *Int J*  
753 *Environ Res Public Health*, 2015. **12**(10): p. 13415-34.
- 754 9. Lamon, L., et al., *Grouping of nanomaterials to read-across hazard endpoints: a review*.  
755 *Nanotoxicology*, 2019. **13**(1): p. 100-118.
- 756 10. Stone, V., et al., *A framework for grouping and read-across of nanomaterials- supporting innovation*  
757 *and risk assessment*. *Nano Today*, 2020. **35**: p. 100941.
- 758 11. (CEN), E.C.f.S., *Workplace atmospheres - Size fraction definitions for measurement of airborne*  
759 *particles*. 1993, CEN: Brussels.
- 760 12. McClellan, R.O. and R.F. Henderson, *Concepts in Inhalation Toxicology*. 1995, Washington: Taylor &  
761 Francis. 648.
- 762 13. Nel, A., et al., *Nanomaterial toxicity testing in the 21st century: use of a predictive toxicological*  
763 *approach and high-throughput screening*. *Acc Chem Res*, 2013. **46**(3): p. 607-21.
- 764 14. Braakhuis, H.M., A.G. Oomen, and F.R. Cassee, *Grouping nanomaterials to predict their potential to*  
765 *induce pulmonary inflammation*. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol*, 2016. **299**: p. 3-7.

- 766 15. Braakhuis, H.M., et al., *Physicochemical characteristics of nanomaterials that affect pulmonary*  
767 *inflammation*. Part Fibre Toxicol, 2014. **11**: p. 18.
- 768 16. Arts, J.H., et al., *A critical appraisal of existing concepts for the grouping of nanomaterials*. Regul  
769 Toxicol Pharmacol, 2014. **70**(2): p. 492-506.
- 770 17. Oomen, A.G., et al., *Grouping and Read-Across Approaches for Risk Assessment of Nanomaterials*. Int J  
771 Environ Res Public Health, 2015. **12**(10): p. 13415-34.
- 772 18. Wohlleben, W., et al., *The nanoGRAVUR framework to group (nano)materials for their occupational,*  
773 *consumer, environmental risks based on a harmonized set of material properties, applied to 34 case*  
774 *studies*. Nanoscale, 2019. **11**(38): p. 17637-17654.
- 775 19. Oberdörster, G. and T.A.J. Kuhlbusch, *In vivo effects: Methodologies and biokinetics of inhaled*  
776 *nanomaterials*. NanoImpact, 2018. **10**: p. 38-60.
- 777 20. Keller, J.G., et al., *Understanding Dissolution Rates via Continuous Flow Systems with Physiologically*  
778 *Relevant Metal Ion Saturation in Lysosome*. Nanomaterials (Basel), 2020. **10**(2).
- 779 21. Naasz, S., R. Altenburger, and D. Kühnel, *Environmental mixtures of nanomaterials and chemicals: The*  
780 *Trojan-horse phenomenon and its relevance for ecotoxicity*. Sci Total Environ, 2018. **635**: p. 1170-  
781 1181.
- 782 22. Hsiao, I.L., et al., *Trojan-horse mechanism in the cellular uptake of silver nanoparticles verified by*  
783 *direct intra- and extracellular silver speciation analysis*. Environ Sci Technol, 2015. **49**(6): p. 3813-21.
- 784 23. Sutunkova, M.P., et al., *On the contribution of the phagocytosis and the solubilization to the iron oxide*  
785 *nanoparticles retention in and elimination from lungs under long-term inhalation exposure*.  
786 Toxicology, 2016. **363-364**: p. 19-28.
- 787 24. van Kesteren, P.C.E., et al., *Novel insights into the risk assessment of the nanomaterial synthetic*  
788 *amorphous silica, additive E551, in food*. Nanotoxicology, 2015. **9**(4): p. 442-452.
- 789 25. Bos, P.M.J., et al., *Pulmonary toxicity in rats following inhalation exposure to poorly soluble particles:*  
790 *The issue of impaired clearance and the relevance for human health hazard and risk assessment*. Regul  
791 Toxicol Pharmacol, 2019. **109**: p. 104498.
- 792 26. Braakhuis, H.M., et al., *Mechanism of Action of TiO<sub>2</sub>: Recommendations to Reduce Uncertainties*  
793 *Related to Carcinogenic Potential*. Annual Review of Pharmacology and Toxicology, 2021. **61**(1): p.  
794 203-223.

- 795 27. Geiser, M. and W.G. Kreyling, *Deposition and biokinetics of inhaled nanoparticles*. Part Fibre Toxicol,  
796 2010. **7**: p. 2.
- 797 28. Heinrich, U., et al., *Chronic inhalation exposure of Wistar rats and two different strains of mice to*  
798 *diesel exhaust, carbon black and titanium dioxide*. Inhal Toxicol, 1995. **7**: p. 23.
- 799 29. Knaapen, A.M., et al., *Inhaled particles and lung cancer. Part A: Mechanisms*. Int J Cancer, 2004.  
800 **109**(6): p. 799-809.
- 801 30. Brown, J.S., W.E. Wilson, and L.D. Grant, *Dosimetric comparisons of particle deposition and retention*  
802 *in rats and humans*. Inhal Toxicol, 2005. **17**(7-8): p. 355-85.
- 803 31. Ferin, J. and M.L. Feldstein, *Pulmonary clearance and hilar lymph node content in rats after particle*  
804 *exposure*. Environmental Research, 1978. **16**(1): p. 342-352.
- 805 32. Duffin, R., et al., *Proinflammogenic effects of low-toxicity and metal nanoparticles in vivo and in vitro:*  
806 *highlighting the role of particle surface area and surface reactivity*. Inhal Toxicol, 2007. **19**(10): p. 849-  
807 56.
- 808 33. Limbach, L.K., et al., *Exposure of engineered nanoparticles to human lung epithelial cells: influence of*  
809 *chemical composition and catalytic activity on oxidative stress*. Environ Sci Technol, 2007. **41**(11): p.  
810 4158-63.
- 811 34. Landsiedel, R., et al., *Testing metal-oxide nanomaterials for human safety*. Adv Mater, 2010. **22**(24): p.  
812 2601-27.
- 813 35. Stone, V., et al., *Proinflammatory effects of particles on macrophages and epithelial cells*, in *Particle*  
814 *Toxicology*, K. Donaldson and P. Borm, Editors. 2007, CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group: Boca Raton,  
815 FL.
- 816 36. Sies, H., *Oxidative stress: a concept in redox biology and medicine*. Redox Biol, 2015. **4**: p. 180-3.
- 817 37. Lanone, S., et al., *Comparative toxicity of 24 manufactured nanoparticles in human alveolar epithelial*  
818 *and macrophage cell lines*. Part Fibre Toxicol, 2009. **6**: p. 14.
- 819 38. Marano, F., et al., *Nanoparticles: molecular targets and cell signalling*. Arch Toxicol, 2011. **85**(7): p.  
820 733-41.
- 821 39. Halliwell, B. and M. Whiteman, *Measuring reactive species and oxidative damage in vivo and in cell*  
822 *culture: how should you do it and what do the results mean?* Br J Pharmacol, 2004. **142**(2): p. 231-55.

- 823 40. Fu, P.P., et al., *Mechanisms of nanotoxicity: generation of reactive oxygen species*. J Food Drug Anal,  
824 2014. **22**(1): p. 64-75.
- 825 41. Borm, P.J. and D. Müller-Schulte, *Nanoparticles in drug delivery and environmental exposure: same*  
826 *size, same risks?* Nanomedicine (Lond), 2006. **1**(2): p. 235-49.
- 827 42. Ayres, J.G., et al., *Evaluating the toxicity of airborne particulate matter and nanoparticles by*  
828 *measuring oxidative stress potential--a workshop report and consensus statement*. Inhal Toxicol,  
829 2008. **20**(1): p. 75-99.
- 830 43. Driscoll, K.E., *TNFalpha and MIP-2: role in particle-induced inflammation and regulation by oxidative*  
831 *stress*. Toxicol Lett, 2000. **112-113**: p. 177-83.
- 832 44. Horie, M., et al., *Comparison of acute oxidative stress on rat lung induced by nano and fine-scale,*  
833 *soluble and insoluble metal oxide particles: NiO and TiO2*. Inhal Toxicol, 2012. **24**(7): p. 391-400.
- 834 45. Hussain, S., et al., *Oxidative stress and proinflammatory effects of carbon black and titanium dioxide*  
835 *nanoparticles: role of particle surface area and internalized amount*. Toxicology, 2009. **260**(1-3): p.  
836 142-9.
- 837 46. Li, N., T. Xia, and A.E. Nel, *The role of oxidative stress in ambient particulate matter-induced lung*  
838 *diseases and its implications in the toxicity of engineered nanoparticles*. Free Radic Biol Med, 2008.  
839 **44**(9): p. 1689-99.
- 840 47. Moller, P., et al., *Role of oxidative damage in toxicity of particulates*. Free Radic Res, 2010. **44**(1): p. 1-  
841 46.
- 842 48. Pelclova, D., et al., *Markers of lipid oxidative damage in the exhaled breath condensate of nano TiO2*  
843 *production workers*. Nanotoxicology, 2017. **11**(1): p. 52-63.
- 844 49. Song, B., et al., *Contribution of oxidative stress to TiO2 nanoparticle-induced toxicity*. Environmental  
845 Toxicology and Pharmacology, 2016. **48**: p. 130-140.
- 846 50. Bermudez, E., et al., *Pulmonary responses of mice, rats, and hamsters to subchronic inhalation of*  
847 *ultrafine titanium dioxide particles*. Toxicol Sci, 2004. **77**(2): p. 347-57.
- 848 51. Zhao, F., et al., *Titanium dioxide nanoparticle stimulating pro-inflammatory responses in vitro and in*  
849 *vivo for inhibited cancer metastasis*. Life Sci, 2018. **202**: p. 44-51.
- 850 52. Bevan, R.J., et al., *Toxicity testing of poorly soluble particles, lung overload and lung cancer*. Regul  
851 Toxicol Pharmacol, 2018. **100**: p. 80-91.



- 852 53. Braakhuis, H.M., et al., *Identification of the appropriate dose metric for pulmonary inflammation of*  
853 *silver nanoparticles in an inhalation toxicity study.* *Nanotoxicology*, 2016. **10**(1): p. 63-73.
- 854 54. Villeneuve, D.L., et al., *Representing the Process of Inflammation as Key Events in Adverse Outcome*  
855 *Pathways.* *Toxicol Sci*, 2018. **163**(2): p. 346-352.
- 856 55. Halappanavar, S., et al., *Adverse outcome pathways as a tool for the design of testing strategies to*  
857 *support the safety assessment of emerging advanced materials at the nanoscale.* *Particle and Fibre*  
858 *Toxicology*, 2020. **17**(1): p. 16.
- 859 56. Napierska, D., et al., *Cytokine production by co-cultures exposed to monodisperse amorphous silica*  
860 *nanoparticles: the role of size and surface area.* *Toxicol Lett*, 2012. **211**(2): p. 98-104.
- 861 57. Wang, B., et al., *Toxicity of ZnO nanoparticles to macrophages due to cell uptake and intracellular*  
862 *release of zinc ions.* *J Nanosci Nanotechnol*, 2014. **14**(8): p. 5688-96.
- 863 58. Chen, J.K., et al., *Particulate nature of inhaled zinc oxide nanoparticles determines systemic effects*  
864 *and mechanisms of pulmonary inflammation in mice.* *Nanotoxicology*, 2015. **9**(1): p. 43-53.
- 865 59. Cho, W.S., et al., *Progressive severe lung injury by zinc oxide nanoparticles; the role of Zn<sup>2+</sup> dissolution*  
866 *inside lysosomes.* *Part Fibre Toxicol*, 2011. **8**: p. 27.
- 867 60. Cho, W.S., et al., *Zeta potential and solubility to toxic ions as mechanisms of lung inflammation caused*  
868 *by metal/metal oxide nanoparticles.* *Toxicol Sci*, 2012. **126**(2): p. 469-77.
- 869 61. Cho, W.-S., et al., *Differential pro-inflammatory effects of metal oxide nanoparticles and their soluble*  
870 *ions in vitro and in vivo; zinc and copper nanoparticles, but not their ions, recruit eosinophils to the*  
871 *lungs.* *Nanotoxicology*, 2012. **6**(1): p. 22-35.
- 872 62. Guichard, Y., et al., *Genotoxicity of synthetic amorphous silica nanoparticles in rats following short-*  
873 *term exposure. Part 2: intratracheal instillation and intravenous injection.* *Environ Mol Mutagen*,  
874 2015. **56**(2): p. 228-44.
- 875 63. Landsiedel, R., et al., *Long-term effects of inhaled nanoparticles in rats - ceriumdioxide and*  
876 *bariumsulfate.* *Toxicology Letters*, 2019. **314S1**: p. 64S.
- 877 64. Reuzel, P.G.J., et al., *Subchronic inhalation toxicity of amorphous silicas and quartz dust in rats.* *Food*  
878 *and Chemical Toxicology*, 1991. **29**(5): p. 341-354.
- 879 65. Muhle, H., et al., *Neoplastic lung lesions in rat after chronic exposure to crystalline silica.* *Scand J Work*  
880 *Environ Health*, 1995. **21 Suppl 2**: p. 27-9.

- 881 66. Koltermann-Jüilly, J., et al., *Abiotic dissolution rates of 24 (nano)forms of 6 substances compared to*  
882 *macrophage-assisted dissolution and in vivo pulmonary clearance: Grouping by biodissolution and*  
883 *transformation*. NanolImpact, 2018. **12**: p. 29-41.
- 884 67. Wang, Z., et al., *Chemical Dissolution Pathways of MoS<sub>2</sub> Nanosheets in Biological and Environmental*  
885 *Media*. Environ Sci Technol, 2016. **50**(13): p. 7208-17.
- 886 68. Stefaniak, A.B., et al., *Characterization of phagolysosomal simulant fluid for study of beryllium aerosol*  
887 *particle dissolution*. Toxicol In Vitro, 2005. **19**(1): p. 123-34.
- 888 69. Gualtieri, A.F., et al., *In vitro acellular dissolution of mineral fibres: A comparative study*. Scientific  
889 Reports, 2018. **8**(1): p. 7071.
- 890 70. Nguea, H., et al., *Macrophage Culture as a Suitable Paradigm for Evaluation of Synthetic Vitreous*  
891 *Fibers*. Critical Reviews in Toxicology, 2008. **38**(8): p. 675-695.
- 892 71. Luoto, K., et al., *The effect of fiber length on the dissolution by macrophages of rockwool and*  
893 *glasswool fibers*. Environ Res, 1995. **70**(1): p. 51-61.
- 894 72. Warheit, D.B., et al., *Biodegradability of para-aramid respirable-sized fiber-shaped particulates (RFP)*  
895 *in human lung cells*. Toxicol Sci, 2006. **89**(1): p. 296-303.
- 896 73. OECD, *Test No. 412: Subacute Inhalation Toxicity: 28-Day Study*. 2018.
- 897 74. OECD, *Test No. 413: Subchronic Inhalation Toxicity: 90-day Study*. 2018.
- 898 75. Okpowe, O., et al., *Deliverable 5.3 Reactivity: Functional assays established and validated*, H.E.-p.  
899 GRACIOUS, Editor. 2019.
- 900 76. Wilson, M.R., et al., *Nanoparticle interactions with zinc and iron: Implications for toxicology and*  
901 *inflammation*. Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology, 2007. **225**(1): p. 80-89.
- 902 77. Bahl, A., et al., *Nanomaterial categorization by surface reactivity: A case study comparing 35 materials*  
903 *with four different test methods*. NanolImpact, 2020. **19**: p. 100234.
- 904 78. Chatterjee, N., et al., *Global metabolomics approach in in vitro and in vivo models reveals hepatic*  
905 *glutathione depletion induced by amorphous silica nanoparticles*. Chemico-Biological Interactions,  
906 2018. **293**: p. 100-106.
- 907 79. Peijnenburg, W., et al., *A Method to Assess the Relevance of Nanomaterial Dissolution During*  
908 *Reactivity Testing*. Materials (Basel), 2020. **13**(10).

- 909 80. Ather, J.L., et al., *Inflammasome Activity in Non-Microbial Lung Inflammation*. J Environ Immunol  
910 Toxicol, 2014. **1**(3): p. 108-117.
- 911 81. Birrell, M.A. and S. Eltom, *The role of the NLRP3 Inflammasome in the pathogenesis of airway disease*.  
912 Pharmacology & Therapeutics, 2011. **130**(3): p. 364-370.
- 913 82. De Nardo, D., C.M. De Nardo, and E. Latz, *New insights into mechanisms controlling the NLRP3*  
914 *inflammasome and its role in lung disease*. Am J Pathol, 2014. **184**(1): p. 42-54.
- 915 83. Sayan, M. and B.T. Mossman, *The NLRP3 inflammasome in pathogenic particle and fibre-associated*  
916 *lung inflammation and diseases*. Part Fibre Toxicol, 2016. **13**(1): p. 51.
- 917 84. Sun, B., et al., *NLRP3 inflammasome activation induced by engineered nanomaterials*. Small, 2013.  
918 **9**(9-10): p. 1595-607.
- 919 85. Wiemann, M., et al., *An in vitro alveolar macrophage assay for predicting the short-term inhalation*  
920 *toxicity of nanomaterials*. J Nanobiotechnology, 2016. **14**: p. 16.
- 921 86. Wiemann, M., et al., *In Vitro and In Vivo Short-Term Pulmonary Toxicity of Differently Sized Colloidal*  
922 *Amorphous SiO<sub>2</sub>*. Nanomaterials (Basel), 2018. **8**(3).
- 923 87. Lacroix, G., et al., *Air-Liquid Interface In Vitro Models for Respiratory Toxicology Research: Consensus*  
924 *Workshop and Recommendations*. Applied In Vitro Toxicology, 2018. **4**(2): p. 91-106.
- 925 88. Diabaté, S., et al., *Air-Liquid Interface Exposure of Lung Epithelial Cells to Low Doses of Nanoparticles*  
926 *to Assess Pulmonary Adverse Effects*. Nanomaterials (Basel), 2020. **11**(1).
- 927 89. Loret, T., et al., *Air-liquid interface exposure to aerosols of poorly soluble nanomaterials induces*  
928 *different biological activation levels compared to exposure to suspensions*. Part Fibre Toxicol, 2016.  
929 **13**(1): p. 58.
- 930 90. Polk, W.W., et al., *Aerosol generation and characterization of multi-walled carbon nanotubes exposed*  
931 *to cells cultured at the air-liquid interface*. Part Fibre Toxicol, 2016. **13**: p. 20.
- 932 91. Braakhuis, H.M., et al., *An Air-liquid Interface Bronchial Epithelial Model for Realistic, Repeated*  
933 *Inhalation Exposure to Airborne Particles for Toxicity Testing*. JoVE, 2020.
- 934 92. He, R.-W., et al., *Optimization of an air-liquid interface in vitro cell co-culture model to estimate the*  
935 *hazard of aerosol exposures*. Journal of Aerosol Science, 2021. **153**: p. 105703.
- 936 93. Barosova, H., et al., *Multicellular Human Alveolar Model Composed of Epithelial Cells and Primary*  
937 *Immune Cells for Hazard Assessment*. JoVE, 2020.

- 938 94. Landsiedel, R., et al., *Application of short-term inhalation studies to assess the inhalation toxicity of*  
939 *nanomaterials*. Part Fibre Toxicol, 2014. **11**: p. 16.
- 940 95. OECD, *Guidance document on inhalation toxicity studies*, J.M.O.T.C.C.A.T.W.P.O.C. ENVIRONMENT  
941 DIRECTORATE, PESTICIDES AND BIOTECHNOLOGY, Editor. 2018, OECD: Paris.
- 942 96. Morimoto, Y., et al., *Significance of Intratracheal Instillation Tests for the Screening of Pulmonary*  
943 *Toxicity of Nanomaterials*. J uoeh, 2017. **39**(2): p. 123-132.
- 944 97. Singh, C., et al., *Cerium Dioxide, NM-211, NM-212, NM-213. Characterisation and test item*  
945 *preparation*, in *JRC Repository: NM-series of Representative Manufactured Nanomaterials*. 2014, JRC:  
946 Ispra.
- 947 98. Keller, J., et al., *Time course of lung retention and toxicity of inhaled particles: short-term exposure to*  
948 *nano-Ceria*. Arch Toxicol, 2014. **88**(11): p. 2033-59.
- 949 99. Koltermann-Juelly, J., et al., *Abiotic dissolution rates of 24 (nano)forms of 6 substances compared to*  
950 *macrophage-assisted dissolution and in vivo pulmonary clearance: Grouping by biodissolution and*  
951 *transformation*. NanoImpact, 2018. **12**.
- 952 100. Cappellini, F., et al., *Dry Generation of CeO(2) Nanoparticles and Deposition onto a Co-Culture of A549*  
953 *and THP-1 Cells in Air-Liquid Interface-Dosimetry Considerations and Comparison to Submerged*  
954 *Exposure*. Nanomaterials (Basel), 2020. **10**(4).
- 955 101. Loret, T., et al., *Predicting the in vivo pulmonary toxicity induced by acute exposure to poorly soluble*  
956 *nanomaterials by using advanced in vitro methods*. Part Fibre Toxicol, 2018. **15**(1): p. 25.
- 957 102. Molina, R., et al., *Bioavailability, distribution and clearance of tracheally instilled, gavaged or injected*  
958 *cerium dioxide nanoparticles and ionic cerium*. Environ. Sci.: Nano, 2014. **1**.
- 959 103. Geraets, L., et al., *Tissue Distribution of Inhaled Micro- and Nano-sized Cerium Oxide Particles in Rats:*  
960 *Results From a 28-Day Exposure Study*. Toxicol Sci, 2012. **127**(2): p. 463-73.
- 961 104. Schwotzer, D., et al., *Effects from a 90-day inhalation toxicity study with cerium oxide and barium*  
962 *sulfate nanoparticles in rats*. Part Fibre Toxicol, 2017. **14**(1): p. 23.
- 963 105. Tentschert, J., et al., *Organ burden of inhaled nanoceria in a 2-year low-dose exposure study: dump or*  
964 *depot?* Nanotoxicology, 2020. **14**(4): p. 554-576.
- 965 106. Gosens, I., et al., *Comparative hazard identification of nano- and micro-sized cerium oxide particles*  
966 *based on 28-day inhalation studies in rats*. Nanotoxicology, 2014. **8**(6): p. 643-53.

- 967 107. Schwotzer, D., et al., *Cerium oxide and barium sulfate nanoparticle inhalation affects gene expression*  
968 *in alveolar epithelial cells type II*. J Nanobiotechnology, 2018. **16**(1): p. 16.
- 969 108. Dekkers, S., et al., *Differences in the toxicity of cerium dioxide nanomaterials after inhalation can be*  
970 *explained by lung deposition, animal species and nanoforms*. Inhal Toxicol, 2018. **30**(7-8): p. 273-286.
- 971 109. Arts, J.H., et al., *Case studies putting the decision-making framework for the grouping and testing of*  
972 *nanomaterials (DF4nanoGrouping) into practice*. Regul Toxicol Pharmacol, 2016. **76**: p. 234-61.
- 973 110. Brzicova, T., et al., *Molecular Responses in THP-1 Macrophage-Like Cells Exposed to Diverse*  
974 *Nanoparticles*. Nanomaterials (Basel), 2019. **9**(5).
- 975 111. Kermanizadeh, A., et al., *In vitro assessment of engineered nanomaterials using a hepatocyte cell line:*  
976 *cytotoxicity, pro-inflammatory cytokines and functional markers*. Nanotoxicology, 2013. **7**(3): p. 301-  
977 13.
- 978 112. Verdon, R., et al., *Neutrophil activation by nanomaterials in vitro: comparing strengths and limitations*  
979 *of primary human cells with those of an immortalized (HL-60) cell line*. Nanotoxicology, 2020: p. 1-20.
- 980 113. Farcas, L., et al., *Comprehensive In Vitro Toxicity Testing of a Panel of Representative Oxide*  
981 *Nanomaterials: First Steps towards an Intelligent Testing Strategy*. PLoS One, 2015. **10**(5): p.  
982 e0127174.
- 983 114. Kermanizadeh, A., et al., *An in vitro liver model--assessing oxidative stress and genotoxicity following*  
984 *exposure of hepatocytes to a panel of engineered nanomaterials*. Part Fibre Toxicol, 2012. **9**: p. 28.
- 985 115. Wilhelmi, V., et al., *Zinc oxide nanoparticles induce necrosis and apoptosis in macrophages in a*  
986 *p47phox- and Nrf2-independent manner*. PLoS One, 2013. **8**(6): p. e65704.
- 987 116. Safar, R., et al., *Cytotoxicity and global transcriptional responses induced by zinc oxide nanoparticles*  
988 *NM 110 in PMA-differentiated THP-1 cells*. Toxicol Lett, 2019. **308**: p. 65-73.
- 989 117. Sauer, U.G., et al., *Applicability of rat precision-cut lung slices in evaluating nanomaterial cytotoxicity,*  
990 *apoptosis, oxidative stress, and inflammation*. Toxicol Appl Pharmacol, 2014. **276**(1): p. 1-20.
- 991 118. Dekkers, S., et al., *Multi-omics approaches confirm metal ions mediate the main toxicological*  
992 *pathways of metal-bearing nanoparticles in lung epithelial A549 cells*. Environmental Science: Nano,  
993 2018. **5**(6): p. 1506-1517.
- 994 119. Gosens, I., et al., *Comparative hazard identification by a single dose lung exposure of zinc oxide and*  
995 *silver nanomaterials in mice*. PLoS One, 2015. **10**(5): p. e0126934.

996 120. Hadrup, N., et al., *Acute phase response and inflammation following pulmonary exposure to low doses*  
997 *of zinc oxide nanoparticles in mice*. *Nanotoxicology*, 2019. **13**(9): p. 1275-1292.

998 121. Elespuru, R., et al., *Genotoxicity assessment of nanomaterials: recommendations on best practices,*  
999 *assays and methods*. *Toxicol Sci*, 2018.

1000

1001 Correspondence address

1002 Dr. Hedwig Braakhuis

1003 Antonie van Leeuwenhoeklaan 9

1004 3720 BA Bilthoven

1005 The Netherlands

1006 [hedwig.braakhuis@rivm.nl](mailto:hedwig.braakhuis@rivm.nl)

1007