Determining what really counts: Modeling and measuring nanoparticle number concentrations

- 3
- Elijah J. Petersen¹, Antonio R. Montoro Bustos², Blaza Toman³, Monique Johnson², Mark 4 Ellefson⁴, George C. Caceres², Anna Lena Neuer⁶, Qilin Chan⁵, Jonathan Kemling⁵, Brian 5 Mader⁴, Karen Murphy², Matthias Roesslein⁶ 6 7 ¹ Biosystems and Biomaterials Division, Material Measurement Laboratory, National Institute of 8 Standards and Technology (NIST), 100 Bureau Drive, Gaithersburg, MD 20899 9 10 ²Chemical Sciences Division, Material Measurement Laboratory, National Institute of Standards 11 and Technology (NIST), 100 Bureau Drive, Gaithersburg, MD 20899 12 ³ Statistical Engineering Division, Information Technology Laboratory, National Institute of 13 Standards and Technology (NIST), 100 Bureau Drive, Gaithersburg, MD 20899 14 ⁴ 3M, Environmental Laboratory, St. Paul, MN, USA 15 ⁵ 3M, Corporate Research Analytical Division, St. Paul, MN, USA 16 ⁶ EMPA, Swiss Federal Laboratories for Material Testing and Research, Particles-Biology 17 Interactions Laboratory, CH-9014 St. Gallen, Switzerland 18

20 Abstract

Particle number concentration (PNC) measurements are critical for research and regulatory 21 decision making related to the potential applications and implications of nanotechnology. 22 23 However, the degree to which different analytical methods yield similar PNCs has not yet been studied. In this study, monodisperse gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) with varying sizes (30 nm or 60 24 25 nm) and surface coatings (citrate, polyvinylpyrrolidone, or branched polyethyleneimine) were evaluated using five techniques: scanning electron microscopy (SEM), dynamic light scattering 26 27 (DLS), differential mobility analysis (DMA), nanoparticle tracking analysis (NTA), and single 28 particle inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (spICP-MS). The two techniques that only measured the NP core size (spICP-MS and SEM), as opposed to the larger hydrodynamic diameter, 29 yielded PNCs with the closest agreement (within 20 % of each other), while PNCs among all 30 31 techniques sometimes varied by a factor of 3. Positively charged AuNPs coated with branched polyethyleneimine yielded the most variable results. Deriving the PNC using the particle size 32 distribution has several advantages over using only the mean size based on these results and 33 statistical modeling given the substantial impact of the tails of the distribution toward smaller 34 particles. The size distributions measured by the different techniques were also used to model the 35 AuNP concentration that would reach the cells in an *in vitro* toxicity experiment. Surprisingly, 36 37 there was a strong impact of the analytical technique on the modeled cellular AuNP concentration for some of the AuNPs. 38

- 39 Keywords: Nanotechnology, particle counting, nanotoxicology, size distribution
- 40 TOC graphic



What is the particle number concentration in this vial?

- 42 This paper describes a comprehensive investigation of particle number concentrations including a
- 43 multi-method comparison, theoretical modeling, and cellular dosimetry.

44 Introduction

The enhanced or novel properties of nanoparticles (NPs) are expected to lead to their 45 widespread use in consumer products such as in polymeric materials,¹⁻³ and for commercial 46 applications in textiles, biomedical applications, and environmental applications.¹⁻⁵ NPs are 47 defined as particles with one dimension between 1 nm and 100 nm.^{6, 7} During the life cycle of 48 these materials, it is possible that NPs will be released causing exposure to workers, consumers, 49 and ecological receptors.^{4, 8-12} This has led to extensive research to develop robust methods to 50 assess potential toxicological risks¹³⁻²¹ and to quantify NPs in different matrices (e.g., water, soil, 51 and biological tissues).²²⁻²⁸ 52

The issue concerning which dose metric to use in nanotoxicological studies (i.e., whether 53 54 to use the mass, particle number, or surface area concentration to assess the response of cells or organisms to NP exposure) has been a topic of debate since nearly the beginning of the 55 nanotoxicology field.²⁹ While measuring a mass concentration for dissolved organic and inorganic 56 substances is linearly related to their number concentration, the situation is more complex for NPs. 57 Unlike dissolved chemicals, NPs have a distribution of sizes; they may undergo changes in test 58 59 media such as dissolution or agglomeration; and the conversion from a mass- or surface area-based 60 concentration to a number-based concentration requires a more complex formula than a simple linear correlation. Although the mass concentration is the most widely reported metric for the 61 exposure concentration in nanoecotoxicological research, some studies have suggested that 62 alternative dose metrics such as the surface area-based or a particle number concentration (PNC)-63 based metric may more accurately reflect the toxicological response observed.³⁰⁻³³ In addition, 64 recent research efforts have also been made to evaluate the size distribution of NPs associated with 65 66 test organisms after exposure and the PNC of the organisms' body burden after extraction from the tissue and resuspension into a liquid media.^{15, 34-37} 67

In addition to their importance in nanotoxicology, PNC measurements also have regulatory importance.³⁸ For example, the use of a PNC as the metric in some geographical locations such as the European Union (e.g., 50 % of the particles between 1 nm and 100 nm) has been proposed for determining if a substance is labelled as containing NPs.³⁹ In addition, one key consideration for the use of OECD ecotoxicology test guidelines with NPs is what dose metric to use when evaluating if the change in the exposure concentration has exceeded the limit of ± 20 %.⁴⁰

One of the principle challenges in determining the PNC of NPs suspended in aqueous 74 media using size distribution measurements is that different analytical procedures can give varying 75 76 results. This stems partly from the potential for even a small number (1%) of NP agglomerates to shift the whole size distribution to larger particle sizes for some techniques such as nanoparticle 77 tracking analysis (NTA) and dynamic light scattering (DLS), given that these techniques are much 78 79 more sensitive to larger particles. Other techniques such as single particle inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (spICP-MS) would count agglomerates as part of the tail toward larger 80 particles, but this would be unlikely to shift the full size distribution.⁴¹ In addition, NP size 81 measurement techniques also measure slightly different properties of the NPs with some 82 83 measuring only the NP core diameter (e.g., scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and spICP-MS), while other techniques (e.g., DLS and NTA) also measure the hydrodynamic diameter, which 84

includes the NP surface coating (if the NP is being stabilized) and hydrated water ions. Therefore, 85 previous studies typically show that DLS and NTA results yield larger diameters for NPs than 86 results from other techniques that only measure the NP core.⁴¹⁻⁴³ When converting from the 87 measured size to the NP number concentration, it is unclear to what degree these size differences 88 would impact the PNC. For some techniques that directly measure the NP core, there are also 89 limitations such as low throughput analysis and challenges with sample deposition for SEM 90 analysis.⁴⁴ Some techniques also directly measure the NP number concentration such as spICP-91 MS, NTA, and potentially differential mobility analysis (DMA).⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷ However, it is unclear to what 92 degree these direct PNC measurements agree among techniques or with PNC values derived using 93 NP size measurements. 94

95 There have been several studies that have compared PNC measurements across laboratories for the same initial NPs using a single technique. Among studies utilizing spICP-MS, one study 96 was performed by a *post hoc* analysis of previously published spICP-MS data for the National 97 Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) reference material (RM) 30 nm and 60 nm gold 98 nanoparticles (AuNPs),45 and two other studies assessed silver nanoparticles (AgNPs) in food 99 simulants⁴⁸ or after addition to chicken meat.⁴⁹ An interlaboratory comparison has also been 100 conducted on polystyrene NPs and 30 nm AuNPs using NTA.⁴⁷ In the spICP-MS interlaboratory 101 comparison of AuNP results, the PNC recoveries for the 60 nm AuNP ranged between 63.9% and 102 99.95%, while the PNC recoveries for the 30 nm AuNP ranged between 14.8% and 102.2%, 103 suggesting that larger NPs may yield better recoveries.⁴⁵ Results for AgNPs yielded an even 104 broader range with the average recovery (after removal of outliers) ranging between 0.6% and 105 39% compared to the expected values from the manufacturer.⁴⁸ This result that could stem from 106 numerous factors including particle dissolution, losses from adsorption to the containers,⁵⁰ and 107 how the transport efficiency was calculated.⁵¹ However, there has not yet been a comparison 108 among techniques for measuring PNCs. 109

In this study, we conducted a multi-technique (Table 1) and multi-laboratory study to 110 investigate the comparability of PNC results for four AuNPs. To minimize variability that could 111 result from NP dissolution, matrix effects from complex aqueous matrices, or agglomeration as a 112 result of a high ionic strength media, a simple scenario was evaluated, namely AuNPs in water. 113 Four monodisperse AuNPs were tested: two NIST RMs (8012 and 8013) and two commercially 114 available AuNPs with different surface coatings which impacted the surface charge (positively-115 charged branched polyethyleneimine (bPEI) and negatively-charged polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP)). 116 Three samples were negatively charged: citrate-stabilized, AuNPs NIST RM 8012 and RM 8013 117 with nominal diameters of 30 nm and 60 nm, respectively, and the PVP AuNPs, while the bPEI 118 AuNPs were positively charged (Table S1). Because the measured mean values and shape of the 119 size distributions were found to vary among techniques, statistical analysis was performed to 120 understand the impact of variations in these and other parameters on the derived PNC results. The 121 size distributions measured by the different techniques were also used to model the AuNP 122 concentration that would reach the cells in an *in vitro* toxicity experiment, an approach that has 123 124 been used to evaluate the toxicological effects of NPs on, for example, human macrophage⁵² and alveolar epithelial cells.⁵³ 125

126 Methods

127 Test materials

Four aqueous dispersions of different monodisperse AuNPs with approximate spherical 128 129 shapes were tested in this study. Certain commercial products or equipment are described in this paper in order to specify adequately the experimental procedure. In no case does such identification 130 imply recommendation or endorsement by the National Institute of Standards and Technology, nor 131 132 does it imply that it is necessarily the best available for the purpose. For the RMs, particle sizes were previously extensively characterized at NIST with detailed information provided in the 133 ROIs.^{54, 55} The other two samples, purchased commercially, were PVP and bPEI coated AuNP 134 suspensions with nominal diameters of 30 nm. The characteristics of the AuNPs suspensions 135 studied here, are provided either in the NIST ROI or by the manufacturer are given in Table S1. 136 The identity for the two NIST RMs was revealed to the analysts at all three laboratories while the 137 138 other two samples were unknown (except for one spICP-MS analyst and the total Au analysts at one laboratory who were aware of the properties for all four NPs). 139

NIST RM 8012 and NIST RM 8013 aqueous suspensions were supplied in 5 mL
 hermetically sealed pre-scored glass ampoules sterilized by gamma irradiation. For both
 commercial AuNP samples, 5 mL aliquots were supplied in glass vials or in Nalgene bottles. Ice
 packs were used to keep the samples at 4 °C during shipping.

144 Laboratory 1: Total gold analysis

The mass fraction of Au in the test materials at various timepoints was quantified by ICP-145 MS throughout the study. The purpose of these measurements is that they were used to derive the 146 PNC values. For laboratory 1, two to three nominal, 0.25 g subsamples per vial were accurately 147 weighed into individual, clean, low density polyethylene (LDPE) bottles. The mass of each sub-148 sample was recorded to ± 0.00001 g. Following this, 0.1 mL of concentrated nitric acid (HNO₃) 149 and 0.3 mL of concentrated hydrochloric acid (HCl) (both Optima grade, Thermo Fisher Scientific, 150 Waltham, MA, USA) were added and the samples allowed to digest at room temperature for 15 h. 151 Sample solutions were observed to turn from pink to colorless. Process blanks, composed of 0.25 152 g of water, were treated in the same manner as samples. All water used for sample processing was 153 154 prepared in-house by sub-boiling distillation using a conditioned, quartz still with deionized water as feedstock. An accurately weighed mass of platinum (Pt) internal standard solution, prepared 155 from NIST SRM 3140 Platinum Standard Solution, was added to each sample and process blank 156 157 (collectively referred to as "samples"). Samples were then quantitatively diluted with 10 g of water, 158 forming the first serial dilution. Samples were quantitatively diluted a second time using an 159 aqueous diluent solution composed of 0.5 % thiourea (w/v), 2.4 % HCl (v/v) and 0.4 % HNO₃ 160 (v/v).

161 Mass spectrometric analyses were performed on a ThermoFisher Scientific X series II ICP-162 MS equipped with matrix tolerant (Xt) cones and operated at 1400 W. Solutions were introduced 163 *via* a peristaltic pump into a low-flow (100 μ L/min) PFA micro-concentric nebulizer. The 164 nebulizer was fitted to an impact-bead spray chamber cooled to 2 °C. Measurements were made 165 in continuous mode using peak jump data acquisition with one point per peak. Three to five blocks 166 of data, each one minute in duration, were acquired per sample. Signal intensities at m/z 195 and 167 197 were recorded. Duplicate mass spectrometric analyses were acquired per sample. The mass 168 fraction of Au in each sample was computed using an external calibration curve. Au standards 169 spanning the range from $0.5 \ \mu g/kg$ Au to $14 \ \mu g/kg$ Au prepared gravimetrically from NIST SRM 170 3121 Gold Standard Solution in the same thiourea/acid diluent solution as the samples, were used 171 to construct the calibration curve. Temporal changes in signal intensity throughout the mass 172 spectrometric analyses were corrected *via* the Pt internal standard present at similar mass fraction 173 in all samples and standards.

174 The mass fraction of Au measured in this manner includes contributions from Au present 175 both as AuNPs and as ionic Au. In order to assess whether any free ionic Au (i.e. not bound as AuNPs) was present in the test materials, nominal 0.2 g subsamples were accurately weighed into 176 15 mL centrifuge tubes, followed by the addition of nominal 5 mL water. Samples were then 177 178 centrifuged at – 15 °C for 1 h at 7000 g (Allegra 25R fixed angle rotor, Beckman Coulter). Two, nominal 1 mL subsamples of the supernatant were carefully withdrawn from the centrifuged 179 samples and accurately weighed into LDPE bottles. A known mass of Pt internal standard was 180 added, the samples were diluted gravimetrically in 4 mL of the thiourea/acid diluent, and the mass 181 fraction of Au was measured in the manner described above. 182

183 Laboratory 2: Total gold analysis

All AuNP suspensions were prepared at four different dilutions with Milli-Q[®] 18.2 M Ω ·cm 184 ultrapure water. Triplicate aliquots (0.5 mL) of each dilution level were transferred to 15 mL 185 polyethylene screw-capped tubes (Corning Sciences, Corning, New York) and a total of 12 186 replicates were analyzed for each AuNP. One mL of freshly prepared aqua regia ((3:1 v/v, HCl 187 (BDH VWR Analytical, Radnor, PA): HNO3 (Honeywell Fluka, Mexico City, Mexico)) was added 188 to each tube and put onto a mixer for 30 min. Once dissolved, the solutions were diluted to a final 189 volume of 10 mL with 2 % L-cysteine hydrochloride monohydrate (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) 190 (w/v) in Milli-Q[®] 18.2 M Ω ·cm ultrapure water. The samples were diluted an additional five-fold 191 with 2 % HCl (v/v), 2 % L-cysteine hydrochloride monohydrate (w/v) in Milli-Q[®] 18.2 M Ω ·cm 192 ultrapure water. 193

194 Calibration standards for a four-point calibration curve were prepared by diluting the 195 elemental Au standard purchased from High Purity Standards (Charleston, SC) with 2 % HCl (v/v), 196 2 % L-cysteine hydrochloride monohydrate (w/v) in Milli-Q[®] 18.2 M Ω ·cm ultrapure water. 197 Aliquots of three samples were selected as laboratory control spikes (LCS). An elemental gold 198 standard solution was spiked into the LCS samples at three different concentrations: 0.2 mg/L, 0.4 199 mg/L, and 0.6 mg/L.

The instrument used for the elemental analysis was a Perkin Elmer Optima 8300DV ICP optical emission spectrophotometer (Waltham, PA). The samples were analyzed against a fourpoint external calibration curve. A rinse solution containing 2 % HCl (v/v) and 2 % L-cysteine hydrochloride monohydrate (w/v) was used to minimize instrument carry-over between samples. The rinse time was set to 180 s. A 0.5 mg/L quality control standard was used to assess the accuracy of the calibration curve during the analysis. A 0.5 mg/L solution of scandium (High Purity Standards) was run in-line with the samples and standards to serve as an internal standard.

Laboratory 1: Single particle inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (spICP-MS) 207 208 analysis

Single particle ICP-MS measurements of all samples in Laboratory 1 were conducted using 209 210 a Thermo Electron X Series X7 quadrupole ICP-MS quadrupole ICP-MS system (Waltham, MA, USA) with a C-type nebulizer (0.5 mL/min) and an impact bead spray chamber cooled to 2 °C. 211 Descriptions of the spICP-MS technique and all other analytical techniques are provided in Table 212 1. The instrument was tuned daily to a minimum 156 CeO/ 140 Ce oxide level (<2%) and a maximum 213 ¹¹⁵In sensitivity. The sample flow rate was set to approximately 0.45 mL/min, and the uptake rate 214 215 was measured daily, in triplicate, by weighing the water uptake after 5 min of aspiration. NIST RM AuNP suspensions were prepared in triplicate by serial dilution of stock suspensions with 216 217 deionized water to an approximate particle number concentration of 15000 particles/mL. However, for the two unknown samples (PVP and bPEI AuNPs), three different dilution levels were tested 218 to obtain an adequate PNC that provided a sufficient number of events for counting statistics and 219 220 that minimized the particle coincidence occurrence. A blank (deionized water) and at least five soluble Au standards ranging from 0 to 100 ng/g Au in a thiourea solution (0.1 % thiourea (w/v), 221 222 2.4 % HCl (v/v), and 0.5 % HNO₃ (v/v)) were measured to calculate the Au sensitivity of the instrument. NIST RM 8013 was used as the NP calibrant for all materials except the RM 8013 223 224 measurements, in which case, RM 8012 was used. Since an AuNP standard was used, the 225 measurement of Au standards was not necessary, but this was performed in order to assess differences in transport efficiencies computed by the frequency and size methods, a finding 226 recently reported in a thorough study on this topic.⁵¹ As differences were observed, the transport 227 efficiency calculated via the frequency method was used for direct PNC quantification, whereas a 228 response factor (expressed in counts per second per ng of Au) established from signal intensities 229 measured for RM 8013 was used to measure the particle size distribution (PSD).⁵⁶⁻⁵⁸ For spICP-230 MS measurements of AuNPs, the signal for ¹⁹⁷Au was recorded using time-resolved analysis mode 231 with Thermo Fisher PlasmaLab software using a 10 ms dwell time. Data were exported to 232 Microsoft Excel for data processing. Ionic standard solutions were analyzed for 180 s, while AuNP 233 standards and suspensions were measured three times for 360 s for a total of 1080 s. A threshold 234 of particle intensities five standard deviations above the mean signal intensity was chosen as the 235 criteria for distinguishing between single particle events and the signal from dissolved ions in 236 solution. Particle sizes were calculated for all single particle events. 237

238

Laboratory 2: Single particle inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (spICP-MS) analysis

Single particle ICP-MS measurements of all samples in Laboratory 2 were conducted using 239 an Agilent Technologies, Inc. 7900 ICP-MS system (Santa Clara, Ca) with a MicroMist nebulizer 240 and a Scott-style double-pass spray chamber. The instrument was auto-tuned daily. The sample 241 flow rate was set to deliver 0.346 mL/min. All AuNP suspensions were prepared in triplicate by 242 serial dilution of stock suspensions with 18.2 M Ω ·cm ultrapure water to an approximate particle 243 number concentration of 15000 particles/mL. The instrument was calibrated using an ionic blank 244 (1 % HCl (v/v)) and a soluble Au standard of 1 ng/g Au in 1 % HCl (v/v). For spICP-MS 245 measurements of AuNPs, RM 8013 was used as the NP calibrant for all samples except the RM 246 8013 measurements, in which case RM 8012 was used. The signal for ¹⁹⁷Au was recorded using 247

single particle analysis mode with Agilent Technologies MassHunter software (ver. 4.3) using a 248 249 0.1 ms dwell time. The MassHunter software calculated the transport efficiency via the frequency 250 method for particle number concentration quantification and PSD. The standard solution was 251 analyzed for 120 s, while AuNP suspensions were measured three times for 120 s for a total of 360 s. A threshold of particle intensities five standard deviations above the mean signal intensity 252 253 was chosen as the criteria for distinguishing between single particle events and the signal from dissolved ions in solution. Data were exported to Microsoft Excel for data processing. Particle 254 sizes were calculated for all single particle events. 255

256 *Laboratory 3: Nanoparticle tracking analysis (NTA)*

All measurements for nanoparticle tracking analysis (NTA) were made using a Malvern NS500Z with software version 3.1. This software incorporates a finite track length adjustment (FTLA) algorithm, that compensates for the size distribution broadening caused by the stochastic nature of the Brownian motion. Hence, all results of NTA provide representative width of the particles, also described as hydrodynamic radii.⁵⁹

Furthermore, the NTA system was calibrated for particle concentration measurements with 100 nm polystyrene NP (Malvern Instruments) at different levels of detector sensitivity. These recordings of the Brownian motion were then analyzed with different amplification settings. This calibration process for particle concentrations allows for accurate detection all particles present in a given observation window for different types of materials and with it different particle surface reflectivity. The number of particles per mL is calculated based on this number providing a direct observation of particle concentration.

269 The NTA system allows a dynamic or static observation of the investigated particles. The 270 dynamic sample introduction system produces a continuous flow of particles, which allows analysis of between 1500 to 3000 individual particles within 60 s compared with the just 20 to 271 30 particles in the static arrangement. The dynamic arrangement increases the number of observed 272 particles by a factor close to 100, which of course also improves the statistical robustness of the 273 observed PSD. The dynamic setup was used for all cases, where over the recording period no 274 significant reduction of the particle numbers (which would indicate agglomeration) was observed. 275 If a reduction of the particle number was determined, then any recordings with a significant 276 277 decreased particle number was excluded from the data analysis. In addition, each time before a repeated series of measurements started, the sample was vortexed rigorously followed immediately 278 by the recording of the Brownian motion. Additional information for specific analysis conditions 279 280 used to measure the different samples are provided in the SI.

281 Laboratory 2: Differential mobility analysis (DMA)

A 450 μ L aliquot of each well-mixed sample was transferred to a polyethylene microcentrifuge tube purchased from Axygen (Union City, CA) and capped. The samples were centrifuged in a Beckman Coulter centrifuge (Brea, CA) at 6290 RCF for 12 min. Following centrifugation, 425 μ L of supernatant was removed and discarded while the individual nanoparticles remained in a pellet on the bottom of the tube. The pelleted particles were resuspended by adding 275 μ L of 5.0 mmol/L ammonium acetate purchased from JT Baker (Center Valley, CA) and vortexed for 20 s. The buffer exchange resulted in the re-suspended particles
being concentrated by a factor of 1.5. In addition, greater than 90 % of the insoluble sodium citrate
buffer was replaced with a volatile buffer which helped to reduce background particle formation
during the nebulization process.

The ES/DMA instrument consisted of a TSI 3480 Electrospray Aerosol Generator coupled 292 to a TSI 3082 Electrostatic Classifier and a TSI 3788 Nano Water-Based Condensation Particle 293 294 Counter (CPC; TSI Incorporated, Shoreview, MN). TSI Aerosol Instrument Manager Software 295 (ver. 10.1.0.6) was used to collect the data. The samples were placed in the pressurized sampling 296 chamber and sprayed through a 0.040 mm diameter capillary. The flow rate of the carrier gas was 1.2 L/min. The dried aerosol then passes to the dynamic mobility analyzer where the voltage is 297 298 ramped from -12 V to -4.2 kV. The sheath flow in the DMA was set at 15 L/min. The diameter of 299 AuNPs was characterized by electrical mobility, which is inversely proportional to the projected area of the particle. Once sized, the particles travel to the CPC where they were counted. Size 300 distribution data was collected over a minimum of 20 consecutive scans for each unknown sample. 301 Coating AuNPs with insoluble sodium citrate salt during the electrospray process affects the size 302 measurement of particle diameters. Therefore, corrected values for the mobility size of bare AuNPs 303 for NIST 8012, NIST 8013, and PVP AuNP samples were determined using a method described 304 previously⁶⁰ using the following equation: 305

306
$$d_{p0} = \sqrt[3]{d_{p,m}^3 - d_s^3}$$
 (3)

We were able to determine a corrected value for the mobility size of bare AuNPs d_{p0} , where $d_{p,m}$ and d_s are mobility sizes measured by DMA of the AuNPs covered with a layer of dried salts and nanoparticles consisting of only the salt itself, respectively.

310 *Laboratory 3: Dynamic light scattering (DLS)*

311 All DLS measurements were performed using a Malvern Nano Zetasizer ZS90. This instrument is equipped with a He-Ne laser 633 nm and it detects the scattered light at a 90-degree 312 angle. The performance of this instrument was periodically evaluated using NIST RM 8012 and 313 314 8013. The measurements follow the description of the DLS measurement method given in the NIST ROIs^{54, 55}. Briefly, all cuvettes were rinsed and the samples filtered with a 0.1 µm filter 315 (Acrodisc-syringe filter, Pall Corporation) prior to analysis. All measurements were made in the 316 317 automated mode, where the instrument selected the attenuation factor and then recorded between 11 and 18 runs measuring the dynamic light scattering of the particles. It transformed the variation 318 of the scattered light into the autocorrelation function, from which the instrument selected to 10 319 320 best ones for calculating the z-average size and the polydispersity.

NIST RM8013 was diluted by a factor or 10 with MilliQ water (> 18 M Ω ·cm), whereas all the other samples were diluted by a factor of 5. Before each measurement the cuvettes were mixed for approximated 10 s using a vortex. Special care was taken to remove any air bubbles, which could have developed during the stirring process.

325 Laboratory 1: Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

In Laboratory 1, the NIST ROI size and size distribution values for SEM were used for the 326 327 RM8012 and 8013 samples, while those for the PVP and bPEI AuNP samples were independently measured. Detailed information for the HR-SEM method for analysis of the PVP and bPEI AuNP 328 samples has been previously described.⁵⁸ Briefly, a previously published protocol⁶¹ was used but 329 with a slight modification in that samples were added to Si wafer chips. HR-SEM measurements 330 331 of clean and individual AuNPs were acquired within 2 d of sample preparation from 6 replicates of each sample and at least 10 individual locations within a selected site on each wafer. Examples 332 of the micrographs obtained for the different AuNPs by the two laboratories are provided in Figure 333 S13. 334

335 *Laboratory 2: Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)*

Samples were prepared for SEM by dilution with ultra-pure electronics-grade water supplied by an in-house water purification unit designed by Smith Engineering (Eden Prairie, MN). Two μ L of diluted sample were applied using an adjustable Eppendorf pipettor (Hauppauge, NY) to the surface of a 200 mesh formvar coated copper grid purchased from Ted Pella, Inc. (Redding, CA) to obtain a nominal concentration of approximately 5.0 x 10⁶ particles per grid for determination of mean particle diameter by SEM. The samples were allowed to dry and were submitted for imaging without any additional sample preparation.

343 To ensure statistical significance, a minimum of 200 images were collected for each particle type. A Hitachi SU-8230 Field-Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (Schaumburg, 344 IL) was used to collect the images of the AuNP samples. A scanning transmission electron 345 microscopy (STEM) in a SEM hybrid technique was used which combines through-sample 346 imaging of TEM with the focused rastering electron beam of SEM. The instrument accelerating 347 voltage was set at 30 KeV with a working distance of 8 mm and a tilt of 0 degrees. The bright 348 field-STEM imaging mode was used in STEM mode with a magnification of 100000 x. Each 349 image was processed with a median filter and a sharpening filter before segmentation. 350

351 Image Pro Premier software (Rockville, MD) was used to identify and size particles. For the NIST RM 8012, PVP and bPEI AuNP samples, the default "Dark" segmentation routine in 352 Image Pro Plus was used with smoothing set to 3 and grow set to 1. For the NIST RM 8013 sample, 353 a manual segmentation was applied, selecting all pixels between 0 to 80 on the 0 to 255 grayscale 354 range, with smoothing set to 3 and grow set to 3. Segmented images were analyzed for maximum 355 particle diameter. Images were taken at 100 000 x with an image resolution of 2560 x 1920 to 356 ensure that 30 nm diameter particles had ~ 50 pixels across in accordance with NIST procedure 357 PCC-15.⁶¹ The pixel size at these imaging conditions was 0.4961 nm per pixel or 2.016 pixels per 358 nm. The particle diameter values were exported into Excel and each processed image was visually 359 inspected for identification of sizing errors, making sure that the segmentation of particles was 360 correct and did not include multiple particles (doublets, triplets, etc.) or any foreign material that 361 was not an AuNP. 362

363 *Modeling the cellular concentration*

The DG-ISDD model⁶² was used to investigate the modelled cellular concentration using the following cellular exposure condition for all measurements: solvent viscosity ($0.00081 \text{ kg s}^{-1}$

m⁻¹), solvent density (1.0104 g/cm³), solvent temperature (37 °C), gold density (19.3 g/cm³), 366 367 agglomerate density equivalent to gold density (i.e., no agglomeration), column height (6.0 mm; 368 approximately equivalent to 0.2 mL in a 96-well plate), initial concentration (0.1 mg/cm³), simulation duration (24 h), no dissolution, and the sticky bottom assumption. The mean size or 369 370 PSD (using the mass fraction in different size bins) measured using the various techniques for each 371 of the four different AuNPs were also input into the model. It is important to note that changing 372 these parameters, such as the column height, would impact the modeled results. The model was 373 run using Matlab (2017).

374 *Statistical analyses: Particle size distribution (PSD)*

For the methods that provide data on each individual particle size (i.e., SEM and spICP-MS), these data were then summarized using various statistics such as the mean particle size, standard deviation of the PSD, etc. Plots of the PSD were produced using kernel density estimation procedures.⁶³ The data sets from different replications were combined to produce a single data set for each laboratory and each user.

All the remaining measurement methods produced size data in terms of frequency tables although their resolution differed. For example, differential mobility analysis (DMA) of NIST 8013 had bin sizes of around 1 nm, while the DLS frequency table for the same particle had bin sizes of various widths depending on the size of the center. These ranged from 1 nm to 20 nm. An example of this type of data for DMA is given in Table S3.

All methods produced replicated measurements. There are various methods of transforming this type of data into a PSD. The simplest method is to simply compute the proportions in each size category (i.e., bin), and then compute their averages and standard deviations. This approach can produce results that are not a true PSD in the sense that the averaged proportions do not have to add up to 1.

In this manuscript, the method used for calculating the PSD from a frequency table is based on a multinomial model.⁶⁴ The advantage of this method is that it always produces a PSD where the proportions add up to 1, and it comes with uncertainty that incorporates various sources, such as uncertainty due to repeatability, as well as uncertainty due to the resolution of the frequency table.

The multinomial statistical model states that the counts in the bins of the frequency table follow a multinomial distribution:

(5)

397
$$(n_{1j}, ..., n_{kj}) \sim Multinomial(p_{1j}, ..., p_{kj}, N_j), j = 1, ..., J$$

where *J* is the number of replicates, N_j is the total number of particles counted in replicate *j*, $(n_{1j}, ..., n_{kj})$ are the particle counts in each bin in replicate *j*. The p_{ij} are the population proportions of particles in the *i*th bin of replicate *j*. The objective is to estimate the p_{ij} and their uncertainties, and if necessary to combine them to obtain "average" values over the replicate samples. The average is not a simple arithmetic mean but is obtained using a hierarchical multinomial logit model⁶⁵ for the p_{ij} :

404
$$p_{ij} = \frac{\theta_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^{i=k} \theta_{ij}}, \ \theta_{ij} = e^{\beta_{ij}}, \ \beta_{ij} \sim N(\beta_{0i}, \sigma_i^2), \ i = 1, \dots, k, j = 1, \dots, J.$$
 (6)

405 The notation $N(\beta_{0i}, \sigma_i^2)$ means a Gaussian distribution with mean β_{0i} and variance σ_i^2 . In this 406 statistical model the between-replicate uncertainty is represented by σ_i^2 , and the "average" values 407 of the proportions for category *i* are

408
$$\frac{e^{\beta_{0i}}}{\sum_{j=1}^{k} e^{\beta_{0j}}} \ i = 1, \dots, k.$$
 (7)

To obtain point estimates and uncertainty of the relevant parameters we used a Bayesian analysis with non-informative prior distributions for the hyperparameters β_{0i} , σ_i^2 , i = 1, ..., k. We used a Gaussian distribution with a large variance (10⁴) for the β_{0i} , and Inverse Gamma distribution with small shape parameters (10⁻⁵) for σ_i^2 . More information about Bayesian methods and prior distributions in metrological applications are provided in section 6.1 of reference⁶⁶. The computations were done using Markov Chain Monte Carlo implemented in OpenBUGS.⁶⁷ Code is given in the Supplemental Methods.

416 Statistical Analysis: Derived Particle Number Concentration (PNC)

417 The derived NP number concentration formula for AuNPs is given as

418
$$PNC = \frac{C_{mass gold}}{\rho_{gold} \times \frac{\pi}{6} \times (size)^3}$$
(8)

where $C_{mass gold}$ is the Au mass concentration ($\mu g/g$), ρ_{gold} is the density of gold (19320 ± 1.4) kg/m³ 419 (uncertainty indicates standard uncertainty), size is the particle diameter (nm), and the units for 420 421 PNC are particles/L. To determine $C_{mass gold}$ for each AuNP, the mean, the standard error of the mean, and the number of subsamples for individual total Au measurements were input into the 422 NIST Consensus Builder (freely available at consensus.nist.gov) which applied the DerSimonian-423 Laird procedure described by Koepke et al.⁶⁸ to produce a consensus value for each AuNP with 424 uncertainty bounds, and an estimate of the between-sample variability called dark uncertainty. The 425 426 equation for deriving the PNC (8) is well defined under the condition that all particles are of the same diameter. In our case, there is a PSD for each particle type and measurement method. In what 427 428 follows we treat PSD as a probability distribution of the random variable *size*. In this sense, PNC 429 in (8) is a random variable with a probability distribution and an expected value

430
$$E[PNC] = E\left[\frac{C_{mass \ gold}}{\rho_{gold} \times \frac{\pi}{6} \times (\ size)^3}\right] = \sum \left(\frac{C_{mass \ gold}}{\rho_{gold} \times \frac{\pi}{6} \times (\ size)^3}\right) P(size) , \qquad (9)$$

431 which we can use to represent PNC. Most often in the literature,^{45, 51, 56, 57, 69} (8) has been 432 approximated using the average (or expected) particle size E(size) computed over the PSD as

433
$$PNC_{mean} = \frac{C_{mass \ gold}}{\rho_{gold} \times \frac{\pi}{6} \times (E(size))^3}$$
(10)

When the range of particle sizes is large, that is, when the variance of the PSD is large, or when the PSD is not symmetric, PNC_{mean} is not a very good approximation of E[PNC]. As described in subsequent sections, other features of the PSD may be better. 437 Because the function $\frac{C_{mass gold}}{\rho_{gold} \times \frac{\pi}{6} \times (E(size))^3}$ is convex in *size*, a mathematical property of 438 expectation of convex functions, the Jensen's inequality,⁷⁰ guarantees that $PNC_{distribution} \ge$ 439 PNC_{mean} , and so the estimate (10) is an underestimate of E[PNC].

440 For measurement methods which produce individual particle sizes (spICP-MS), where the 441 data is in the form of $s_1, ..., s_N$, E[PNC] is computed simply as

442
$$E[PNC] = PNC_{distribution} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{C_{mass \ gold}}{\rho_{gold} \times \frac{\pi}{6} \times (s_i)^3}.$$
 (11)

The specific value of E[PNC] will depend on the sample size N, and in that sense, has an uncertainty associated with it. There is also uncertainty in $C_{mass \ gold}$ and ρ_{gold} , and so E[PNC]has an uncertainty associated with it. This can be calculated using Monte Carlo propagation of uncertainty.⁶⁶ An example of the statistical models to include uncertainty due to $C_{mass \ gold}$ and ρ_{gold} for NIST RM 8013 is $C_{mass \ gold} \sim N(51.86, 0.32^2)$, $\rho_{gold} \sim N(19320, 1.4^2)$.

448 For size measurement methods that estimate PSD using a frequency table as in equation449 (6),

450
$$E[PNC] = PNC_{distribution} = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{c_{mass gold} \times p_{ij}}{\rho_{gold} \times \frac{\pi}{6} \times (s_i)^3}.$$
 (12)

451 When equation (7) is used, it becomes

452
$$E[PNC] = PNC_{distribution} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{c_{mass \ gold} \times \frac{e^{\beta_{0i}}}{\sum_{j=1}^{k} e^{\beta_{0j}}}}{\rho_{gold} \times \frac{\pi}{6} \times (s_i)^3} .$$
(13)

As an example, the statistical model to estimate particle number concentration for NISTRM 8013 using DMA is:

455
$$C_{mass \ gold} \sim N(51.86, 0.32^2)$$

456 $\rho_{gold} \sim N(19320, 1.4^2)$

457
$$(n_1, ..., n_{13})_j \sim Multinomial(p_{1j}, ..., p_{13j}, N_j), j = 1, ..., 20$$

458
$$p_{ij} = \frac{\theta_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^{i=13} \theta_{ij}}, \ \theta_{ij} = e^{\beta_{ij}}, \ \beta_{ij} \sim N(\beta_{0i}, \sigma_i^2), \ i = 1, \dots, 13, j = 1, \dots, 20$$

459
$$PNC_{distribution} = \sum_{i=1}^{k=13} \frac{C_{mass \ gold} \times \frac{e^{\beta_{0i}}}{\sum_{j=1}^{k} e^{\beta_{0j}}}}{\rho_{gold} \times \frac{\pi}{6} \times (s_{i})^{3}}.$$

460 Note that this statistical model assumes that all particles in bin *i* have diameters exactly 461 equal to s_i . As the size of the bins ranges from 1.8 nm (bin center 47.8 nm) to 2.7 nm (bin center 462 73.7 nm), it is appropriate to account for this additional uncertainty in $PNC_{distribution}$ by letting 463 size be a random variable with a triangular distribution as in $s_i \sim triangular(low, center, high)$ 464 where *low* and *high* are the two bin boundaries, and *center* is the bin center. The evaluation of this statistical model via Bayesian Markov Chain Monte Carlo produced our estimates of *PNC*_{distribution} and of their uncertainty.

467 Statistical Analysis: Impact of Size Distribution Shape on Derived Particle Number Concentration
 468 (PNC)

469 Modeling of the impact of the shape of the distribution on the PNC was performed using a470 skew Normal distribution which is defined by the following equation:

471
$$f(x) = \frac{2}{s\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2s^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{a\left(\frac{x-\theta}{s}\right)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt$$
(14)

with parameters θ (location), *s* (scale), and *a* (shape). When a = 0, the density becomes the Normal distribution. Skewness increases with the absolute value of *a*. Larger or smaller values of *s* correspond to greater or narrower widths of the distribution, respectively. Particle number concentrations were calculated for model distributions with different values of *a* and *s* using the approach described in the previous sections.

477

478 **Results and Discussion**

479 *Gold mass concentration results*

One key measurement used in the derivation of the PNC is the sample's total Au mass 480 concentration. Thus, we first measured the total Au mass concentrations in all of the AuNP 481 samples. For all samples, there was good agreement among all measurements of the total Au mass 482 concentration performed using ICP-MS or ICP-optical emission spectroscopy (Figure S1). 483 Surprisingly, one vial of the PVP AuNPs, which was opened at the beginning of the study, showed 484 485 unexpected results with the PNC decreasing after every subsequent measurement (Figure S2). Therefore, we monitored this trend over a 2-year period, analyzing the sample periodically by both 486 spICP-MS and total Au ICP-MS measurements. Interestingly, changes were not observed for 487 unopened vials from the same manufacturer shipment or for vials of the bPEI AuNPs that had been 488 open for a similar time period. While the cause of this change for the opened PVP AuNP sample 489 490 was unclear, these results suggest that time-dependent changes in NP samples should be monitored to ensure that they do not impact total mass or PNC measurements. 491

The amount of Au measured in the process blanks was negligible. The mass fraction of Au measured in the supernatant of centrifuged samples, representing the "ionic" Au portion ranged from $30 \mu g/kg$ Au to $85 \mu g/kg$ which amounted to less than 0.2 % of the total Au mass fraction in the test materials. Analysis of the supernatant of centrifuged samples by spICP-MS showed that some AuNPs were present, indicating that the centrifuge procedure had not removed all of the AuNPs from suspension. As such, the "ionic" Au mass fraction in the test materials is no greater than $30 \mu g/kg$ Au to $85 \mu g/kg$.

499 Size results

The values measured for the mean size in this study for DMA and SEM by Laboratory 2 for RM 8012 and 8013 were within 10 % of the values reported in the NIST Reports of Investigation (ROIs) (see Table S1),^{54, 55} which falls within the expanded uncertainty of the reference value (see Figures 1 and S3, or 2 for size distribution comparisons using boxplots or kernel density plots, respectively); kernel density plots show a smooth curve (i.e., without binning) estimating the probability density function of a continuous variability in this case the fraction of an AuNP over the size distribution. The DLS mean size values of RM 8012 and 8013 measured by Laboratory 3 and those measured in a recent study at NIST⁷¹ of RM 8013 were also within 10 % of the ROI values.

509 A trend was found among all of the AuNPs analyzed which showed that the NTA and DLS 510 analyses typically yielded larger size values than the techniques that only measured the core of the AuNP (e.g., spICP-MS and SEM), a result similar to other studies that compared NP size 511 distributions among analytical techniques.⁴¹⁻⁴³ This finding could stem from a contribution of the 512 surface coating and hydrated water ions to the size measurement for the NTA and DLS values or 513 514 from these techniques being more strongly impacted by AuNP agglomerates. Overall, DLS provided the broadest size distributions among the techniques tested. This is likely due in part to 515 DLS analysis being strongly impacted by the largest particles (signal intensity is proportional to 516 diameter to the sixth power⁷²), which has a substantial influence on polydisperse samples, and that 517 the autocorrelation function measured by the instrument is deconvoluted using bins on a 518 logarithmic scale and also assumptions of a monodisperse, normal distribution on the logarithmic 519 520 scale. As a result of these limitations, output from DLS instruments is typically reported as the "zaverage size" rather than a size distribution. However, the choice of which output to prioritize is 521 case specific and depends on numerous factors such as the particle properties (e.g., geometry, 522 dielectric constant, and size polydispersity) which impact the degree to which the sample can 523 satisfy the Mie theory-based model and what is fit for purpose for the measurement.⁷²⁻⁷⁵ In this 524 study, we mainly used an intensity-based size distribution which follows the approach described 525 in the NIST ROIs.^{54, 55} The potential for agglomeration in DI water for each of the four AuNPs 526 was evaluated using DLS (Figure S4). These analyses showed modest agglomeration across a 14 527 d period for the NIST RM 8012 and 8013 and PVP AuNP samples. In contrast, substantial 528 agglomeration (initial peak decreased to near 0%) was observed for the bPEI AuNP samples after 529 530 10 d or 4 d for the samples in plastic or glass, respectively (Figures S4 and S5).

One unexpected finding was the impact of the sample container (glass versus plastic) on 531 532 the size measurements of the bPEI AuNP sample using hydrodynamic size-based techniques. From a visual inspection, it was clear that agglomeration rapidly occurred in the glass vials that were 533 shipped from the manufacturer as indicated by a change in their color over time even when the 534 535 samples were stored under refrigerated conditions (Figure S6). This finding was corroborated by DLS analyses which showed greater agglomeration for the samples shipped from the manufacturer 536 in glass versus those shipped and stored in plastic (Figure S5). The different behaviors of the bPEI 537 AuNPs in these different containers may be a result of different interactions of the AuNPs with the 538 different container surfaces or the leaching of compounds from the containers which interacted 539 with the AuNPs. The agglomeration of these samples, in addition to the potential for interactions 540 of the positively-charged AuNPs with the different components of the sample introduction system, 541 presented problems for several of the analytical techniques such as DMA, which was unable to 542 measure the bPEI AuNP samples. While agglomeration of these samples also posed problems for 543 NTA, adjusting the protocol (shortening the analysis period prior to redispersing the samples using 544

vortexing between runs) yielded results for the bPEI AuNP samples stored in plastic containers 545 546 that were reproducible and exhibited a similar size distribution as the SEM and spICP-MS results 547 (Figure 2). For the samples stored in glass, however, analysis using this revised protocol still yielded NTA size results that were substantially larger than those for spICP-MS and SEM with a 548 tail that skewed toward larger sized particles (Figure S5). To evaluate to what extent the observed 549 550 results could be impacted by vial-to-vial variability, three different vials of the bPEI AuNP samples 551 in plastic were analyzed on the same day by spICP-MS; results indicated minimal vial-to-vial variability (Figure S7). 552

553 Modeling derived nanoparticle number concentration results

To better understand differences between the PNC_{mean} and PNC_{distribution} values obtained 554 555 from the five analytical techniques, statistical modeling was first performed to reveal the impact of various parameters on the PNC results. The results in this section reflect statistical modeling 556 557 using skew Normal distributions, and not the size distributions measured in this study for any of 558 the techniques. The theoretical impact of several parameters on the calculated NP number 559 concentration was investigated: total Au mass concentration, mean of the NP size distribution (Θ), 560 a tail in the distribution, and a change in the breadth of the distribution. Particle number 561 concentrations were derived using PNC_{distribution} or PNC_{mean} using equations (11) or (10), respectively. 562

The most straightforward parameter to evaluate was the impact of the gold concentration. A bias in this parameter was shown to have a linear impact on the NP number concentration (Figure 3A). For example, if the total gold concentration is underestimated by 5 % or 10 %, the NP number concentration will be similarly underestimated by 5 % or 10 %, respectively.

567 The impact of a bias in NP size (derived using either PNC_{distribution} or PNC_{mean}) on the NP number concentration is more complex because it is asymmetric and based on size to the inverse 568 third power. If the size is overestimated by a factor of 20 %, the PNC will be underestimated by \approx 569 42 % (Figure 3B). Conversely, if the size is underestimated by a factor of 20 %, the PNC will be 570 overestimated by ≈ 95 %. It is also important to point out that the magnitude of the bias in the NP 571 number concentration exponentially decreases for smaller negative size biases. If the size is 572 underestimated by 10 %, for example, the overestimation in NP number concentration is 37 %. 573 Note that there were up to 10 % differences in the NP mean sizes measured by different techniques 574 in this study compared to those measured in the NIST ROIs for RM 8012 and 8013, which would 575 correspond to differences among PNC_{mean} values of -24 % to +37 %. 576

To evaluate the influence of the breadth of the NP distribution and skewed distributions with tails toward either smaller or larger NP sizes, fifteen model distributions were generated using skew Normal distributions (Figure 3C). When changing the breadth of the distribution (*s*), the impact on PNC_{mean} depended upon the skew (*a*). In the absence of a skew (a = 0), there was no impact on the PNC_{mean} (Figure 3D). When the skew resulted in a distribution with a tail toward larger particles (a > 0), increasing the breadth of the distribution decreased PNC_{mean}. This result stems from the tail toward larger particles increasing the mean size which would decrease the PNC as shown in Figure 3B. The opposite trend was observed for distributions with a tail toward smallerparticles.

The trends for PNC_{distribution} (Figure 3E) differed in some regards from those for PNC_{mean}. 586 When the value of *s* was greater than 0.05, the breadth of the distribution had a pronounced effect 587 on PNC_{distribution} at some skewness values (a = -3, -2, or 0), but not when the distribution was 588 skewed toward larger particles (a = 2 or 3). For the distributions skewed toward larger particles, 589 590 there are counterbalancing trends: larger proportions of the distributions at larger NP sizes would 591 yield fewer particles, yet the broader distribution would also slightly increase the proportion of the 592 distribution at the smallest NP sizes, which would have a magnified impact on the derived PNC 593 (Figure 3B). For a distribution without a skew (a = 0) or a skew toward smaller particles (a = -3) or -2), broader distributions (greater s values) resulted in increased PNC_{distribution} values (reflected 594 595 in the blue, green, and grey traces in Figure 3E). This result is similar to that of PNC_{mean} for distributions with tails toward smaller particles, but the magnitude of the increase was 596 approximately a factor of five greater for PNC_{distribution}. 597

598 When directly comparing the modeled results for PNC_{mean} or PNC_{distribution} (Figure 3F), one 599 trend is striking: regardless of the distribution, PNC_{distribution} is always greater than PNC_{mean}. This result is a consequence of the Jensen's inequality⁷⁰ since PNC_{distribution} is a convex function of size, 600 and therefore, $PNC_{distribution} \ge PNC_{mean}$ (see Materials and methods section for additional details). 601 Overall, the magnitude of the difference between PNC_{distribution} and PNC_{mean} increased with greater 602 603 breadth of the distribution (indicated by increasing s values) and for distributions with a greater proportion of the distribution skewed toward smaller particles (i.e., the difference was smallest for 604 a = 2 or 3 and greatest for a = -2 or -3). 605

606 *Measured nanoparticle number concentration results*

Particle number concentrations were plotted for all the different particles using PNC_{mean}, 607 PNC_{distribution} or PNC_{direct} (Figure 4). In addition, pairwise comparisons (Figures 5, S8, S9, and S10) 608 609 were calculated among the PNC values for each AuNP. This allowed for a direct comparison 610 among techniques in terms of the degree of difference between their results, and also among the results for each technique depending upon if the mean or PSD was used to derive the PNC value, 611 or if PNC was directly measured by the instrument. In agreement with the modeling, PNC_{distribution} 612 (indicated by an orange marker in Figure 4) was greater than PNC_{mean} (indicated by a purple 613 marker) for all conditions tested. The PNC_{distribution} and PNC_{mean} values were closest for the 614 distributions without a tail toward smaller particles and for narrower distributions (e.g., the SEM 615 results for RM 8012 or 8013) (Figures 5, 6, S9, S10, and S11), a result also in agreement with the 616 modeling. The biggest discrepancies between the PNC_{distribution} and PNC_{mean} values were typically 617 observed for the techniques that yielded the broadest distributions such as DLS. Importantly, these 618 results reveal that this seemingly unimportant choice, namely whether to calculate PNC_{distribution} or 619 PNC_{mean} values, can have a substantive (potentially > 50 %) impact on the derived PNC. 620

The influence of estimating the PNC using a range of central tendency indicators (mean, median, mode, 10 % trimmed mean, 10 % winsorized mean, and M_{estimator}) or PNC_{distribution} were compared for the PVP AuNP sample (Figure 7; these central tendency indicators are defined in

Table S2). The PVP AuNP sample was chosen since it was more polydisperse than the NIST RMs 624 625 yet was able to be analyzed by all techniques, unlike for the bPEI AuNPs. While the use of alternate 626 central tendency indicators to derive the PNC typically yielded PNC results that were less than PNC_{distribution}, there were some scenarios, for example using the mode as the central tendency 627 indicator for DMA data, where PNCs were greater than PNC_{distribution} (Figure 7A). For all 628 629 techniques except for DLS, the difference between the PNC derived using the different central tendency indicators and PNC_{distribution} was less than 20 % (Figure 7B). The greater difference for 630 DLS between PNC values derived using central tendency indicators or the full size distribution 631 can be explained by the substantially broader size distribution for DLS compared to those for the 632 other techniques (Figure 2C); this resulted in PNC_{distribution} values for DLS that were more strongly 633 impacted by the tail of the distribution toward smaller particles. Overall, the central tendency 634 indicator that yielded results closest to PNC_{distribution} was the mode (Figure 7B). However, it was 635 636 unclear to what extent this result would be generalizable to other samples since it cannot be explained by a mathematical formula. 637

638 For the techniques that provided PNC_{direct} values (spICP-MS and NTA), it is informative to compare these values to PNC_{distribution} values obtained from the same technique (Figures 4 and 639 5). For spICP-MS measurements, PNC_{direct} values for all of the samples except for the bPEI sample 640 stored in glass are 3 % to 31 % lower than PNC_{distribution} measured by this technique (Figures 5, S8, 641 S9, and S10). This result may stem from NP losses within the sample introduction system for the 642 PNC_{direct} measurements or the impact of the instrument calibration procedure and in particular the 643 calculation of the transport efficiency.⁵¹ While it is possible PNC_{distribution} may be overestimated if 644 the density for the NPs is lower than that of the bulk metal,⁷⁶ this is unlikely to bias the 645 measurements reported here since the calibration and PNC_{direct} measurements used the same 646 density value (i.e., that of bulk Au). In contrast to the spICP-MS results, PNC_{distribution} values for 647 648 NTA were less than those directly measured using this technique for RM 8012 and the PVP and bPEI AuNPs (Figure 4A, 4C and 4D). This result likely stems from the size distribution measured 649 using NTA being shifted to larger particles compared to those for most other techniques, which 650 would result in a relatively lower PNC_{distribution}. 651

One valuable approach for comparing among NP size measurement techniques is 652 653 evaluation against an established reference technique such as electron microscopy. In this study, PNC_{distribution}, PNC_{mean}, and PNC_{direct} results for all techniques were compared to PNC_{distribution} 654 values measured in Laboratory 1 using SEM (Figure 6); the NIST ROI size distribution values 655 were used for the 8012 and 8013 samples, while those for the PVP and bPEI AuNP samples were 656 independently measured. Similar to the results from the NP size distribution measurements 657 (Figures 1 and 2), the PNC_{distribution} values from the spICP-MS from both laboratories and SEM 658 results from Laboratory 2 were generally the closest to the SEM value (indicated by the dotted 659 grey line in Figure 4 which shows PNC_{distribution} for the Laboratory 1 SEM results). PNC_{distribution} 660 and PNC_{mean} results from DMA, NTA, and DLS measurements often differed by greater than 30 % 661 compared to the PNC_{distribution} values using SEM (Figure 6). PNC_{direct} using spICP-MS were 5 % to 662 26 % less than PNC_{distribution} using SEM for the samples tested. There was not a consistent trend 663 between PNC_{direct} by NTA and PNC_{distribution} using SEM with PNC_{direct} using NTA being 664

substantially (34 % to 36 %) less for the two RM AuNPs yet 5 % or 40 % greater for the PVP and
bPEI AuNPs, respectively.

One interesting result from the pairwise comparison is the differing results for the direct 667 measurements of the bPEI sample in the two different containers using spICP-MS. For laboratory 668 1, PNC_{direct} and PNC_{distribution} were within 30 % using spICP-MS for the bPEI AuNPs in plastic 669 containers, yet ranged from 46 to 57 % for the bPEI AuNPs in glass containers. In all cases, results 670 for PNC_{direct} were lower than PNC_{distribution}. It is possible that the overall lower recovery for 671 672 PNC_{direct} as compared to PNC_{distribution} for measurements performed by spICP-MS may indicate loss of material to sample containers across the high dilution needed to properly perform an spICP-673 MS analysis. That the total Au mass fractions measured for the stock suspensions were close to 674 the expected values provided by the supplier indicates that any AuNP loss occurred in subsequent 675 dilution steps. Additional particle loss can occur within the sample introduction system of the ICP-676 MS (i.e. transport tubing, nebulizer and spray chamber). However, the spICP-MS PNCdirect 677 measurements for the bPEI AuNPs in glass containers showed the lowest recovery. This may serve 678 as further evidence of the impact of the glass storage container on the bPEI AuNPs and supports 679 the observation that storage of bPEI AuNPs in glass caused agglomeration with resulting lower 680 number concentration. Importantly, these samples yielded similar size distributions using spICP-681 MS and SEM, although the spICP-MS distribution for the samples in glass containers was broader 682 (Figure S5). Clearly, the ability of spICP-MS to measure both PNCdirect and PNCdistribution assists in 683 understanding the unique behavior of each nanoparticle system. 684

685 Impact on in vitro NP dosimetry

The impact of using the PSD or the mean diameter and of using different analytical 686 techniques on predicted cell dosimetry was evaluated using the Distorted Grid version of the In 687 vitro Sedimentation, Diffusion, and Dosimetry model (DG-ISDD).^{62, 77} While it is possible in this 688 model to adjust the adsorption properties ("stickiness") of the lower boundary condition reflecting 689 the potential for different NPs to be associated with the cell surface to variable extents.⁷⁷ the 690 modeling performed in this paper assumed a perfectly adsorptive boundary condition. When 691 692 evaluating the impact of different input parameters to ISDD models, the influence from uncertainty of measuring the NP size distribution has been generally treated as being modest relative to other 693 sources of uncertainty.^{62, 77, 78} However, the impact of different NP size measurement techniques 694 695 on the modeled in vitro cellular concentration has not yet been evaluated. The modeled values for different size measurement techniques, which were calculated using either the mean or PSD for 696 each technique, were relatively close ($\approx > 10$ %) for some samples (e.g., RM 8012), yet differed 697 substantially (a factor of 3) for the bPEI sample in glass (Figure 8). 698

To better understand the DG-ISDD results, the modeled *in vitro* concentrations across a range of AuNP sizes were modeled (Figure S11). The largest AuNPs (80 nm and 90 nm) showed nearly complete association with the cells after 24 h as a result of sedimentation. It is interesting to note that the amount of deposited AuNPs was nearly identical for the 20 nm and 30 nm AuNPs, while there was a ≈ 20 % greater deposition fraction for the 40 nm AuNPs. Therefore, for the ≈ 30 nm AuNPs, a tail toward smaller particles for a symmetrical distribution would not have as much of an impact on the cellular concentration as would the tail toward larger particles. This was likely a result of a decreasing impact of diffusion on the *in vitro* concentration counterbalanced by an increasing effect from sedimentation in this size range. For AuNPs with a size of ≈ 60 nm, there would be a similar magnitude of an impact on the deposited fraction for tails toward smaller or larger sized AuNPs with tails toward smaller AuNPs yielding less deposition while tails toward larger AuNPs would have greater deposition rates.

To compare the influence of using the mean or the PSD when calculating the deposited 711 cellular concentration, comparisons were made for each technique (Figure S12A). Overall, the 712 713 magnitude of the difference between using the mean or PSD was frequently less than 10 %, although larger differences were observed for some samples for DLS and NTA. This result is 714 similar to that from a previous study which showed that polydisperse samples could have 715 substantially different cellular concentrations depending on whether the mean or PSD was used in 716 the modeling.⁷⁷ When comparing the cellular concentration for each technique to the results for 717 the PSD for SEM (Figure S12B), there were substantially greater differences which in some cases 718 719 were up to 65 %. Importantly, the greatest difference among the techniques was observed for the bPEI AuNP sample in glass, the sample that showed the largest amount of agglomeration. Since 720 NPs often agglomerate extensively in cellular media,⁷⁹⁻⁸¹ this suggests that methods to improve 721 the precision of size distribution measurements of agglomerated NPs would help decrease the 722 uncertainty in the modeled cellular concentration, because it is challenging to accurately measure 723 samples with broad PSDs including large agglomerates. 724

725 In addition to performing modeling using the intensity-based DLS distributions which are utilized throughout the manuscript, modeling was also performed using the volume-based DLS 726 distribution as suggested by Deloid et al.⁶² Dynamic light scattering distributions can typically be 727 derived using intensity-, volume-, or number-based distributions, and which distribution to use 728 depends upon case specific criteria.⁸² The volume-based distributions yielded predicted deposited 729 percentages that were 4 %, 29 %, and 24 % lower than the intensity-based distributions for the RM 730 8012, 8013, and PVP AuNP samples, respectively. Calculations were not performed for the bPEI 731 samples since the volume-based size distribution yielded unrealistic results. Overall, full size 732 distributions using DLS often differed substantially from those measured using the other 733 techniques, and a recent framework for characterizing nanoparticles for medical applications 734 discouraged the use of DLS for measuring size distributions.⁸³ Using DLS for measuring the full 735 size distribution as the input for NP dosimetry modeling may lead to results that substantially differ 736 from those calculated using other high resolution techniques. 737

738 Conclusions

This multi-method analytical and modeling evaluation of PNC has yielded valuable 739 findings regarding recommendations for the usage of PNCs in future research and decision 740 making. Employing PNC_{distribution} has several advantages over using PNC_{mean} for PNC 741 measurements, because PNCmean is not a very good approximation of PNCdistribution when the PSD 742 is broad especially with tails toward smaller particles, not symmetric, or bimodal.⁵⁸ However, the 743 uncertainty for the percentage of the distribution in the tails would typically be larger than that for 744 a central tendency indicator such as the mean, and the PSD is substantially more challenging to 745 accurately calculate for some techniques such as DLS. Underestimation of the NP size or of the 746

percentage of a PSD in a tail toward smaller NP sizes would have a magnified influence on 747 PNC_{distribution} compared to PNC_{mean} values. Therefore, improving the accuracy of measurements of 748 749 the PSD and the comparability of results among analytical methods are key topics for ongoing 750 research. This would also support the increased use of PNC values in nanoecotoxicology research. When comparing PNC_{distribution} results, the techniques which only measured the core of the NP, 751 752 namely spICP-MS and SEM, were in closer agreement to each other than the results from the other techniques. DLS typically yielded results that differed most substantially from the other 753 techniques. Given the widespread adoption of some techniques such as DLS, it is critical to 754 recognize its limitations with regards to deriving a PNC from the measured DLS PSD. Analysis 755 of the PVP and bPEI AuNP samples yielded more variable results than those from the RM samples. 756 For the positively-charged bPEI AuNPs, many techniques were unable to yield reliable results. 757 Therefore, additional research is recommended to improve the characterization of NPs with 758 759 different surface coatings. Overall, the differences observed among techniques suggest it would be helpful to improve the agreement of these methods prior to usage of PNC values for regulatory 760 testing using OECD methods especially since some samples will contain agglomerated NPs which 761 is expected to further increase the difference in the values obtained among techniques. Lastly, this 762 study revealed that the analytical method chosen to measure the PSD can also have a substantial 763 impact on the modeled cellular concentration. Thus, the choice of which analytical technique was 764 used to measure the size distribution could in some cases yield substantially different modeled 765 766 concentrations that reaches the cells, thus potentially altering interpretations of the results.

767 Acknowledgements

768We acknowledge funding from the NanoScreen Materials Challenge co-funded by the Competence

Centre for Materials Science and Technology (CCMX). We thank NIST colleagues Kavuri P.
Purushotham and András E. Vladár for their contribution to the SEM analysis.

771 **Conflicts of interest**

There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

773 Author contributions

A.R.M.B., M.J., M. E., G.C.C., A.L.N., Q.C., J.K., B.M., K.M., and M.R. performed the experimental measurements. E.J.P. performed the DG-ISDD modeling. B.M. performed the statistical analyses. E.J.P. wrote the manuscript with contributions from the other authors.

778 **References**

- J. R. Potts, D. R. Dreyer, C. W. Bielawski and R. S. Ruoff, Graphene-based polymer nanocomposites, *Polymer*, 2011, **52**, 5-25.
- S. Pavlidou and C. D. Papaspyrides, A review on polymer-layered silicate nanocomposites, *Prog. Polymer Sci.*, 2008, **33**, 1119-1198.
- H. Zou, S. S. Wu and J. Shen, Polymer/silica nanocomposites: Preparation, characterization, properties, and applications, *Chem. Rev.*, 2008, **108**, 3893-3957.
- T. Nguyen, E. J. Petersen, B. Pellegrin, J. M. Gorham, T. Lam, M. Zhao and L. Sung, Impact of UV
 irradiation on multiwall carbon nanotubes in nanocomposites: Formation of entangled surface
 layer and mechanisms of release resistance, *Carbon*, 2017, **116**, 191-200.
- E. J. Petersen, R. A. Pinto, X. Y. Shi and Q. G. Huang, Impact of size and sorption on degradation
 of trichloroethylene and polychlorinated biphenyls by nano-scale zerovalent iron, *J. Hazard. Mater.*, 2012, **243**, 73-79.
- Final Science 10 (International Organization for Standardization), TS 80004-1: nanotechnologies vocabulary Part 1: Core terms. 2010.
- 7. ASTM (American Society for Testing Materials) International, E2456-06: standard terminology
 794 relating to nanotechnology. 2006.
- G. C. Waissi-Leinonen, E. J. Petersen, K. Pakarinen, J. Akkanen, M. T. Leppanen and J. V. K.
 Kukkonen, Toxicity of fullerene (C60) to sediment-dwelling invertebrate Chironomus riparius
 larvae, *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.*, 2012, **31**, 2108-2116.3, **7**, 21-29.
- 9. B. Nowack, R. M. David, H. Fissan, H. Morris, J. A. Shatkin, M. Stintz, R. Zepp and D. Brouwer,
 Potential release scenarios for carbon nanotubes used in composites, *Environ. Intl.*, 2013, 59, 111.
- 10. D. M. Mitrano, S. Motellier, S. Clavaguera and B. Nowack, Review of nanomaterial aging and
 transformations through the life cycle of nano-enhanced products, *Environ. Intl.*, 2015, **77**, 132 147.
- S. J. Froggett, S. F. Clancy, D. R. Boverhof and R. A. Canady, A review and perspective of existing
 research on the release of nanomaterials from solid nanocomposites, *Part. Fibre Toxicol.*, 2014,
 11.
- D. Singh, G. A. Sotiriou, F. Zhang, J. Mead, D. Bello, W. Wohlleben and P. Demokritou, End-of-life
 thermal decomposition of nano-enabled polymers: effect of nanofiller loading and polymer
 matrix on by-products, *Environ. Sci.: Nano*, 2016, **3**, 1293-1305.
- R. Bjorkland, D. A. Tobias and E. J. Petersen, Increasing evidence indicates low bioaccumulation
 of carbon nanotubes, *Environ. Sci.: Nano*, 2017, 4, 747-766.
- M. Mortimer, E. J. Petersen, B. A. Buchholz, E. Orias and P. A. Holden, Bioaccumulation of
 Multiwall Carbon Nanotubes in Tetrahymena thermophila by Direct Feeding or Trophic Transfer,
 Environ. Sci. Technol., 2016, **50**, 8876-8885.
- M. E. Johnson, S. K. Hanna, A. R. M. Bustos, C. M. Sims, L. C. C. Elliott, A. Lingayat, A. C. Johnston,
 B. Nikoobakht, J. T. Elliott, R. D. Holbrook, K. C. K. Scoto, K. E. Murphy, E. J. Petersen, L. L. Yu and
 B. C. Nelson, Separation, Sizing, and Quantitation of Engineered Nanoparticles in an Organism
 Model Using Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry and Image Analysis, *ACS Nano*,
 2017, **11**, 526-540.
- B. C. Nelson, E. J. Petersen, B. J. Marquis, D. H. Atha, J. T. Elliott, D. Cleveland, S. S. Watson, I. H.
 Tseng, A. Dillon, M. Theodore and J. Jackman, NIST gold nanoparticle reference materials do not
 induce oxidative DNA damage, *Nanotoxicology*, 2013, **7**, 21-29.
- 17. A. E. Nel, E. Nasser, H. Godwin, D. Avery, T. Bahadori, L. Bergeson, E. Beryt, J. C. Bonner, D.
- 824 Boverhof, J. Carter, V. Castranova, J. R. DeShazo, S. M. Hussain, A. B. Kane, F. Klaessig, E.

825 Kuempel, M. Lafranconi, R. Landsiedel, T. Malloy, M. B. Miller, J. Morris, K. Moss, G. 826 Oberdorster, K. Pinkerton, R. C. Pleus, J. A. Shatkin, R. Thomas, T. Tolaymat, A. Wang and J. 827 Wong, A Multi-Stakeholder Perspective on the Use of Alternative Test Strategies for 828 Nanomaterial Safety Assessment, ACS Nano, 2013, 7, 6422-6433. 829 18. J. A. Shatkin, K. J. Ong, C. Beaudrie, A. J. Clippinger, C. O. Hendren, L. T. Haber, M. Hill, P. Holden, 830 A. J. Kennedy, B. Kim, M. MacDonell, C. M. Powers, M. Sharma, L. Sheremeta, V. Stone, Y. 831 Sultan, A. Turley and R. H. White, Advancing Risk Analysis for Nanoscale Materials: Report from 832 an International Workshop on the Role of Alternative Testing Strategies for Advancement, Risk 833 Analysis, 2016, 36, 1520-1537. 834 19. A. J. Clippinger, A. Ahluwalia, D. Allen, J. C. Bonner, W. Casey, V. Castranova, R. M. David, S. 835 Halappanavar, J. A. Hotchkiss, A. M. Jarabek, M. Maier, W. Polk, B. Rothen-Rutishauser, C. M. 836 Sayes, P. Sayre, M. Sharma and V. Stone, Expert consensus on an in vitro approach to assess 837 pulmonary fibrogenic potential of aerosolized nanomaterials, Arch. Toxicol., 2016, 90, 1769-838 1783. 839 20. M. Sharma, J. Nikota, S. Halappanavar, V. Castranova, B. Rothen-Rutishauser and A. J. Clippinger, 840 Predicting pulmonary fibrosis in humans after exposure to multi-walled carbon nanotubes 841 (MWCNTs), Arch. Toxicol., 2016, 90, 1605-1622. 842 21. S. K. Hanna, G. A. Cooksey, S. Dong, B. C. Nelson, L. Mao, J. T. Elliott and E. J. Petersen, Feasibility 843 of using a standardized Caenorhabditis elegans toxicity test to assess nanomaterial toxicity, 844 Environ. Sci.: Nano, 2016, 3, 1080-1089. 845 22. E. J. Petersen, D. X. Flores-Cervantes, T. D. Bucheli, L. C. C. Elliott, J. A. Fagan, A. Gogos, S. Hanna, 846 R. Kägi, E. Mansfield, A. R. M. Bustos, D. L. Plata, V. Reipa, P. Westerhoff and M. R. Winchester, 847 Quantification of Carbon Nanotubes in Environmental Matrices: Current Capabilities, Case 848 Studies, and Future Prospects, Environ. Sci. Technol., 2016, 50, 4587-4605. 849 23. H. Selck, R. D. Handy, T. F. Fernandes, S. J. Klaine and E. J. Petersen, Nanomaterials in the aquatic 850 environment: A European Union–United States perspective on the status of ecotoxicity testing, 851 research priorities, and challenges ahead, Environ. Toxicol. Chem., 2016, 35, 1055-1067. 852 24. M. D. Montano, G. V. Lowry, F. von der Kammer, J. Blue and J. F. Ranville, Current status and 853 future direction for examining engineered nanoparticles in natural systems, Environ. Chem., 854 2014, 11, 351-366. 25. F. Laborda, E. Bolea, G. Cepria, M. T. Gomez, M. S. Jimenez, J. Perez-Arantegui and J. R. Castillo, 855 856 Detection, characterization and quantification of inorganic engineered nanomaterials: A review 857 of techniques and methodological approaches for the analysis of complex samples, Anal. Chem. 858 Acta, 2016, 904, 10-32. 859 26. F. Laborda, J. Jimenez-Lamana, E. Bolea and J. R. Castillo, Critical considerations for the 860 determination of nanoparticle number concentrations, size and number size distributions by 861 single particle ICP-MS, J. Anal. At. Spectrom., 2013, 28, 1220-1232. 862 27. D. G. Goodwin, A. S. Adeleye, L. Sung, K. T. Ho, R. M. Burgess and E. J. Petersen, Detection and 863 Quantification of Graphene-Family Nanomaterials in the Environment, Environ. Sci. Technol., 864 2018, 52, 4491-4513. 865 28. F. A. Monikh, L. Chupani, E. Zuskova, R. Peters, M. Vancova, M. G. Vijver, P. Porcal and W. 866 Peijnenburg, Method for Extraction and Quantification of Metal-Based Nanoparticles in 867 Biological Media: Number-Based Biodistribution and Bioconcentration, Environ. Sci. Technol., 868 2019, 53, 946-953. 869 29. G. Oberdörster, E. Oberdörster and J. Oberdörster, Nanotoxicology: An emerging discipline 870 evolving from studies of ultrafine particles, Environ. Health Perspect., 2005, **113**, 823-839.

871 30. L. Lagier, F. Mouchet, C. Laplanche, A. Mottier, S. Cadarsi, L. Evariste, C. Sarrieu, P. Lonchambon, 872 E. Pinelli, E. Flahaut and L. Gauthier, Surface area of carbon-based nanoparticles prevails on 873 dispersion for growth inhibition in amphibians, *Carbon*, 2017, **119**, 72-81. 874 31. A. Mottier, F. Mouchet, C. Laplanche, S. Cadarsi, L. Lagier, J. C. Arnault, H. A. Girard, V. Leon, E. 875 Vazquez, C. Sarrieu, E. Pinelli, L. Gauthier and E. Flahaut, Surface Area of Carbon Nanoparticles: 876 A Dose Metric for a More Realistic Ecotoxicological Assessment, Nano Lett., 2016, 16, 3514-877 3518. 878 32. A. J. Kennedy, M. S. Hull, S. Diamond, M. Chappell, A. J. Bednar, J. G. Laird, N. L. Melby and J. A. 879 Steeyens, Gaining a Critical Mass: A Dose Metric Conversion Case Study Using Silver 880 Nanoparticles, Environ. Sci. Technol., 2015, 49, 12490-12499. 881 33. K. Van Hoecke, K. A. C. De Schamphelaere, P. Van der Meeren, S. Lucas and C. R. Janssen, 882 Ecotoxicity of silica nanoparticles to the green alga Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata: Importance 883 of surface area, Environ. Toxicol. Chem., 2008, 27, 1948-1957. 884 Y. Deng, E. J. Petersen, K. E. Challis, S. A. Rabb, R. D. Holbrook, J. F. Ranville, B. C. Nelson and B. 34. 885 Xing, Multiple Method Analysis of TiO2 Nanoparticle Uptake in Rice (Oryza sativa L.) Plants, 886 Environ. Sci. Technol., 2017, **51**, 10615-10623. 887 35. E. J. Petersen, M. Mortimer, R. M. Burgess, R. Handy, S. Hanna, K. T. Ho, M. Johnson, S. Loureiro, 888 H. Selck, J. J. Scott-Fordsmand, D. Spurgeon, J. Unrine, N. W. van den Brink, Y. Wang, J. White 889 and P. Holden, Strategies for robust and accurate experimental approaches to quantify 890 nanomaterial bioaccumulation across a broad range of organisms, Environ. Sci.: Nano, 2019, 6, 891 1619-1656. 892 36. F. Abdolahpur Monikh, L. Chupani, M. G. Vijver, M. Vancová and W. J. G. M. Peijnenburg, 893 Analytical approaches for characterizing and quantifying engineered nanoparticles in biological 894 matrices from an (eco)toxicological perspective: old challenges, new methods and techniques, 895 Sci. Tot. Environ., 2019, 660, 1283-1293. 896 37. F. Abdolahpur Monikh, L. Chupani, E. Zusková, R. Peters, M. Vancová, M. G. Vijver, P. Porcal and 897 W. J. G. M. Peijnenburg, Method for Extraction and Quantification of Metal-Based Nanoparticles 898 in Biological Media: Number-Based Biodistribution and Bioconcentration, Environ. Sci. Technol., 899 2019, 53, 946-953. 900 38. S. C. Brown, V. Boyko, G. Meyers, M. Voetz and W. Wohlleben, Toward Advancing Nano-Object 901 Count Metrology: A Best Practice Framework, Environ. Health Perspect., 2013, 121, 1282-1291. 902 39. European Commission. 2011/696/EU: Commission Recommendation of 18 October 2011 on the definition of nanomaterial. Off. J. Eur. Communities: Legis. 2011, 275, 38-40. 903 904 40. E. J. Petersen, S. A. Diamond, A. J. Kennedy, G. G. Goss, K. Ho, J. Lead, S. K. Hanna, N. B. 905 Hartmann, K. Hund-Rinke, B. Mader, N. Manier, P. Pandard, E. R. Salinas and P. Sayre, Adapting 906 OECD Aquatic Toxicity Tests for Use with Manufactured Nanomaterials: Key Issues and 907 Consensus Recommendations, Environ. Sci. Technol., 2015, 49, 9532-9547. 908 41. H. E. Pace, N. J. Rogers, C. Jarolimek, V. A. Coleman, E. P. Gray, C. P. Higgins and J. F. Ranville, 909 Single Particle Inductively Coupled Plasma-Mass Spectrometry: A Performance Evaluation and 910 Method Comparison in the Determination of Nanoparticle Size, Environ. Sci. Technol., 2012, 46, 911 12272-12280. 912 42. R. F. Domingos, M. A. Baalousha, Y. Ju-Nam, M. M. Reid, N. Tufenkji, J. R. Lead, G. G. Leppard 913 and K. J. Wilkinson, Characterizing Manufactured Nanoparticles in the Environment: 914 Multimethod Determination of Particle Sizes, Environ. Sci. Technol., 2009, 43, 7277-7284. 915 43. J. S. Taurozzi, V. A. Hackley and M. R. Wiesner, A standardised approach for the dispersion of 916 titanium dioxide nanoparticles in biological media, Nanotoxicology, 2013, 7, 389-401.

- 44. A. Dudkiewicz, A. B. Boxall, Q. Chaudhry, K. Molhave, K. Tiede, P. Hofmann and T. P. Linsinger,
 Uncertainties of size measurements in electron microscopy characterization of nanomaterials in
 foods, *Food Chem*, 2015, **176**, 472-479.
- 45. A. R. Montoro Bustos, E. J. Petersen, A. Possolo and M. R. Winchester, Post hoc Interlaboratory
 Comparison of Single Particle ICP-MS Size Measurements of NIST Gold Nanoparticle Reference
 Materials, *Anal. Chem.*, 2015, **87**, 8809-8817.
- 46. B. T. Mader, M. E. Ellefson and S. T. Wolf, Measurements of nanomaterials in environmentally
 relevant water matrices using liquid nebulization/differential mobility analysis, *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.*, 2015, **34**, 833-842.
- 47. C. M. Maguire, K. Sillence, M. Roesslein, C. Hannell, G. Suarez, J. J. Sauvain, S. Capracotta, S.
 by Contal, S. Cambier, N. El Yamani, M. Dusinska, A. Dybowska, A. Vennemann, L. Cooke, A. Haase,
 A. Luch, M. Wiemann, A. Gutleb, R. Korenstein, M. Riediker, P. Wick, P. Hole and A. Prina-Mello,
 Benchmark of Nanoparticle Tracking Analysis on Measuring Nanoparticle Sizing and
 Concentration, *J.of Micro and Nano-Manufact.*, 2017, 5.
- 48. T. P. Linsinger, R. Peters and S. Weigel, International interlaboratory study for sizing and
 932 quantification of Ag nanoparticles in food simulants by single-particle ICPMS, *Anal. Bioanal.*933 *Chem.*, 2014, **406**, 3835-3843.
- 49. S. Weigel, R. Peters, K. Loeschner, R. Grombe and T. P. J. Linsinger, Results of an interlaboratory
 method performance study for the size determination and quantification of silver nanoparticles
 in chicken meat by single-particle inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (sp-ICP-MS),
 Anal. Bioanal. Chem., 2017, 409, 4839-4848.
- 93850.R. Sekine, K. Khurana, K. Vasilev, E. Lombi and E. Donner, Quantifying the adsorption of ionic939silver and functionalized nanoparticles during ecotoxicity testing: Test container effects and940recommendations, Nanotoxicology, 2015, 9, 1005-1012.
- 51. J. Y. Liu, K. E. Murphy, M. R. Winchester and V. A. Hackley, Overcoming challenges in single
 particle inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry measurement of silver nanoparticles,
 Anal. Bioanal. Chem., 2017, 409, 6027-6039.
- 94452.A. K. Pal, D. Bello, J. Cohen and P. Demokritou, Implications of in vitro dosimetry on toxicological945ranking of low aspect ratio engineered nanomaterials, *Nanotoxicology*, 2015, **9**, 871-885.
- 94653.M. K. Ha, Y. J. Shim and T. H. Yoon, Effects of agglomeration on *in vitro* dosimetry and cellular947association of silver nanoparticles, *Environ. Sci.: Nano*, 2018, **5**, 446-455.
- 948 54. NIST, Reference Material[®] 8012 Gold Nanoparticles, Nominal 30 nm Diameter. 2015.
- 949 55. NIST, Reference Material[®] 8013 Gold Nanoparticles, Nominal 60 nm Diameter. 2015.
- 56. H. E. Pace, N. J. Rogers, C. Jarolimek, V. A. Coleman, C. P. Higgins and J. F. Ranville, Determining
 Transport Efficiency for the Purpose of Counting and Sizing Nanoparticles via Single Particle
 Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry, *Anal. Chem.*, 2011, 83, 9361-9369.
- 57. K. E. Murphy, J. Lui, A. R. Montoro Bustos, M. E. Johnson and M. R. Winchester, NIST Special
 Publication 1200-21: Characterization of nanoparticle suspensions using single particle
 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry. Version 1.0. 2015, DOI:
 doi:10.6028/NIST.SP.1200-21
- 957 58. A. R. Montoro Bustos, K. P. Purushotham, A. Possolo, N. Farkas, A. E. Vladár, K. E. Murphy and
 958 M. R. Winchester, Validation of Single Particle ICP-MS for Routine Measurements of
 959 Nanoparticle Size and Number Size Distribution, *Anal. Chem.*, 2018, **90**, 14376-14386.
- 960 59. H. Saveyn, B. De Baets, O. Thas, P. Hole, J. Smith and P. Van der Meeren, Accurate particle size
 961 distribution determination by nanoparticle tracking analysis based on 2-D Brownian dynamics
 962 simulation, J. Coll. Interf. Sci., 2010, **352**, 593-600.

963 60. D. H. Tsai, R. A. Zangmeister, L. F. Pease, 3rd, M. J. Tarlov and M. R. Zachariah, Gas-phase ion-964 mobility characterization of SAM-functionalized Au nanoparticles, Langmuir, 2008, 24, 8483-965 8490. 966 61. A. E. Vladar and B. Ming, NIST-NCL joint assay protocol PCC-15: Measuring the size of colloidal 967 gold nano-particles using high-resolution scanning electron microscopy. 2011, p. 20. 968 62. G. M. DeLoid, J. M. Cohen, G. Pyrgiotakis and P. Demokritou, Preparation, characterization, and 969 in vitro dosimetry of dispersed, engineered nanomaterials, Nat. Prot., 2017, 12, 355-371. 970 63. Y.-C. Chen, A tutorial on kernel density estimation and recent advances, Biostatistics & 971 *Epidemiology*, 2017, **1**, 161-187. 972 M. Evans, N. Hastings and B. Peacock, in *Statistical distributions 3rd ed.*, 2000, pp. 134-136. 64. 973 65. Z. Chen and L. Kuo, A Note on the Estimation of the Multinomial Logit Model With Random 974 Effects, Amer. Statistic., 2001, 55, 89-95. 975 66. A. Possolo and B. Toman, Tutorial for metrologists on the probabilistic and statistical apparatus 976 underlying the GUM and related documents. National Institute of Standards and Technology, 977 Gaithersburg, MD, November 2011. doi: 10.13140/RG.2.1.2256.8482. URL 978 www.itl.nist.gov/div898/possolo/TutorialWEBServer/TutorialMetrologists2011Nov09.xht.). 979 67. L. David, S. David, T. Andrew and B. Nicky, The BUGS project: Evolution, critique and future 980 directions, Stat. Medic., 2009, 28, 3049-3067. 981 68. A. Koepke, T. Lafarge, A. Possolo and B. Toman, Consensus building for interlaboratory studies, 982 key comparisons, and meta-analysis, Metrologia, 2017, 54, 534-562. 983 69. A. R. Montoro Bustos, J. M. Pettibone and K. E. Murphy, in Nanoparticle Design and 984 Characterization for Catalytic Applications in Sustainable Chemistry, The Royal Society of 985 Chemistry, 2019, DOI: 10.1039/9781788016292-00037, pp. 37-83. 986 70. G. Hardy, J. Littlewood and G. Polya, in Inequalities, 2nd ed., Cambridge University Press, 987 Cambridge, England, 1988, pp. 83-84. 988 71. S. K. Hanna, A. R. Montoro Bustos, A. W. Peterson, V. Reipa, L. D. Scanlan, S. Hosbas Coskun, T. J. 989 Cho, M. E. Johnson, V. A. Hackley, B. C. Nelson, M. R. Winchester, J. T. Elliott and E. J. Petersen, 990 Agglomeration of Escherichia coli with Positively Charged Nanoparticles Can Lead to Artifacts in 991 a Standard Caenorhabditis elegans Toxicity Assay, Environ. Sci. Technol., 2018, 52, 5968-5978. 992 72. J. Stetefeld, S. A. McKenna and T. R. Patel, Dynamic light scattering: a practical guide and 993 applications in biomedical sciences, Biophys. Rev., 2016, 8, 409-427. 994 73. S. P. Pan, H. F. Weng, C. M. Lin and T. S. Liu, Uncertainty Analysis on Precision Measurement for 995 Polystyrene Nanospheres Using Dynamic Light Scattering, Jap. J. Appl. Phys., 2010, 49. 996 74. D. Biganzoli and F. Ferri, Statistical analysis of dynamic light scattering data: revisiting and 997 beyond the Schatzel formulas, Optics Express, 2018, 26, 29375-29392. 998 75. S. Aleandri, A. Vaccaro, R. Id, Armenta, A. Charles Völker and M. Kuentz, Dynamic Light 999 Scattering of Biopharmaceutics—Can Analytical Performance Be Enhanced by Laser Power?, 1000 2018. 1001 76. S. Tadjiki, M. D. Montano, S. Assemi, A. Barber, J. Ranville and R. Beckett, Measurement of the 1002 Density of Engineered Silver Nanoparticles Using Centrifugal FFF-TEM and Single Particle ICP-MS, 1003 Anal. Chem., 2017, 89, 6057-6065. 1004 77. G. M. DeLoid, J. M. Cohen, G. Pyrgiotakis, S. V. Pirela, A. Pal, J. Liu, J. Srebric and P. Demokritou, 1005 Advanced computational modeling for in vitro nanomaterial dosimetry, Part. Fibre Toxicol., 1006 2015, **12**, 32. 1007 78. P. M. Hinderliter, K. R. Minard, G. Orr, W. B. Chrisler, B. D. Thrall, J. G. Pounds and J. G. Teeguarden, ISDD: A computational model of particle sedimentation, diffusion and target cell 1008 1009 dosimetry for in vitro toxicity studies, Part. Fibre Toxicol., 2010, 7.

1010	79.	J. T. Elliott, M. Rosslein, N. W. Song, B. Toman, A. Kinsner-Ovaskainen, R. Maniratanachote, M. L.
1011		Salit, E. J. Petersen, F. Sequeira, E. L. Romsos, S. J. Kim, J. Lee, N. R. von Moos, F. Rossi, C. Hirsch,
1012		H. F. Krug, W. Suchaoin and P. Wick, Toward Achieving Harmonization in a Nanocytotoxicity
1013		Assay Measurement Through an Interlaboratory Comparison Study, Altex, 2017, 34, 201-218.
1014	80.	M. Rösslein, J. T. Elliott, M. Salit, E. J. Petersen, C. Hirsch, H. F. Krug and P. Wick, Use of Cause-
1015		and-Effect Analysis to Design a High-Quality Nanocytotoxicology Assay, Chem. Res. Toxicol.,
1016		2015, 28 , 21-30.
1017	81.	G. J. Oostingh, E. Casals, P. Italiani, R. Colognato, R. Stritzinger, J. Ponti, T. Pfaller, Y. Kohl, D.
1018		Ooms, F. Favilli, H. Leppens, D. Lucchesi, F. Rossi, I. Nelissen, H. Thielecke, V. F. Puntes, A. Duschl
1019		and D. Boraschi, Problems and challenges in the development and validation of human cell-
1020		based assays to determine nanoparticle-induced immunomodulatory effects, Part. Fibre
1021		<i>Toxicol.</i> , 2011, 8 , 21.
1022	82.	Malvern Instruments Limited. Technical Note: Intensity - Volume - Number: Which size is
1023		correct, 2017.
1024	83.	F. Caputo, J. Clogston, L. Calzolai, M. Rösslein and A. Prina-Mello, Measuring particle size
1025		distribution of nanoparticle enabled medicinal products, the joint view of EUNCL and NCI-NCL. A
1026		step by step approach combining orthogonal measurements with increasing complexity, J.
1027		Controlled Rel., 2019, 299 , 31-43.
1028		

Table 1 – Summary table listing techniques, mode of operation, laboratories that used this
 technique, etc.

Technique	Mode of operation	Number of laboratories that used this technique	Direct Measurement of NP Number Concentration	Does size measurement include coating?
	Measures scattered			
	electrons off of or through			
SEM	a sample	2	N	N
	Measures Brownian			
	motion of particles using			
DLS	a laser	1	Ν	Y
	Measures signal intensity			
	for a given element for a			
spICP-MS	single particle	2	Y	Ν
	Uses light scattering and			
	Brownian motion using a			
	laser to measure the			
NTA	particle size distribution	1	Y	Y
	Separates charged			
	aerosilized particles			
	according to their			
	mobility in an electric			
DMA	field	1	Ν	Y



Figure 1 – Boxplots for the NIST RM 8012, NIST RM 8013, PVP AuNP, and bPEI AuNP (in 1035 plastic vials) samples. The thick horizontal line across each box marks the median of the 1036 corresponding particle size distribution, and the bottom and top of the box indicate the 25th and 1037 75th percentiles, respectively. The bottom and top whiskers indicate the range for 10th and 90th 1038 percentiles, respectively. Values are provided for spICP-MS, DMA, NTA, and SEM. Given the 1039 1040 broad size distribution of DLS relative to other techniques, boxplots including the DLS size distributions are provided in Figure S3. Results are not reported for the DMA analysis of the bPEI 1041 sample because of challenges with analyzing this sample. 1042



Figure 2 – Kernel density plots for NIST RM 8012 (A), NIST RM 8013 (B), PVP AuNP (C), and
bPEI AuNP (in plastic vials) samples (D). Values are provided for spICP-MS, DMA, NTA, SEM,
and DLS. Results are not reported for the DMA analysis of the bPEI sample because of challenges
with analyzing this sample.





Figure 3 – Modeling for impact of size distribution changes on NP number concentration measurements. Plots show the bias in the derived PNC for a bias in the measured elemental concentration (A) or NP size (B). Fifteen different distributions were generated using a skew Normal distribution to model the impact of skew (*a*) and standard deviation of the distribution (*s*) (C). The impact of different amounts of skew or standard deviations of the distribution was evaluated for PNC_{mean} (D), PNC_{distribution} (E), or the percentage different between PNC_{distribution} and PNC_{mean} (calculated as 100 % * (PNC_{distribution}-PNC_{mean})/PNC_{distribution}) (F).



Figure 4 – Comparison among techniques, laboratories, and operators for the PNC measurements 1058 (PNC_{mean} (purple circles), PNC_{distribution} (orange circles), or PNC_{direct} (green circles)) for (A) NIST 1059 RM 8012, (B) NIST RM 8013, (C) PVP AuNP, and (D) bPEI AuNP (in plastic vials) samples. 1060 Values are provided for spICP-MS, DMA, NTA, SEM, and DLS. Data points indicate the mean 1061 and the error bars are 95 % confidence intervals, and error bars that are not visible are smaller than 1062 1063 data points. The horizontal dotted blue line and the blue shaded area correspond to the mean and 95 % confidence interval, respectively, of the PNC_{distribution} results for SEM analyses from 1064 Laboratory 1. 1065



1068

1069 Figure 5 – Pairwise comparison among all techniques for the RM 8012 sample for the PNC_{mean} ,

1070 PNC_{distribution}, and PNC_{direct} values. All values are percentages calculating using the formula 100 %

1071 * $(PNC_y - PNC_x)/PNC_y$ where PNC_x is the PNC listed in the column and PNC_y is the PNC listed

1072 in the row. Colors indicate the percentage deviation between the techniques.



Figure 6 – Comparison of PNC_{direct}, PNC_{mean}, and PNC_{distribution} to PNC_{distribution} using SEM by
Laboratory 1 for samples RM 8012 (A), RM 8013 (B), PVP AuNP (C), and bPEI (in plastic vials)
AuNP (D). Data points indicate the mean and the error bars are the propagated errors for two times
the relative uncertainty, and error bars that are not visible are smaller than data points. Data were

1078 calculated using the following formula:

1079 Percentage=100 % * (PNC-PNC_{distribution, SEM})/PNC_{distribution, SEM}.



1080

Figure 7 – Comparison of derived PNC values from a range of central tendency indicators and the particle size distribution for the PVP AuNPs. Data is shown for the derived PNC values (A) or by comparing the values for the different central tendency indicators against PNC_{distribution} (B). Percentages were calculated using the formula 100 % * (PNC_{distribution} – PNC_{central tendency} indicator)/PNC_{distribution}. Data indicate the mean value and error bars indicate 95 % confidence intervals, and error bars that are not visible are smaller than data points.



Figure 8 – Modeled *in vitro* concentrations of RM 8012, RM 8013, PVP AuNPs, and bPEI AuNPs
stored in plastic or glass using the DG-ISDD model. This model does not provide an estimate of
uncertainty for each data point and therefore uncertainty values are not included.